Grammar Glossary

Primary English
Education Consultancy

Produced by Primary English Education Consultancy Limited, 2013. Version 2.0
The Primary English Grammar Glossary

In February 2013 the Department for Education published ‘The National Curriculum in England: Framework document for consultation’. The document includes two statutory appendices – on spelling and on grammar and punctuation – giving an overview of the specific features that should be included in teaching the programmes of study:

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, and punctuation and ‘language about language’…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” p.15 [emphasis added]

The glossary has been reproduced here but with supplementary links to existing resources to support teaching and learning. We have called it the Primary English Grammar Glossary.

Whilst we acknowledge the materials are in consultation form, and therefore subject to change, the Primary English Grammar Glossary has been created to build teacher-familiarity with the planned terminology for the new National Curriculum for English. In all cases the definitions preferred by the DfE have been used and where appropriate relevant teaching materials have been signposted. Where teaching resources have not been indicated this is because the terminology is intended as teacher subject-knowledge.

In the summer of 2013 the Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling test (GaPS) will be taken by children in Y6 for the first time. Illustrative examples of the test show that the terminology preferred by the DfE has been used. The Coventry Primary English Grammar Glossary has been produced to support teachers in using this terminology with children. The Primary English Grammar glossary will also support teachers to continue using resources they know well and modify their current terminology so that children are able to access the GaPS test.

The Primary English Team
Spring 2013.

