



English Long Term Plan



Independence &
Preparation for
Adulthood

Intent:

Reading

Phonics: Phonics is taught from years 3-6. Pupils are assessed at the start of the academic year, or when they begin their journey at Westbury Academy. This initial assessment will highlight which group is best for each pupil so that gaps in learning can be filled and then built on. Pupils are further assessed every half term to monitor progress; they may move phonics groups based on the outcomes of this assessment. Phonics takes place at the same time for everyone to ensure that pupils are not missing other elements of their education.

LEAP: The LEAP intervention is delivered to pupils in year 7 to 11. It is a form of phonics that is more suitable for older learners. There is an initial assessment that will advise which stage pupils should start at; pupils are streamed across year groups so that gaps in learning can be filled for all learners. Some pupils (who have been identified as requiring urgent intervention) will access the LEAP intervention at Reading for Pleasure with Miss Martin (English Lead) to ensure that all pupils' needs are met.

Reading for Pleasure: Reading for Pleasure takes place for 15 minutes every day in tutor groups. The aim of Reading for Pleasure is for pupils to develop a passion for reading. Pupils can select a text of their choice to read on some days and teachers will read to pupils on other days; this gives pupils the opportunity to access texts that they may not be able to independently. The library is available to tutor groups so that pupils can experience reading in a different, more relaxed environment.

Vocabulary

Lexonik vocabulary is taught using Lexonik cloud. It breaks words down in its parts: affixes, stems and roots. This morphemic analysis approach supports pupils to identify means of unfamiliar words. Lexonik vocabulary will be taught in all subjects across the school. The way that vocabulary is taught supports pupils to read unfamiliar words as they are colour coded into syllables, making decoding easier.

Speaking, Listening and Communication

Communication can take many forms: verbal, written, actions, facial expressions, body language, visual and active listening, to name a few. Pupils are taught drawing on their strengths but also develop all forms of communication to express their views, feelings and needs. We actively encourage varied opportunities to speak in a range of contexts. Paired, and whole class discussions, take place across the curriculum. We believe that "writing floats on a sea of talk" -James Britton (1976). Talk for writing plays a fundamental role in planning, creating and editing pieces of written work.

A speaking, listening and communication exam is required at most of the end of school qualifications in English. Therefore, critical national curriculum objectives, for each year group, are stated in the overview through school. Pupils are encouraged to present their work to the class or an adult on a regular basis to ensure they have the skills and confidence required to verbally communicate effectively. Pupils are taught to actively listen to others and to contribute to what has been said during discussions. These skills can be challenging to learn so all staff model positive active speaking and listening skills in conversations with adults and pupils.

Spelling, grammar and punctuation

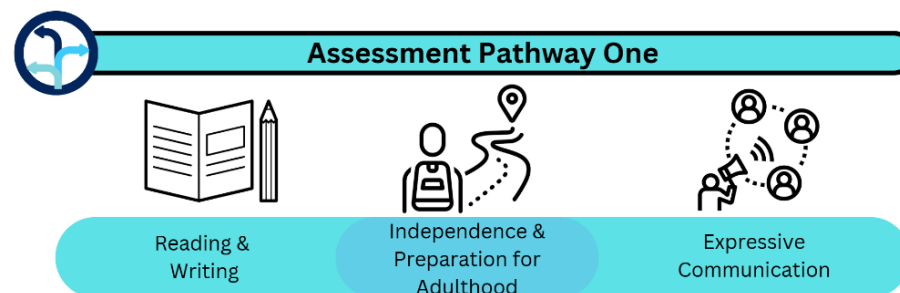
Spelling, grammar and punctuation is already well sequenced in years 3-6 in preparation for SATs exams. Previously it has not been explicitly taught in ks3. A SPaG mastery approach has been adopted to ensure that pupils do not forget knowledge that they have been taught and to fill gaps in learning. What is taught is adapted each year to meet the needs of each cohort. There are different SPaG objectives to be delivered to year groups for each half term. The teaching of SPaG is then monitored through book trawls and pupil voice each half term.

At the heart is the cultivation of pupil **Independence** in thought and expression, alongside providing the literary and communicative foundations necessary for successful **Preparation for Adulthood**.



English: Westbury's Assessment Pathways

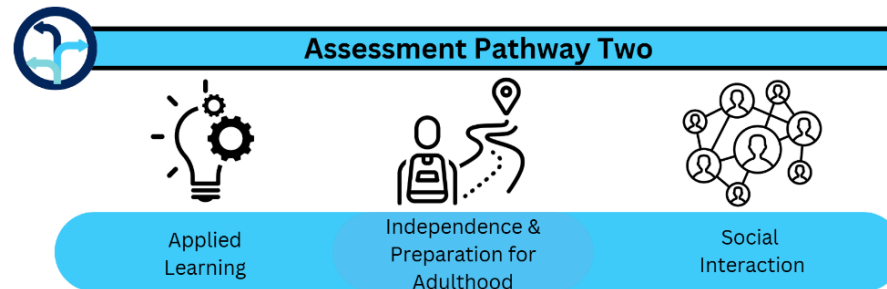
The English curriculum at Westbury is designed and assessed through Westbury's Assessment Pathways. Each pathway ensures pupils access English at a level suited to their individual needs and development.



Pupils are supported in developing early decoding and writing skills and confidence in their own ability.

A focus on:

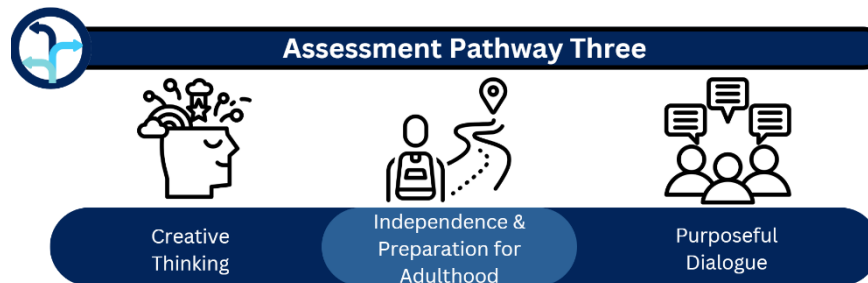
- Developing foundational decoding skills to accurately read and comprehend familiar and accessible texts.
- Consolidating phonics knowledge to enhance word recognition and build reading fluency at an appropriate pace.
- Utilising fundamental grammatical structures and basic punctuation to ensure clarity and coherence in their written communication.
- Adapting their writing for common purposes, such as narrating events or providing simple information.
- Cultivating clear oral communication skills, including active listening and the ability to articulate ideas in structured discussions.
- Building confidence in presenting straightforward information and expressing their thoughts clearly to small groups.
- Learning to offer and receive constructive feedback on their work and the work of peers, fostering a supportive learning environment.
- Recognising how basic word choices and sentence structures can influence meaning in their own communication and in the texts they encounter.



Pupils build comprehension skills; their use of sentence structure and grammar; and enhance their communication skills in wider group scenarios, whilst developing resilience and independence.

A focus on:

- A stronger understanding of themselves and their place in the world, gained by exploring diverse characters, themes, and societal issues within fiction, non-fiction, and poetry.
- Resilience and empathy, fostered by engaging with complex human experiences and ethical dilemmas presented in texts from various cultures and historical periods.
- Clear and effective communication skills, enabling them to articulate their thoughts and connect meaningfully with others through structured discussion, persuasive debate, and sophisticated written expression.
- Improved critical thinking and analytical abilities, developed through closely examining literary and non-literary texts, evaluating arguments, and forming reasoned interpretations.
- Creativity and imagination, encouraged through engaging with imaginative literature and developing their own expressive writing in various genres and forms.
- A growing enjoyment of reading and language, fostering a lifelong curiosity about words, stories, and the world they represent, underpinning success across the entire curriculum.
- The cultural knowledge and understanding of society that comes from engaging with significant literary works and diverse voices within the English literary heritage and contemporary writing.



Pupils are encouraged to independently apply their reading skills to a variety of literature; use a range of sentence types, punctuation and grammar in a range of text types and develop their speaking and listening and communication skills in a range of scenarios including delivering presentations.

A focus on:

- Deepening comprehension and critical analysis of challenging texts, understanding themes, authorial intent, and literary techniques.
- Expanding their vocabulary and understanding of complex syntax through wide and varied reading, applying this to their own expression.
- Mastering a repertoire of grammatical structures and sophisticated punctuation to enhance clarity, impact, and style across all written forms.
- Adapting their writing style, tone, and structure for different purposes and audiences, from formal essays to creative pieces and professional communications.
- Developing articulate and persuasive oral communication, practicing active listening, respectful debate, and the effective structuring of arguments.
- Building confidence in public speaking, including the research, organization, and delivery of engaging presentations to diverse groups.
- Refining their ability to give and receive constructive feedback on both written and spoken work, fostering a collaborative learning environment.
- Understanding the impact of language choices on meaning and audience reception, both in their own work and when interpreting others'.



Personal Development and Careers Links

The Art curriculum at Westbury Academy plays a key role in supporting pupils' Personal Development.

Personal Development Links

- A strong sense of self and their place in the world by exploring diverse narratives and perspectives.
- Resilience and empathy as they engage with complex human experiences depicted in literature.
- Effective communication and interpersonal skills, enabling them to articulate their thoughts and connect meaningfully with others.
- Critical thinking and problem-solving abilities, empowering them to make informed decisions and navigate challenges.
- Creativity and imagination, fostering innovative thinking and personal expression.
- A lifelong love of learning and a curiosity about the world, equipping them with the drive for continuous personal growth.
- The cultural capital and understanding necessary to engage thoughtfully with society and civic life.

Careers Links

- Exceptional communication skills, both written and verbal, which are highly valued in every profession and essential for effective collaboration and client interaction.
- Strong analytical and critical thinking abilities, enabling them to evaluate information, solve complex problems, and make informed decisions in any career path.
- The capacity for research and information synthesis, preparing them to gather, process, and present data clearly and concisely – a core skill across diverse industries.
- Creativity and innovative thinking, fostering the ability to generate new ideas, adapt to changing circumstances, and contribute fresh perspectives in the workplace.
- Empathy and understanding of diverse perspectives, crucial for successful teamwork, leadership, and navigating a globalized professional environment.
- Presentation skills and self-assurance, empowering them to articulate their ideas confidently in interviews, meetings, and public speaking engagements.
- A rich vocabulary and precise language use, allowing them to communicate professionally and persuasively, enhancing their impact in any field.
- The ability to interpret and create various forms of text, from reports and proposals to marketing materials, making them adaptable to different professional communication needs.
- Cultural literacy and global awareness, providing a broader understanding of the world that is increasingly vital in interconnected industries and international roles.



Table Template

	<u>Week 1</u>	<u>Week 2</u>	<u>Week 3</u>	<u>Week 4</u>	<u>Week 5</u>	<u>Week 6</u>	<u>Week 7</u>	<u>Week 8</u>	<u>Week 9</u>	<u>Week 10</u>	<u>Week 11</u>	<u>Week 12</u>	<u>Week 13</u>	<u>Week 14</u>
<u>Autumn</u>														
<u>Spring</u>														
<u>Summer</u>														

Links to National Curriculum Objectives

Curriculum links to the National Curriculum are detailed in Appendix 4: National Curriculum Objectives, which outlines progression from EYFS through to Key Stage 4.



English Overview – Nurture Group

Texts

Autumn – five minutes peace & the tiger who came to tea

Spring – Fairy Tales & Dick Whittington

Summer – Dinosaur Roar & Jubati the Tortoise

	<u>Week 1</u>	<u>Week 2</u>	<u>Week 3</u>	<u>Week 4</u>	<u>Week 5</u>	<u>Week 6</u>	<u>Week 7</u>	<u>Week 8</u>	<u>Week 9</u>	<u>Week 10</u>	<u>Week 11</u>	<u>Week 12</u>	<u>Week 13</u>	<u>Week 14</u>
<u>Autumn</u>	Mark making	Let's draw	Lost and found	My family	Dressing up	Friendship recipe		stories from the past		Look how you've grown	diaries		Joining in with the story	
<u>Spring</u>	Fairy tale magic	Goldilocks is sorry	Tell a Tale	Remembering Our Experience	Make a book		Recount, labels and captions	Adventure narratives		instructions	emails			
<u>Summer</u>	Museum visit	Dear Dinosaur	Fact and fiction	Which dinosaur	Who's who?		poetry		Myths and legends		Information texts		Recipes	



English Overview – Year 3/4

Texts

Autumn – The Elves and the Shoemaker & The Tunnel

Spring – The Pied Piper of Hamelin & The Firework-Makers Daughter

Summer – Stig of the Dump & Charlie and the Chocolate Factory

	<u>Week 1</u>	<u>Week 2</u>	<u>Week 3</u>	<u>Week 4</u>	<u>Week 5</u>	<u>Week 6</u>	<u>Week 7</u>	<u>Week 8</u>	<u>Week 9</u>	<u>Week 10</u>	<u>Week 11</u>	<u>Week 12</u>	<u>Week 13</u>	<u>Week 14</u>
<u>Autumn</u>	Recounts and captions		Nursery Rhymes	Instructions	Adverts		recounts	Reported speech		narratives		letters		posters
<u>Spring</u>	instructions	Newspaper reports	narratives	Lyrics	invitations	Recounts	poetry	narratives	Newspaper reports		narratives			
<u>Summer</u>	Information texts	Adventure narratives	Fact files		letters	poetry	recounts		recipes		Nonsense poetry	Non-chronological reports		Adverts



English Overview – Year 5/6

Texts

Autumn – The Saga of Eric the Viking & The Hobbit

Spring – Romeo and Juliet & Treason

Summer – Tom's Midnight Garden & The Secret Garden

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn	Reports		Myths and legends		Character profiles		poetry	Organizing information	calligrams	Calligrams	Non-fiction writing	Non-fiction writing	leaflets	leaflets
Spring	Labels and instructions	letters		playscripts		poetry	biographies	Poetry and riddles	Newspaper reports	Persuasive letters	dialogue			
Summer	Character studies	Adventure narratives		leaflets		Free verse poetry	Non-chronological reports		instructions		explanations		poetry	



English Overview – Year 7

Texts

Autumn – Holes & War Horse

Spring – The Call of the Wild & Framed

Summer – A Christmas Carol & Stormbreaker

	<u>Week 1</u>	<u>Week 2</u>	<u>Week 3</u>	<u>Week 4</u>	<u>Week 5</u>	<u>Week 6</u>	<u>Week 7</u>	<u>Week 8</u>	<u>Week 9</u>	<u>Week 10</u>	<u>Week 11</u>	<u>Week 12</u>	<u>Week 13</u>	<u>Week 14</u>
Autumn	invitation s	postcards	instructions		Myths and legends		poetry	leaving for war- spoken language	Reading and identifying features of a diary	Identifying writers use of language in diaries	Planning and structuring of a diary	Writing a diary first draft	Writing a diary edit and improve	Spoken language /drama performing diaries to an audience
Spring	Chronological reports		Short narratives	diaries	Haiku poetry	letters	Short narratives	Expressionist poetry	Surrealist narratives	explanations				
Summer	Non- chronological reports	Historical fiction	biographies		limericks	Diary writing and journals	Reading and analysing emails and blogs	Spoken language - intonation	Features of newspaper reports	Planning newspaper reports	Writing newspaper reports		Designing and describing gadgets	



Year 7 Grammar Mastery

	Autumn 1	Autumn 2	Spring 1	Spring 2	Summer 1	Summer 2
Year 7	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2
	Word classes Subject, object, verb Compound sentences	Adverbial phrases Prepositional phrases noun phrases	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses	Semi-colons to combine two main clauses Semi-colons in a descriptive list	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses Semi-colons	Figurative language



English Overview – Year 8

Texts

Autumn – A range of Fairy Tales

Spring – Cirque Du Freak

Summer – Play Scripts

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn Persuasive writing and writing	Persuasive Writing Developing knowledge of persuasive techniques & sentence types		Persuasive Writing Editing and Improving skills and creating products & sentence types		Persuasive Writing Drafting, editing and delivering pitches to sell products & sentence types			Fairy tales Traditional Fairy Tale conventions Reading and using prior knowledge			Fairy tales Twisting fairy tale conventions Drama/writing characters		Fairy tales Writing, drafting and editing own twisted fairy tales	
Spring Cirque Du Freak	Historical Context & Character comparison	Recount s	Similes and metaphors	Themes	PEE		Newspaper articles	Differences/similarities and summarising	Scripts and drama	PEE	PEE			
Summer Texts in Conflict Play scripts	Introduction to the topic	Analysis of different texts Writing letters home from the trenches		Connotations and denotation within propaganda	Idealistic or realistic writing within World War One	Descriptive writing based on the 5 senses	Annotate poetic stanzas about WW1	'Dulce et Decorum Est' poetic analyses	Read/Drama short plays	Read/Drama short plays	Read/Drama short plays	Features of play scripts	Draft/edit own play script	Draft/edit own play script