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<tr>
<th>Grammatical term</th>
<th>Grammatical definition</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Resources</th>
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<td>active voice</td>
<td>A verb in the active voice has its usual pattern of <strong>subject</strong> and <strong>object</strong> – contrast passive voice</td>
<td>The school arranged a visit. Passive voice: A visit was arranged</td>
<td>Grammar for Writing Y6 unit 45 Y6 unit 48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 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 **be** as its **complement**.  
Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from **nouns**, which can be.  
Adjectives are sometimes called "describing words" because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because **verbs**, **nouns** and **adverbs** can do the same thing. | The pupils did some really good work. [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]  
Their work was **good**. [adjective used after the verb **be**, as its complement]  
Not adjectives:  
The lamp **glowed**. [verb]  
It was such a **bright red**! [noun]  
He walked **clumsily**. [adverb]  
It was a French **grammar** book. [noun] | Grammar for Writing Y3 unit 10 Y4 unit 26 Y6 unit 44 |
| adverb           | The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can **modify** a **verb**, an **adjective**, or even another adverb. Put another way, adverbs can make the meanings of these words more specific.  
Adverbs are often said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes, because **prepositions**, **nouns** and **subordinate clauses** can also do this. | Usha went **upstairs** to play on her computer. [adverb modifying the verb **went**]  
**That match was really exciting**! [adverb modifying the adjective **exciting**]  
We don’t get to play games **very often**. [adverb modifying the other adverb, **often**]  
Not adverbs:  
Usha went **up** the stairs. [preposition]  
She finished her work this **evening**. [noun]  
She finished **when the teacher got cross**. [subordinate clause] | Grammar for Writing Y4 unit 23 Y5 unit 39 Y 6 unit 44 |
| adverbial        | An adverbial is a word or phrase that makes the meaning of a **verb** more specific (i.e. it **modifies** the verb).  
Of course, **adverbs** can be used as an adverbial, but many types of words and phrases can be used this way, including | **The bus leaves in five minutes.** [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies **leaves**]  
**Alex forgot to buy Easter eggs.** [subordinate clause as adverbial: modifies **forgot**] | Grammar for Writing Y5 unit 42 Y6 unit 44 Compendium of |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>preposition phrases and subordinate clauses.</th>
<th>Priscilla complained <em>constantly</em>. [adverb: modifies complained]</th>
<th>Games</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| apostrophe | Apostrophes have two completely different uses:  
- showing the place of missing letters (e.g. I’m for I am)  
- showing possession (e.g. Hannah’s mother) | *I’m* going out and I *won’t* be long. [showing missing letters]  
*Hannah’s* mother went to town in *Justin’s* car. [showing possession] | Grammar for Writing  
Y4 unit 27  
Compendium of Games |
| article | The articles are *the* (definite) and *a* or *an* (indefinite). Articles are a type of *determiner* | *The dog* found a *bone* in an *old* box. | Grammar for Writing  
Y5 unit 37 |
| auxiliary verb | The auxiliary verbs are *be*, *have* and *do*, plus all the modal verbs. They can all be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:  
- *be* is used in the *continuous* and *passive*  
- *have* is used in the *perfect*  
- *do* is used to make questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present. | They *are* winning the match [*be* used in the continuous]  
*Have you* finished your picture? [*have* used to make a question, and the perfect]  
No, I *don’t* know him. [*do* used to make a negative; no auxiliary is present]  
*Will you* come with me or not? [*modal verb* will used to make a question] | Grammar for Writing  
Y4 unit 17  
Y4 unit 28  
Y5 unit 34  
Y5 unit 40  
Y5 unit 43  
Y6 unit47  
Compendium of Games |
| clause | A clause is a special type of *phrase*, whose main word (or “head”) is a *verb* that describes an event or state of affairs. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Traditionally a clause had to have a *finite verb*, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses. | *Eleni’s* mother was *out* so *Eleni* was left in charge.  
*Eleni’s* mother was *out* so *Eleni* was *left in charge*.  
*Usha* went upstairs *to play on her computer*. [non-finite clause] | Grammar for Writing  
Y4 unit 17  
Y4 unit 28  
Y5 unit 34  
Y5 unit 40  
Y5 unit 43  
Y6 unit47  
Compendium of Games |
| cohesion | A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. *Cohesive devices* can help to do this. In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different colours and underlines), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear. | *A visit* has been arranged for the *Year 6*, to the *Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre*, leaving school at 9.30 am. *This is an overnight visit*. *The centre* has beautiful grounds and a *nature trail*. During the afternoon, the children will follow the *trail*. | |
| cohesive device | Cohesive devices are words that make clear how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion. Some examples of cohesive devices are:  
- **determiners** and **pronouns**, which can refer back to earlier words  
- **prepositions**, **conjunctions** and **adverbs**, which can make relations between words clear  
- **ellipsis** of expected words. | Julia's dad bought her a football. The football was expensive! [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]  
**We'll be going shopping before we go to the park.** [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear]  
**Where are you going? __To school!** [ellipsis of the expected words I'm going; links the answer back to the question] | Grammar for Writing  
Prepositions:  
Y5 unit 42, Y6 unit 44  
Conjunctions:  
Y3 unit 17, Y4 unit 32, Y5 unit 34, Y6 unit 47  
Pronouns:  
Y3 unit 15, Y5 unit 39  
Adverbs:  
Y4 unit 23, Y5 unit 39, Y6 unit 44 |
| complement | A verb's complement adds more information about the verb's subject (or, in some cases, its object). Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb be normally has a complement. | She is our teacher. [adds more information about the subject, she]  
**Today is Wednesday.** [adds more information about the subject, today]  
**Learning makes me happy.** [adds more information about the object, me] | Developing Early Writing  
Y2 Unit B |
| conjunction | A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of conjunctions:  
- **co-ordinating** conjunctions (e.g. and) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair  
- **subordinating** conjunctions (e.g. when) introduce a subordinate clause. | James bought a top and gloves. [links the words top and gloves as an equal pair]  
**Ali is strong but he is also very fast.** [links two clauses as an equal pair]  
Everyone watches when Kyle does back-flips. [introduces a subordinate clause]  