Year 8 Grammar Mastery

	Autumn 1	Autumn 2	Spring 1	Spring 2	Summer 1	Summer 2
Year 8	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2
	Word classes Subject, object, verb Compound sentences	Adverbial phrases Prepositional phrases noun phrases	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses	Semi-colons to combine two main clauses Semi-colons in a descriptive list	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses Semi-colons	Figurative language



English Overview Year 9 A

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn Functional Skills Level 1	Speaking and listening exam				SOV/Compound sentences	Subordinate clauses	Relative clauses	Semi-colons	Reading – facts/opinions	Reading – skim and scan/retrieval	Reading - punctuation	Reading – comparing texts	Reading – language features	Reading – textual features
Spring Descriptive writing/ writing for audience and purpose	Plan writing	Email writing	Email writing	Letter writing	Letter writing	Review/report writing	Review/report writing	Identifying facts and opinions	Reading - Writer's use of language	Mock exams Reading- Writer's use of language	Half term			
Summer Revision/exams	Writing for audience and purpose	Facts and opinions	Writer's choice of language/revision	Revision and exams	Reading – descriptive writing	Planning and structure of descriptive writing	Descriptive writing – word level	Descriptive writing – sentence level	Descriptive writing – paragraphs	Descriptive writing – paragraphs Finish school				



English overview – Year 9 B

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn Armageddon – Creative writing and Face	Armageddon – Sentence types and paragraphs		Armageddon – descriptive writing and paragraphs		Armageddon – extended writing for purpose and paragraphs			Face – inference			Face – exploring themes		Face – reading focus	
Spring Gothic Fiction & poetry based on anthology	atmosphere	supernatural	Power	isolation		confinement		genre	structure	form	history	Comparing poetry		
Summer Macbeth short story and short play scripts	Macbeth – read and drama			Macbeth – graphic novel: connecting images to knowledge of the story			Identifying features of play scripts	Reading play scripts and drama			Writing short play scripts			

Year 9 Grammar Mastery


	Autumn 1	Autumn 2	Spring 1	Spring 2	Summer 1	Summer 2
Year 9	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2	Mastery Writing 2
	Word classes Subject, object, verb Compound sentences	Adverbial phrases Prepositional phrases noun phrases	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses	Semi-colons to combine two main clauses Semi-colons in a descriptive list	Subordinate clauses Relative clauses Semi-colons	Figurative language



English overview 10 Functional Skills

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn Functional Skills Level 2	Speaking and listening exam				SOV, Compound sentences	Subordinate clauses	Relative clauses/ semi- colons	SOV/Compound sentences Semi-colons	Reading facts and opinions	Reading comprehension	Reading – skim and scan/retrieval	Reading – comparing texts	Reading – textual features	
Spring Descriptive writing/ writing for audience and purpose	Plan writing	Email writing	Email writing	Letter writing	Letter writing	Review/report writing	Review/report writing	Identifying facts and opinions	Reading - Writer's use of language	Mock exams Reading- Writer's use of language	Half term			
Summer Revision/exams	Writing for audience and purpose	Facts and opinions	Writer's choice of language/revision	Revision and exams	Reading – descriptive writing	Planning and structure of descriptive writing	Descriptive writing – word level	Descriptive writing – sentence level	Descriptive writing – paragraphs	Descriptive writing – paragraphs Finish school				



English overview 11A –LL/HM - complete Macbeth and poetry based on anthology- Power and Conflict

	<u>Week 1</u>	<u>Week 2</u>	<u>Week 3</u>	<u>Week 4</u>	<u>Week 5</u>	<u>Week 6</u>	<u>Week 7</u>	<u>Week 8</u>	<u>Week 9</u>	<u>Week 10</u>	<u>Week 11</u>	<u>Week 12</u>	<u>Week 13</u>	<u>Week 14</u>
Autumn-Macbeth/Poetry	themes	quotes	characters	plot	PEED	PEED	PEED	poetry	poetry	poetry	poetry	poetry	poetry	poetry
Spring	Retrieval and inference – Mr Fisher	Writers use of language – various texts	Structure of texts - various texts	Writers use of language – Mr Fisher	Structure of texts - Mr Fisher	Reading – shooting elephant	Comparing sources – Shooting an Elephant and Wild Animals in Captivity	Comparing sources – Shooting an Elephant and Wild Animals in Captivity	Writer's use of language – Shooting and Elephant	Writer's use of language – Shooting and Elephant	Compare writers attitudes towards elephants			
Summer	Descriptive writing plan structure and word level	Descriptive writing – sentence level	Descriptive writing – paragraph level	Descriptive writing word level	Descriptive writing – sentence level	Descriptive writing – paragraph level	Planning structure	Identifying viewpoints	Sharing opinions paragraph 1 and 2	Sharing opinions paragraph 3 and 4	Sharing opinions paragraph 5 and 6	Mock exams		



English overview 11 A/B –Functional Skills

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7	Week 8	Week 9	Week 10	Week 11	Week 12	Week 13	Week 14
Autumn Functional Skills Level 1	Speaking and listening exam				SOV, Compound sentences	Subordinate clauses	Relative clauses/ semi-colons	SOV/Compound sentences/ semi-colons	Reading facts and opinions	Reading comprehension	Reading – skim and scan/retrieval	Reading – comparing texts	Reading – textual features	Half term
Spring Writing for audience and purpose	Plan writing	Email writing	Email writing	Letter writing	Letter writing	Review/report writing	Review/report writing	Identifying facts and opinions	Reading - Writer's use of language	Mock exams Reading- Writer's use of language	Half term			
Summer Revision/exams	Writing for audience and purpose	Facts and opinions	Writer's choice of language/revision	Revision and exams	Reading – descriptive writing	Planning and structure of descriptive writing	Descriptive writing – word level	Descriptive writing – sentence level	Descriptive writing – paragraphs	Descriptive writing – paragraphs	Finish school			



Appendix 1. Primary Curriculum

Aims

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

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

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the English 14 continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should develop a capacity to explain their understanding of books and other reading, and to prepare their ideas before they write. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions. Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate. All pupils should be enabled to participate in and gain knowledge, skills and understanding associated with the artistic practice of drama. Pupils should be able to adopt, create and sustain a range of roles, responding appropriately to others in role. They should have opportunities to improvise, devise and script drama for one another and a range of audiences, as well as to rehearse, refine, share and respond thoughtfully to drama and theatre performances. Statutory requirements which underpin all aspects of spoken language across the six years of primary education form part of the national curriculum. These are reflected and contextualised within the reading and writing domains which follow.

Reading

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

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

It is essential that teaching focuses on developing pupils' competence in both dimensions; different kinds of teaching are needed for each. Skilled word reading involves both the speedy working out of the pronunciation of unfamiliar printed words (decoding) and the speedy recognition of familiar printed words. Underpinning both is the understanding that the letters on the page represent the sounds in spoken words. This is why phonics should be emphasised in the early teaching of reading to beginners (i.e. unskilled readers) when they start school. Good comprehension draws from linguistic knowledge (in particular of vocabulary and grammar) and on knowledge of the world. Comprehension skills develop through pupils' experience of high-quality discussion with the teacher, as well as from reading and discussing a range of stories, poems and non-fiction. All pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the world in which they live, to establish an appreciation and love of reading, and to gain knowledge across the curriculum. Reading widely and often increases pupils' vocabulary because they encounter words they would rarely hear or use in everyday speech. Reading also feeds pupils' imagination and opens up a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds. English 15 It is essential that, by the end of their primary education, all pupils are able to read fluently, and with confidence, in any subject in their forthcoming secondary education.

Writing

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

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

It is essential that teaching develops pupils' competence in these two dimensions. In addition, pupils should be taught how to plan, revise and evaluate their writing. These aspects of writing have been incorporated into the programmes of study for composition. Writing down ideas fluently depends on effective transcription: that is, on spelling quickly and accurately through knowing the relationship between sounds and letters (phonics) and understanding the morphology (word structure) and orthography (spelling structure) of words. Effective composition involves forming, articulating and communicating ideas, and then organising them coherently for a reader. This requires clarity, awareness of the audience, purpose and context, and an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Writing also depends on fluent, legible and, eventually, speedy handwriting. Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and glossary The two statutory appendices – on spelling and on vocabulary, grammar and punctuation – give an overview of the specific features that should be included in teaching the programmes of study. Opportunities for teachers to enhance pupils' vocabulary arise naturally from their reading and writing. As vocabulary increases, teachers should show pupils how to understand the relationships between words, how to understand nuances in meaning, and how to develop their understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. They should also teach pupils how to work out and clarify the meanings of unknown words and words with more than one meaning. References to developing pupils' vocabulary are also included within the appendices. Pupils should be taught to control their speaking and writing consciously and to use Standard English. They should be taught to use the elements of spelling, grammar, punctuation and 'language about language' listed. This is not intended to constrain or restrict teachers' creativity, but simply to provide the structure on which they can construct exciting lessons. A non-statutory Glossary is provided for teachers. Throughout the programmes of study, teachers should teach pupils the vocabulary they need to discuss their reading, writing and spoken language. It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching.



Appendix 2. KS3 Curriculum

KS3

AIMS

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

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

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language continues to underpin the development of pupils' reading and writing during key stage 3 and teachers should therefore ensure pupils' confidence and competence in this area continue to develop. Pupils should be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate, as well as continuing to develop their skills in working collaboratively with their peers to discuss reading, writing and speech across the curriculum.

Reading and writing

Reading at key stage 3 should be wide, varied and challenging. Pupils should be expected to read whole books, to read in depth and to read for pleasure and information. Pupils should continue to develop their knowledge of and skills in writing, refining their drafting skills and developing resilience to write at length. They should be taught to write formal and academic essays as well as writing imaginatively. They should be taught to write for a variety of purposes and audiences across a range of contexts. This requires an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Opportunities for teachers to enhance pupils' vocabulary will arise naturally from their reading and writing. Teachers should show pupils how to understand the relationships between words, how to understand nuances in meaning, and how to develop their understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. Pupils should be taught to control their speaking and writing consciously, understand why sentences are constructed as they are and to use Standard English. They should understand and use age-appropriate vocabulary, including linguistic and literary terminology, for discussing their reading, writing and spoken language. This involves consolidation, practice and discussion of language. It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching. Teachers should build on the knowledge and skills that pupils have been taught at key stage 2. Decisions about progression should be based on the security of pupils' linguistic knowledge, skills and understanding and their readiness to progress to the next stage. Pupils whose linguistic

development is more advanced should be challenged through being offered opportunities for increased breadth and depth in reading and writing. Those who are less fluent should consolidate their knowledge, understanding and skills, including through additional practice



Appendix 3. KS4 Curriculum

AIMS

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

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

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language continues to underpin the development of pupils' reading and writing during key stage 4 and teachers should therefore ensure pupils' confidence and competence in this area continue to develop. Pupils should be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate, as well as continuing to develop their skills in working collaboratively with their peers to discuss reading, writing and speech across the curriculum.

Reading and writing

Reading at key stage 4 should be wide, varied and challenging. Pupils should be expected to read whole books, to read in depth and to read for pleasure and information. Pupils should continue to develop their knowledge of and skills in writing, refining their drafting skills and developing resilience to write at length. They should be taught to write formal and academic essays as well as writing imaginatively. They should be taught to write for a variety of purposes and audiences across a range of contexts. This requires an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Opportunities for teachers to enhance pupils' vocabulary will arise naturally from their reading and writing. Teachers should show pupils how to understand the relationships between words, how to understand nuances in meaning, and how to develop their understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. Pupils should be taught to control their speaking and writing consciously, understand why sentences are constructed as they are and to use Standard English. They should understand and use age-appropriate vocabulary, including linguistic and literary terminology, for discussing their reading, writing and spoken language. This involves consolidation, practice and discussion of language. It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching. Teachers should build on the knowledge and skills that pupils have been taught at key stage 3. Decisions about progression should be based on the security of pupils' linguistic knowledge, skills and understanding and their readiness to progress to the next stage. Pupils whose linguistic development is more advanced should be challenged through being offered opportunities for increased breadth and depth in reading and writing. Those who are less fluent should consolidate their knowledge, understanding and skills, including through additional practice.

Appendix 4. National Curriculum Objectives

Early Years Foundation	Reading Word Reading: - Say a sound for each letter in the alphabet and at least 10 digraphs - Read words consistent with their phonic knowledge by sound-blending - Read aloud simple sentences and books that are consistent with their phonic knowledge, including some common exception words Reading Comprehension: - Demonstrate understanding of what has been read to them by retelling stories and narratives using their own words and recently introduced vocabulary - Anticipate – where appropriate – key events in stories - Use and understand recently introduced vocabulary during discussions about stories, non-fiction, rhymes and poems and during role-play	Writing - Write recognisable letters, most of which are correctly formed - Spell words by identifying sounds in them and representing the sounds with a letter or letters - Write simple phrases and sentences that can be read by others
	Fine Motor Skills Hold a pencil effectively in preparation for fluent writing – using the tripod grip in almost all cases;	Spoken Language - listen and respond to what they hear with relevant questions and comments - Participate in small group, class and one-to-one discussions, offering their own ideas, using recently introduced vocabulary; - Offer explanations for why things might happen, making use of recently introduced vocabulary from stories, non-fiction, rhymes and poems when appropriate; - Express their ideas and feelings about their experiences using full sentences, including use of past, present and future tenses and making use of conjunctions, with modelling and support from their teacher. - Hold conversation when engaged in back-and-forth exchanges with their teacher and peers.

Year 1/2	Reading Word Reading: • apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words • respond speedily to the correct sound for graphemes for all 40+ phonemes, including, where applicable, alternative sounds for graphemes • read common exceptions words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word • read words containing common suffixes Reading Comprehension: • listen to and discuss a wide range of poems, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently • become familiar with key stories, fairy stories and traditional tales, retelling them and considering their particular characteristics • predicting what might happen on the basis of what has been read so far	Writing Writing Transcription: • spell words containing: taught phonemes, common exception words and the days of the week • name the letters of the alphabet in order • use the spelling rule for adding -s or -es for plurals • learn to spell common exception words • distinguish between homophones and near homophones Writing Composition: • say out loud what they are going to write • sequence sentences to form short narratives • re-read what they have written to check it makes sense • write for a range of purposes
	SPAG • leave spaces between words • use a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week and the personal pronoun 'I' • join words and clauses using 'and' • learn how to use subordination (using when, if, that or because) and co-ordination (using or, and or but)	Spoken Language • read aloud books that are consistent with their developing phonic knowledge and that do not require them to use other strategies to work out words

Year 3/4	Reading Word Reading: • apply their growing knowledge of root words, prefixes and suffixes (etymology and morphology) both to read aloud and to understand the meaning of new words they meet • read further exception words, noting the unusual correspondences between spelling and sound, and where these occur in the word. Reading Comprehension: • discuss words and phrases that capture the reader's interest and imagination • check that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context • ask questions to improve their understanding of a text • predict what might happen from details stated and implied • identify main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph and summarise these • identify how language, structure, and presentation contribute to meaning	Writing Writing Transcription: • use further prefixes and suffixes and understand how to add them • spell further homophones • spell words that are often misspelt • place the possessive apostrophe accurately in words with regular plurals [for example, girls', boys'] and in words with irregular plurals [for example, children's] Writing Composition: • organise paragraphs around a theme • discuss and record ideas • assess the effectiveness of their own and others' writing and suggesting improvements • propose changes to grammar and vocabulary to improve consistency, including the accurate use of pronouns in sentences • proof-read for spelling and punctuation errors
	SPAG • extend the range of sentences with more than one clause by using a wider range of conjunctions, including when, if, because, although • choose nouns or pronouns appropriately for clarity and cohesion and to avoid repetition • use conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions to express time and cause • use fronted adverbials	Spoken Language • participate in discussion about both books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say. • compose and rehearse sentences orally (including dialogue), progressively building a varied and rich vocabulary and an increasing range of sentence structures • read aloud their own writing, to a group or the whole class, using appropriate intonation and controlling the tone and volume so that the meaning is clear