**Joe can’t practise kicking because he’s injured.** [introduces a subordinate clause] | Grammar for Writing  
Y3 unit 17  
Y4 unit 32  
Y5 unit 34  
Y6 unit 47 |
| connective | This is an informal name for words that connect the ideas expressed in different clauses; connectives may be prepositions, conjunctions or adverbs. | __It rained on sports day, so we had to run without worrying about getting wet, but it was great fun because we got muddy.____ | Developing Early Writing  
Y2 Unit 10, 11,A  
Grammar for Writing  
Y3 unit 18  
Y6 unit 46  
Spelling Bank  
p. 59  
Compendium of Games |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>consonant</th>
<th>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 a, e, i, o, u and y can represent vowel sounds.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>continuous</td>
<td>The continuous (also known as the &quot;progressive&quot;) form of a verb generally describes actions in progress. It is formed by: • taking the –ing form of the verb (e.g. singing, reading) • adding the verb be before it (e.g. he was reading). The continuous can also be combined with the perfect (e.g. he has been reading).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-ordinate, co-ordination</td>
<td>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g. and). In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in the same colour, and the conjunction is underlined. The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determiner</td>
<td>A determiner modifies a noun, but it goes before any other modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns). Some examples of determiners are: • articles (the, a or an) • demonstratives (e.g. this, those) • possessives (e.g. my, your) • quantifiers (e.g. some, every) • numerals (e.g. thirty-one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>digraph</td>
<td>A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme. Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph. The digraph <em>ea</em> in <em>each</em> is pronounced /i:/ The digraph <em>sh</em> in <em>shed</em> is pronounced /ʃ/ The split digraph <em>i-e</em> in <em>line</em> is pronounced /ai/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ellipsis</td>
<td>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etymology</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finite verb</td>
<td>Finite verbs can stand on their own as the only verb in a sentence. They can be in the present tense, the past tense, or imperatives. Verbs that are not finite, such as participle or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they depend on another verb in the sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fronting, fronted</td>
<td>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been &quot;fronted&quot;. 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb. See also tense Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPC</td>
<td>See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grapheme</td>
<td>A letter, or combination of letter, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grapheme-phoneme correspondences</strong></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>homograph</strong></td>
<td>Two words are homographs if they look exactly the same when written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>homonym</strong></td>
<td>Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>homophone</strong></td>
<td>Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>infinitive</strong></td>
<td>A verb's infinitive is its bare root-word (e.g. walk, be). It is the form that is usually found in the dictionary. Infinitives are often used: • after to • after modal verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>inflection</strong></td>
<td>Inflection is a change ('bending') of morphology which signals a special grammatical classification of the word. Inflection is sometimes thought of as a change of ending, but, in fact, some words can have all their parts inflected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>modal verb</strong></td>
<td>Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express degrees of certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <em>will</em>, <em>would</em>, <em>can</em>, <em>could</em>, <em>may</em>, <em>might</em>, <em>shall</em>, <em>should</em>, <em>must</em> and <em>ought</em>. A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <em>I sing</em> ( \rightarrow ) <em>he sings</em>, but not <em>I must</em> ( \rightarrow ) <em>he musts</em>).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>modify</strong></td>
<td>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a phrase, the “modifier” is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>morphology</th>
<th>normally close to the modified word.</th>
<th>• school is modified by primary (to mean a specific kind of school).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dogs has the morphological make-up: dog + s.</td>
<td>Support for spelling p.105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>A word’s morphology is its internal make-up, consisting of a root word plus any changes (e.g. the addition of suffix). Dictionaries normally give only the root word.</td>
<td>Our dog bit the burglar on his behind! My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard. Not nouns: He’s behind you [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] She can jump so high! [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun phrase</td>
<td>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used: they go with a verb to act as its subject, and can usually be singular or plural. Nouns are sometimes called “naming words” because they name people, places and “things”; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name actions.</td>
<td>Foxes can jump. [noun phrase consisting of just a noun] Adult foxes can jump. [adult modifies foxes, so adult belongs to the noun phrase] Almost all healthy adult foxes can jump. [all the other words help to modify foxes, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
<td>A noun phrase is a phrase (i.e. a group of grammatically connected words) with a noun as its “head” (main word). A noun phrase can normally be used in place of a noun. The noun is called the “head” of the phrase because all the other words help to modify the noun.</td>
<td>Year 2 designed that. [pronoun acting as object] Year 2 designed a pretty display. [noun phrase a pretty display acting as object] Contrast: A display was designed. [object of active verb → subject of passive verb] Year 2 designed pretty. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participle</td>
<td>Year 2 designed that. [pronoun acting as object] Year 2 designed a pretty display. [noun phrase a pretty display acting as object] Contrast: A display was designed. [object of active verb → subject of passive verb] Year 2 designed pretty. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</td>
<td>Verbs in English have two participles, called “present participle” (e.g. walking, taking) and “past participle” (e.g. walked, taken). Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: • they don’t necessarily have anything to do with</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Passive Voice