Year 5/6	Reading Word Reading: - Apply their growing knowledge of root words, prefixes and suffixes (morphology and etymology), both to read aloud and to understand the meaning of new words that they meet. Reading comprehension: - continue to read and discuss an increasingly wide range of non-fiction, poetry and reference books or textbooks - ask questions to improve their understanding - draw inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence - predict what might happen from details stated and implied - summarise the main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph, identifying key details that support the main ideas - identify how language, structure and presentation contribute to meaning	Writing Writing Transcription: - use further prefixes and suffixes and understand the guidance for adding them - spell some words with 'silent' letters [for example, knight, psalm, solemn] - continue to distinguish between homophones and other words which are often confused - use knowledge of morphology and etymology in spelling and understand that the spelling of some words needs to be learnt specifically - use dictionaries to check the spelling and meaning of words - use the first three or four letters of a word to check spelling, meaning or both of these in a dictionary - use a thesaurus. Writing Composition - identify the audience for and purpose of the writing, selecting the appropriate form and using other similar writing as models for their own - select appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such choices can change and enhance meaning - use a wide range of devices to build cohesion within and across paragraphs - assess the effectiveness of their own and others' writing - propose changes to vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning - ensure the consistent and correct use of tense throughout a piece of writing
	SPAG - use expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely - use modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility - use relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun - use commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing - using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis - use semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses	Spoken Language - explain and discuss their understanding of what they have read, including through formal presentations and debates, maintaining a focus on the topic and using notes where necessary - provide reasoned justifications for their views - perform their own compositions, using appropriate intonation, volume, and movement so that meaning is clear

KS3	<u>Reading</u> • Read a wide range of fiction and non-fiction • Learn new vocabulary, relating it explicitly to known vocabulary and understand it with help of context and dictionaries • know the purpose, audience for and context of the writing and draw on this knowledge to support comprehension • check their understanding to make sure that what they have read makes sense. • know how language, including figurative language, vocabulary choice, grammar, text structure and organisational features, presents meaning	<u>Writing</u> • write for a range of audiences and purposes • apply their growing knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and text structure to their writing and selecting the appropriate form • consider how their writing reflects the audiences and purposes for which it was intended • amend the vocabulary, grammar and structure of their writing to improve its coherence and overall effectiveness • pay attention to accurate grammar, punctuation and spelling; applying the spelling patterns and rules
	<u>SPAG</u> • extend and apply the grammatical knowledge set out in English to the key stage 1 and 2 programmes of study to analyse more challenging texts • study the effectiveness and impact of the grammatical features of the texts they read • draw on new vocabulary and grammatical constructions from their reading and listening, and use these consciously in their writing and speech to achieve particular effects	<u>Spoken Language</u> • use Standard English confidently in a range of formal and informal contexts, including classroom discussion • give short speeches and presentations, expressing their own ideas and keeping to the point

KS4	Reading • read in different ways for different purposes, summarising and synthesising ideas and information, and evaluating their usefulness for particular purposes • draw on knowledge of the purpose, audience for and context of the writing, including its social, historical and cultural context and the literary tradition to which it belongs, to inform evaluation • identify and interpret themes, ideas and information • seek evidence in the text to support a point of view, including justifying inferences with evidence • analyse a writer's choice of vocabulary, form, grammatical and structural features, and evaluating their effectiveness and impact • make critical comparisons, referring to the contexts, themes, characterisation, style and literary quality of texts, and drawing on knowledge and skills from wider reading	Writing • adapt their writing for a wide range of purposes and audiences: to describe, narrate, explain, instruct, give and respond to information, and argue • select and organise ideas, facts and key points, and citing evidence, details and quotation effectively and pertinently for support and emphasis • reflect on whether their draft achieves the intended impact • restructure their writing, and amending its grammar and vocabulary to improve coherence, consistency, clarity and overall effectiveness • pay attention to the accuracy and effectiveness of grammar, punctuation and spelling
	Grammar and Vocabulary • study their effectiveness and impact in the texts they read • draw on new vocabulary and grammatical constructions from their reading and listening, and using these consciously in their writing and speech to achieve particular effects • analyse some of the differences between spoken and written language, including differences associated with formal and informal registers, and between Standard English and other varieties of English	Spoken Language • use Standard English when the context and audience require it • work effectively in groups of different sizes and taking on required roles, including leading and managing discussions, involving others productively, reviewing and summarising, and contributing to meeting goals/deadlines • listen to and build on the contributions of others, asking questions to clarify and inform, and challenging courteously when necessary

Appendix 5. National Curriculum Spelling, Word Lists, and Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation



Spelling – work for year 1

Revision of reception work

Statutory requirements

The boundary between revision of work covered in Reception and the introduction of new work may vary according to the programme used, but basic revision should include:

- all letters of the alphabet and the sounds which they most commonly represent
- consonant digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent
- vowel digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent
- the process of segmenting spoken words into sounds before choosing graphemes to represent the sounds
- words with adjacent consonants
- guidance and rules which have been taught

Statutory requirements

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

The /ŋ/ sound spelt n before k

Rules and guidance (non-statutory)

The /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ sounds are usually spelt as **ff**, **ll**, **ss**, **zz** and **ck** if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words.
Exceptions: if, pal, us, bus, yes.

Example words (non-statutory)

off, well, miss, buzz, back

bank, think, honk, sunk

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Division of words into syllables	Each syllable is like a 'beat' in the spoken word. Words of more than one syllable often have an unstressed syllable in which the vowel sound is unclear.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
-tch	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as tch if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. Exceptions: rich, which, much, such.	catch, fetch, kitchen, notch, hutch
The /v/ sound at the end of words	English words hardly ever end with the letter v , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter e usually needs to be added after the 'v'.	have, live, give
Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)	If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as -s . If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as -es .	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches
Adding the endings –ing, –ed and –er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word	–ing and –er always add an extra syllable to the word and –ed sometimes does. The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt –ed . If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Adding –er and –est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word	As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	grand ^{er} , grand ^{est} , fresh ^{er} , fresh ^{est} , quick ^{er} , quick ^{est}



Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

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

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

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
er (/ə/)		(unstressed <i>schwa</i> sound): better, under, summer, winter, sister
ir		girl, bird, shirt, first, third
ur		turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
oo (/u:/)	Very few words end with the letters oo , although the few that do are often words that primary children in year 1 will encounter, for example, <i>zoo</i>	food, pool, moon, zoo, soon
oo (/ʊ/)		book, took, foot, wood, good
oa	The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.	boat, coat, road, coach, goal
oe		toe, goes
ou	The only common English word ending in ou is <i>you</i> .	out, about, mouth, around, sound
ow (/aʊ/) ow (/əʊ/) ue ew	Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ ('oo' and 'yoo') sounds can be spelt as u-e , ue and ew . If words end in the /oo/ sound, ue and ew are more common spellings than oo .	now, how, brown, down, town own, blow, snow, grow, show blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
ie (/aɪ/)		lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried
ie (/i:/)		chief, field, thief
igh		high, night, light, bright, right
or		for, short, born, horse, morning
ore		more, score, before, wore, shore
aw		saw, draw, yawn, crawl
au		author, August, dinosaur, astronaut
air		air, fair, pair, hair, chair
ear		dear, hear, beard, near, year
ear (/ɛə/)		bear, pear, wear
are (/ɛə/)		bare, dare, care, share, scared

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words ending –y (/i:/ or /ɪ/)		very, happy, funny, party, family
New consonant spellings ph and wh	The /f/ sound is not usually spelt as ph in short everyday words (e.g. <i>fat, fill, fun</i>).	dolphin, alphabet, phonics, elephant when, where, which, wheel, while
Using k for the /k/ sound	The /k/ sound is spelt as k rather than as c before e, i and y .	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky
Adding the prefix –un	The prefix un– is added to the beginning of a word without any change to the spelling of the root word.	unhappy, undo, unload, unfair, unlock
Compound words	Compound words are two words joined together. Each part of the longer word is spelt as it would be if it were on its own.	football, playground, farmyard, bedroom, blackberry
Common exception words	Pupils' attention should be drawn to the grapheme-phoneme correspondences that do and do not fit in with what has been taught so far.	the, a, do, to, today, of, said, says, are, were, was, is, his, has, I, you, your, they, be, he, me, she, we, no, go, so, by, my, here, there, where, love, come, some, one, once, ask, friend, school, put, push, pull, full, house, our – and/or others, according to the programme used

Spelling – work for year 2

Revision of work from year 1

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

New work for year 2

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /dʒ/ sound spelt as ge and dge at the end of words, and sometimes spelt as g elsewhere in words before e, i and y	The letter j is never used for the /dʒ/ sound at the end of English words. At the end of a word, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt -dge straight after the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/ and /ʊ/ sounds (sometimes called 'short' vowels). After all other sounds, whether vowels or consonants, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt as -ge at the end of a word. 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.	badge, edge, bridge, dodge, fudge age, huge, change, charge, bulge, village gem, giant, magic, giraffe, energy jacket, jar, jog, join, adjust
The /s/ sound spelt c before e, i and y		race, ice, cell, city, fancy

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /n/ sound spelt kn and (less often) gn at the beginning of words	The 'k' and 'g' at the beginning of these words was sounded hundreds of years ago.	knock, know, knee, gnat, gnaw
The /r/ sound spelt wr at the beginning of words	This spelling probably also reflects an old pronunciation.	write, written, wrote, wrong, wrap
The /l/ or /ə/ sound spelt -le at the end of words	The -le spelling is the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	table, apple, bottle, little, middle

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /l/ or /ə/ sound spelt -el at the end of words	The -el spelling is much less common than -le . The -el spelling is used after m, n, r, s, v, w and more often than not after s .	camel, tunnel, squirrel, travel, towel, tinsel
The /l/ or /ə/ sound spelt -al at the end of words	Not many nouns end in -al , but many adjectives do.	metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal
Words ending -il	There are not many of these words.	pencil, fossil, nostril
The /aɪ/ sound spelt -y at the end of words	This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July
Adding -es to nouns and verbs ending in -y	The y is changed to i before -es is added.	flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries
Adding -ed, -ing, -er and -est to a root word	The y is changed to i before -ed , -er and -est are added, but not before -ing as this	copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
ending in –y with a consonant before it	would result in ii . The only ordinary words with ii are <i>skiing</i> and <i>taxiing</i> .	... but copying, crying, replying
Adding the endings –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words ending in –e with a consonant before it	The –e at the end of the root word is dropped before – ing , – ed , – er , – est , – y or any other suffix beginning with a vowel letter is added. Exception: <i>being</i> .	hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny
Adding –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words of one syllable ending in a single consonant letter after a single vowel letter	The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /ε/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel ‘short’). Exception: The letter ‘x’ is never doubled: <i>mixing</i> , <i>mixed</i> , <i>boxer</i> , <i>sixes</i> .	patting, patted, humming, hummed, dropping, dropped, sadder, saddest, fatter, fattest, runner, runny
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt a before l and ll	The /ɔ:/ sound (‘or’) is usually spelt as a before l and ll.	all, ball, call, walk, talk, always
The /ʌ/ sound spelt o		other, mother, brother, nothing, Monday

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /i:/ sound spelt –ey	The plural of these words is formed by the addition of –s (<i>donkeys</i> , <i>monkeys</i> , etc.).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley
The /ɒ/ sound spelt a after w and qu	a is the most common spelling for the /ɒ/ (‘hot’) sound after w and qu .	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash
The /ɜ:/ sound spelt or after w	There are not many of these words.	word, work, worm, world, worth

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt ar after w	There are not many of these words.	war, warm, towards
The /z/ sound spelt s		television, treasure, usual
The suffixes –ment, –ness, –ful, –less and –ly	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. Exceptions: (1) <i>argument</i> (2) root words ending in –y with a consonant before it but only if the root word has more than one syllable.	enjoyment, sadness, careful, playful, hopeless, plainness (plain + ness), badly merriment, happiness, plentiful, penniless, happily
Contractions	In contractions, the apostrophe shows where a letter or letters would be if the words were written in full (e.g. <i>can't</i> – <i>cannot</i>). <i>It's</i> means <i>it is</i> (e.g. <i>It's</i> raining) or sometimes <i>it has</i> (e.g. <i>It's</i> been raining), but <i>it's</i> is never used for the possessive.	can't, didn't, hasn't, couldn't, it's, I'll
The possessive apostrophe (singular nouns)		Megan's, Ravi's, the girl's, the child's, the man's
Words ending in –tion		station, fiction, motion, national, section

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
		included because of its relationship with 'child'.



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 /I/ sound spelt y elsewhere than at the end of words	These words should be learnt as needed.	myth, gym, Egypt, pyramid, mystery
The /ʌ/ sound spelt ou	These words should be learnt as needed.	young, touch, double, trouble, country
More prefixes	Most prefixes are added to the beginning of root words without any changes in spelling, but see in- below.	

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	Like un-, the prefixes dis- and mis- have negative meanings. The prefix in- can mean both 'not' and 'in'/'into'. In the words given here it means 'not'.	dis-: disappoint, disagree, disobey mis-: misbehave, mislead, misspell (mis + spell) in-: inactive, incorrect
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	Before a root word starting with l, in- becomes il. Before a root word starting with m or p, in- becomes im-. Before a root word starting with r, in- becomes ir-. re- means 'again' or 'back'. sub- means 'under'. inter- means 'between' or 'among'.	illegal, illegible immature, immortal, impossible, impatient, imperfect irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible re-: redo, refresh, return, reappear, redecorate sub-: subdivide, subheading, submarine, submerge inter-: interact, intercity, international, interrelated (inter + related)

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	Exceptions: (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.	happily, angrily gently, simply, humbly, nobly

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	(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</i>, <i>duly</i>, <i>wholly</i>.	basically, frantically, dramatically
Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/	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</i>, <i>catcher</i>, <i>richer</i>, <i>stretcher</i>.	measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure
Endings which sound like /ʒən/	If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as -sion .	division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television
The suffix -ous	Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters. 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 /ʃən/, spelt –tion, –sion, –ssion, –cian	Strictly speaking, the suffixes are –ion and –ian. Clues about whether to put t, s, ss or c before these suffixes often come from the last letter or letters of the root word. –tion is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in t or te. –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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
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 <i>s</i> 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,

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
		rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether, whose/who's



Word list – years 3 and 4



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

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 *appear* contains sounds which can be spelt in more than one way so it needs to be learnt, but the prefix **dis-** is then simply added to **appear**.

Understanding the relationships between words can also help with spelling. Examples:

- *bicycle* is *cycle* (from the Greek for *wheel*) with **bi-** (meaning 'two') before it.
- *medicine* is related to *medical* so the /s/ sound is spelt as **c**.
- *opposite* is related to *oppose*, so the schwa sound in *opposite* is spelt as **o**.

Spelling – years 5 and 6

Revise work done in previous years

New work for years 5 and 6

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃəs/ spelt –cious or –tious	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 – vicious, grace – gracious, space – spacious, malice – malicious</i>. Exception: <i>anxious</i>.	vicious, precious, conscious, delicious, malicious, suspicious, ambitious, cautious, fictitious, infectious, nutritious
Endings which sound like /ʃəl/	–cial is common after a vowel letter and –tial after a consonant letter, but there are some exceptions. Exceptions: <i>initial, financial, commercial, provincial</i> (the spelling of the last three is clearly related to <i>finance, commerce</i> and <i>province</i>).	official, special, artificial, partial, confidential, 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.	observant, observance, (observ <u>a</u> tion), expectant (expect <u>a</u> tion), hesitant, hesitancy (hesit <u>a</u> tion), tolerant, tolerance (toler <u>a</u> tion), substance (subst <u>a</u> ntial)

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	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.	innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confidential) 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	adorable/adorably (adoration), applicable/applicably (application), considerable/considerably (consideration), tolerable/tolerably (toleration) changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	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>).	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, caffeine, 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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
		rough, tough, enough cough though, although, dough through thorough, borough plough, bough
Words with 'silent' letters (i.e. letters whose presence cannot be predicted from the pronunciation of the word)	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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Homophones and other words that are often confused	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. <u>More examples:</u> aisle: a gangway between seats (in a church, train, plane). isle: an island. aloud: out loud. allowed: permitted. affect: usually a verb (e.g. <i>The weather may affect our plans</i>). effect: usually a noun (e.g. <i>It may have an effect on our plans</i>). If a verb, it means ‘bring about’ (e.g. <i>He will effect changes in the running of the business</i>). altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church. alter: to change. ascent: the act of ascending (going up). assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun). bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding. bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse. cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal).	advice/advise device/devise licence/license practice/practise prophecy/prophecy farther: further father: a male parent guessed: past tense of the verb <i>guess</i> guest: visitor heard: past tense of the verb <i>hear</i> herd: a group of animals led: past tense of the verb <i>lead</i> lead: present tense of that verb, or else the metal which is very heavy (<i>as heavy as lead</i>) morning: before noon mourning: grieving for someone who has died past: noun or adjective referring to a previous time (e.g. <i>In the past</i>) or preposition or adverb showing place (e.g. <i>he walked past me</i>) passed: past tense of the verb ‘pass’ (e.g. <i>I passed him in the road</i>)

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	serial: adjective from the noun <i>series</i> – a succession of things one after the other. compliment: to make nice remarks about someone (verb) or the remark that is made (noun). complement: related to the word <i>complete</i> – to make something complete or more complete (e.g. <i>her scarf complemented her outfit</i>).	precede: go in front of or before proceed: go on

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Homophones and other words that are often confused (continued)	descent: the act of descending (going down). dissent: to disagree/disagreement (verb and noun). 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. 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.	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>)

Word list – years 5 and 6

accommodate
accompany
according
achieve
aggressive
amateur
ancient
apparent
appreciate
attached
available
average
awkward
bargain
bruise
category
cemetery
committee
communicate
community
competition
conscience*
conscious*
controversy
convenience
correspond
criticise (critic + ise)

curiosity
definite
desperate
determined
develop
dictionary
disastrous
embarrass
environment
equip (–ped, –ment)
especially
exaggerate
excellent
existence
explanation
familiar
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

Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation – Years 1 to 6

Year 1: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	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 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>) How the prefix un– changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives [negation, for example, <i>unkind</i>, or <i>undoing: untie the boat</i>]
Sentence	How words can combine to make sentences Joining words and joining clauses using <i>and</i>
Text	Sequencing sentences to form short narratives
Punctuation	Separation of words with spaces Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I
Terminology for pupils	letter, capital letter word, singular, plural sentence punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark

Year 2: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

Word	Formation of nouns using suffixes such as <i>-ness, -er</i> and by compounding [for example, <i>whiteboard, superman</i>] Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as <i>-ful, -less</i> (A fuller list of suffixes can be found on page 40 in the year 2 spelling section in English Appendix 1) Use of the suffixes <i>-er, -est</i> in adjectives and the use of <i>-ly</i> in Standard English to turn adjectives into adverbs
Sentence	Subordination (using <i>when, if, that, because</i>) and co-ordination (using <i>or, and, but</i>) Expanded noun phrases for description and specification [for example, <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i>] How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command
Text	Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing 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>]
Punctuation	Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Commas to separate items in a list Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling and to mark singular possession in nouns [for example, <i>the girl's name</i>]
Terminology for pupils	noun, noun phrase statement, question, exclamation, command compound, suffix adjective, adverb, verb tense (past, present) apostrophe, comma

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 rock</i>, <i>an open box</i>] 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 sub-headings 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>]
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Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

Sentence	Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. <i>the teacher</i> expanded to: <i>the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i>) Fronted adverbials [for example, <i>Later that day, 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, 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; -ise; -ify</i>] Verb prefixes [for example, <i>dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-</i>]
Sentence	Relative clauses beginning with <i>who, which, where, when, whose, that</i>, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, <i>perhaps, surely</i>] or modal verbs [for example, <i>might, should, will, must</i>]

Year 5: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

Text	Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, <i>then, after that, this, 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 I <u>were</u></i> or <i><u>Were</u> they to come</i> in some very formal writing and speech]

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

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

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

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

Terms in definitions

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

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active verb has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
adjective	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.	<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] Not adjectives: <i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]

Term	Guidance	Example
	Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because <u>verbs</u> , <u>nouns</u> and <u>adverbs</u> can do the same thing.	
adverb	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can <u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u>, an <u>adjective</u>, another adverb or even a whole clause. Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as <u>adverbials</u>, such as <u>preposition phrases</u>, <u>noun phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u>.	<i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</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>] <i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it] Not adverbs: ▪ <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]

Term	Guidance	Example
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, adverbs can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses .	The <i>bus</i> leaves <u>in five minutes</u>. [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>] She promised to see him <u>last night</u>. [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i>, according to the intended meaning] She worked <u>until she had finished</u>. [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<i>hot</i> – <i>cold</i> <i>light</i> – <i>dark</i> <i>light</i> – <i>heavy</i>
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>).	<u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long. [showing missing letters] <u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car. [marking possessives]
article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner .	<u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.
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	They <u>are</u> winning the match. [<i>be</i> used in the progressive] <u>Have</u> you finished your picture? [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<i>have</i> is used in the <u>perfect</u> <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present	<i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present] <i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
clause	A clause is a special type of <u>phrase</u> whose <u>head</u> is a <u>verb</u>. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be <u>main</u> or <u>subordinate</u>. Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u>, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	<i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence] <i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses] <i>If you are coming to the party, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause] <i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]
cohesion	A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <u>Cohesive devices</u> can help to do this. In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.	A visit has been arranged for <u>Year 6</u>, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow <i>the trail</i>.
cohesive device	Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>. Some examples of cohesive devices are:	<i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]

Term	Guidance	Example
	▪ <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear ▪ <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words.	<i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike] <i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear] <i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting] <i>Where are you going? [] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]
complement	A verb's subject complement adds more information about its <u>subject</u>, and its object complement does the same for its <u>object</u>. Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.	<i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>] <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>]
compound, compounding	A compound word contains at least two <u>root words</u> in its <u>morphology</u>; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i>, <i>superman</i>. Compounding is very important in English.	<i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow</i>
conjunction	A conjunction links two words or phrases together.	<i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]

Term	Guidance	Example
	There are two main types of conjunctions: ▪ <u>co-ordinating</u> 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 <u>subordinate clause</u>.	<i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal 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, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <u>vowel</u> 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 <u>progressive</u>	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating <u>conjunction</u> (i.e. <i>and, but, or</i>). 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 <u>subordination</u> is that, in	<i>Susan</i> <u>and</u> <i>Amra</i> met in a café. [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair] <i>They talked</i> <u>and</u> <i>drank tea</i> for an hour. [links two clauses as an equal pair] <i>Susan got a bus</i> <u>but</u> <i>Amra walked</i>. [links two clauses as an equal pair]

Term	Guidance	Example
	subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.	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: ▪ <u>articles</u> (<i>the</i>, <i>a</i> or <i>an</i>) ▪ demonstratives (e.g. <i>this</i>, <i>those</i>) ▪ <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>my</i>, <i>your</i>) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. <i>some</i>, <i>every</i>).	<u>the</u> home team [article, specifies the team as known] <u>a</u> good team [article, specifies the team as unknown] <u>that</u> pupil [demonstrative, known] <u>Julia's</u> parents [possessive, known] <u>some</u> big boys [quantifier, unknown] Contrast: <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 <u>grapheme</u> where two letters represent one <u>phoneme</u>. Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.	The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>each</u> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>shed</u> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>line</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> 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	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholé</i>) meaning 'leisure'.

Term	Guidance	Example
	English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	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.	<i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]

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	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>may</u> leave 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 <u>t</u> in the words <u>ten</u>, <u>bet</u> and <u>ate</u> corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <u>dolphin</u> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme <u>s</u> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>see</u>, but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <u>easy</u>.
head	See phrase .	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>.</i> <i>Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i> <i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk</i> , <i>be</i>). Infinitives are often used: - after <i>to</i> - after <u>modal verbs</u>.	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of <u>morphology</u> produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. <u>past tense</u> or <u>plural</u>). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same <u>word family</u> . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> . <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' <u>transitive verb</u> '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
main clause	A <u>sentence</u> contains at least one <u>clause</u> which is not a <u>subordinate clause</u> ; such a clause is a main clause.	<i><u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.</i> [two main clauses]

Term	Guidance	Example
	A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i>The man who wrote it told me that it was true.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] <i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]
modal verb	Modal <u>verbs</u> are used to change the meaning of other <u>verbs</u> . They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i> . A modal verb only has <u>finite</u> forms and has no <u>suffixes</u> (e.g. <i>I sing – he sings</i> , but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).	<i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i> <i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i> <i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i> <i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i> , where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]
modify, modifier	One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a <u>phrase</u> , the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.	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).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of <u>root words</u> and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> , as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> . Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word	<i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i> . <i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>unhelpful</i> + <i>ness</i> - where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un</i> + <i>helpful</i>

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	(e.g. <i>boy</i> – <i>boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy</i> – <i>boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u>. A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper</i>, <i>ice+cream</i>).	and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help</i> + <i>ful</i>
noun	The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after <u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The ___ matters/matter.” Nouns are sometimes called ‘naming words’ because they name people, places and ‘things’; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other <u>word classes</u>. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name ‘things’ such as actions. Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy</i>, <i>day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan</i>, <i>Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing</i>, <i>boy</i>) or non-countable (e.g. <i>stuff</i>, <i>money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	<i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i> <i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i> <i><u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.</i> 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] common, countable: <i>a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u></i> common, non-countable: <i><u>money</u>, some <u>chocolate</u>, less <u>imagination</u></i> proper, countable: <i><u>Marilyn</u>, <u>London</u>, <u>Wednesday</u></i>
noun phrase	A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u>, e.g. <i>some foxes</i>, <i>foxes with bushy tails</i>. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that	<i><u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<i>foxes are multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i> .	<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]
object	An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon. Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).	<i>Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.</i> [noun acting as object] <i>I like <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun acting as object] Some people suggested a pretty display. [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast: ▪ <i>A display was suggested.</i> [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] ▪ <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
participle	Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and 'past participle' (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>). Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: ▪ they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time ▪ although past participles are used as perfects (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>)	<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]

Term	Guidance	Example
	they are also used as <u>passives</u> (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>).	
passive	The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from: - the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i> - the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u> - the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional <u>preposition phrase</u> with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u> - the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. Contrast <u>active</u>. A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.	<i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.</i> <i>Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.</i> Active versions: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> <i>A bus ran over our cat.</i> Not passive: <i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>] <i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]
past tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the past tense are commonly used to: - talk about the past - talk about imagined situations - make a request sound more polite. Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.	<i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past] <i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>] <i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]

Term	Guidance	Example
	See also tense .	<i>I <u>was hoping</u> you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]
perfect	The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, <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: - turning the verb into its past participle inflection - adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it. It can also be combined with the progressive (e.g. <i>he has been going</i>).	<i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now she has some songs] <i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]
phoneme	A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example: /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>.	The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /kɑtʃ/ The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔ:t/

Term	Guidance	Example
	It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work. There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.	
phrase	A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.	<i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head] <i>She waved <u>to her mother</u>.</i> [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head] <i><u>She waved to her mother</u>.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]
plural	A plural noun normally has a suffix –s or –es and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).	<i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box] <i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]
possessive	A possessive can be: - a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without s - a possessive pronoun.	<i><u>Tariq's</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book] <i>The <u>boys'</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive] <i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]

Term	Guidance	Example
	The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u> .	<i>That essay is <u>mine</u>.</i> [I wrote the essay]
prefix	A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word. Contrast <u>suffix</u> .	<i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i>
preposition	A preposition links a following <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u> .	<i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i> <i>I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i> Contrast: <i>I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]
preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	<i>He was <u>in bed</u>.</i> <i>I met them <u>after the party</u>.</i>
present tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to: ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. They may take a suffix <i>-s</i> (depending on the <u>subject</u>). See also <u>tense</u> .	<i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now] <i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now] <i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now] <i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]

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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.	Amanda waved to Michael . <u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u> . John's mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there. The visit will be an overnight visit . <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit . <u>Simon</u> is the person: Simon broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.
punctuation	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - - () " " ' ' , and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<i>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.</i>
Received Pronunciation	Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is	

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	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, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun. In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.	<i>That's the boy <u>who lives near school</u>.</i> [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>] <i>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book.</i> [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>] <i>The prize <u>I won</u> was a book.</i> [the pronoun <i>that</i> is omitted] <i>Tom broke the game, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]

Term	Guidance	Example
root word	<u>Morphology</u> breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> which can't. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its <u>word family</u> such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i>, and also for its <u>inflections</u> such as <i>helping</i>. <u>Compound</u> words (e.g. <i>help-desk</i>) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.	<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>]
schwa	The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English. It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.	/əlɒŋ/ [<i>a</i>long] /bʌtə/ [<i>bu</i>tter] /dɒktə/ [<i>do</i>ctor]
sentence	A sentence is a group of <u>words</u> which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence. The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation. A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses	<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.]

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	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.	<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] <i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence] <i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]
split digraph	See digraph .	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <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.	<i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English] <i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English] <i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]

Term	Guidance	Example
stress	A <u>syllable</u> is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	<i><u>about</u></i> <i><u>visit</u></i>
subject	The subject of a verb is normally the <u>noun</u>, <u>noun phrase</u> or <u>pronoun</u> that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: - just before the <u>verb</u> in a statement - just after the <u>auxiliary verb</u>, in a question. Unlike the verb's <u>object</u> and <u>complement</u>, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am</i>, <i>you are</i>).	<i><u>Rula's mother</u> went out.</i> <i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i> <i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i> <i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i>
subjunctive	In some languages, the <u>inflections</u> of a <u>verb</u> include a large range of special forms which are used typically in <u>subordinate clauses</u> , and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	<i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> <i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i>
subordinate, subordination	A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:	<i><u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]</i> <i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	- an adjective is subordinate to the noun it <u>modifies</u> <u>subjects</u> and <u>objects</u> are subordinate to their <u>verbs</u>. Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of <u>co-ordination</u>. See also <u>subordinate clause</u>.	<i>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.</i> [<i>when we've finished</i> is subordinate to <i>watch</i>]
subordinate clause	A clause which is <u>subordinate</u> to some other part of the same <u>sentence</u> is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The apple that I ate was sour</i>, the clause <i>that I ate</i> is subordinate to <i>apple</i> (which it <u>modifies</u>). Subordinate clauses contrast with <u>co-ordinate</u> clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i>. (Contrast: <u>main clause</u>) However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.	<i>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>.</i> [<u>relative clause</u>; modifies <i>street</i>] <i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>.</i> [<u>adverbial</u>; modifies <i>watched</i>] <i><u>What you said</u> was very nice.</i> [acts as <u>subject</u> of <i>was</i>] <i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>.</i> [acts as <u>object</u> of <i>noticed</i>] Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, "<u>Look out!</u>"</i>
suffix	A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike <u>root words</u>, suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word. Contrast <u>prefix</u>.	<i>call – <u>called</u></i> <i>teach – <u>teacher</u></i> [turns a <u>verb</u> into a <u>noun</u>] <i>terror – <u>terrorise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb] <i>green – <u>greenish</u></i> [leaves <u>word class</u> unchanged]

Term	Guidance	Example
syllable	A syllable sounds like a beat in a <u>word</u> . Syllables consist of at least one <u>vowel</u> , and possibly one or more <u>consonants</u> .	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable. <i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
synonym	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast <u>antonym</u> .	<i>talk – speak</i> <i>old – elderly</i>
tense	In English, tense is the choice between <u>present</u> and <u>past verbs</u> , which is special because it is signalled by <u>inflections</u> and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including a future tense. (See also: <u>future</u> .) The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the <u>perfect</u> and <u>progressive</u> .	<i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense – present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense – past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense – future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb , which does not.	
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
unstressed	See stressed .	
verb	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past (see also future). Verbs are sometimes called ‘doing words’ because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions. Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.	<i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action] <i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action] Not verbs: ▪ <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] ▪ <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]
vowel	A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract. Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants. In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.	

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word	A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces. Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built</i>, <i>he's</i>).	<u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space] <u>I'm</u> going out. <u>9.30 am</u>