A verb in the passive voice:
- is in its past-participle form (e.g. thrown, taken, helped)
- follows the verb be
- has its normal (active) object and subject reversed.

Contrast active voice.

A verb is not “passive” just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive-voice version of an active-voice verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active voice versions: The school arranged a visit</th>
<th>Not passive voice: He received a warning. We had an accident.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A visit was <strong>arranged</strong> by the school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The ball was thrown.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Past Tense

Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:
- talk about the past-participle
- talk about imagined situations
- make a request to sound more polite

Most verbs take the suffix -ed, to form their past tense, but many commonly used verbs are irregular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tom and Christy <strong>showed</strong> me their new TV. [names an event in the past]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alex <strong>went on holiday</strong> to Brazil. [names and event in the past; irregular past of go]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I wish I <strong>had</strong> a puppy.</em> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>I was hoping you’d help tomorrow.</em> [makes an implied request to sound more polite]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect

The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior situation. It is formed by:
- taking the past participle of the verb (e.g. thrown, taken, helped)
- adding the verb have before it (e.g. she has helped).

It can be combined with the continuous (e.g. he has been reading).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>She has downloaded some songs.</em> [present perfect; now we have some songs]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>I had eaten lunch when you came.</em> [past perfect; I wasn’t hungry when you came]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 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 tap and cap
- /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between bought and ball.

It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The word <em>cat</em> has three letters and three phonemes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The word <em>catch</em> has five letters and three phonemes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The word <em>caught</em> has six letters and three phonemes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>phrase</strong></th>
<th>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected. Technically speaking, they are connected because all the words in the phrase help to modify the main word of the phrase (called the “head”). If this main word is a verb, then the phrase is a clause or a sentence. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural</strong></td>
<td>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. mice, formulae).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **possessive** | A possessive can be:
- a noun followed by an apostrophe (and sometimes s)
- a possessive pronoun.
A possessive names the “possessor” of the noun that it modifies. A possessive also acts as a determiner. |
| **prefix** | A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word. (Contrast suffix.) |
| **preposition** | A preposition links a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other thinks, such as relations of time. Words like before or since act as prepositions when they link a noun, but conjunctions when they link clauses. |

**Grammar for Writing**
Y6 unit 44 (noun phrase)

**Compendium of Games**

**Support for Spelling**
p.24
Spelling Bank p.10, p.41, p.42

**Grammar for Writing**
Y3 unit 11
Y4 unit 30

**Spelling Bank**
p.6 – 7, p.17 – 18, p.43, p.57,
Support for Spelling p. 49 – 51, p.79 - 81

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### present tense

**Verbs** in the present tense are commonly used to:
- talk about the present
- talk about the future (see also future).

They may take a suffix -s (depending on the **subject**).
See also tense

- **Jamal goes to the pool every day.** [names a regular event]
- **He can swim.** [names a state that is now true]
- **The bus arrives at three.** [names a future event]

### pronoun

Pronouns are usually used like **nouns**, except that:
- they are grammatically more specialised
- it is harder to **modify** them
(i.e. it is harder to make their meaning more specific).

In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with pronouns (underlined), once with nouns, The colours show where the same thing is being talked about.

- **She waved to him.** → **Amanda waved to Michael**
- **His mother is over there.** → **John’s mother is over there.**
- **This will be an overnight visit.** → **The visit will be an overnight visit.**
- **He is the one **who** broke it.** → **Simon is the one: Simon broke it.**

### punctuation

Punctuation includes any conventional features of written presentation other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks ( . , ; : ? ! -- () " ’ ), and also word-space, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points.

One important role of punctuation is to indicate **sentence** boundaries.

- "I’m going out, Usha, and I won’t be long,” Mum said.

### relative clause

A relative clause is a special type of **subordinate clause** that makes the meaning of a noun more specific (i.e. it **modifies** the noun). It does this by using a special pronoun to refer back to that noun.

In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and the colour-coding pairs the pronouns with the nouns they refer back to.

It is sometimes possible for the pronoun to refer back to the main clause as a whole, rather than referring back to a

- **That’s the boy **who** lives near school.** [who refers back to boy]
- **The prize **that** I won was a book.** [that refers back to prize]
- **Tom broke the game, **which** annoyed Ali.** [which refers back to the whole clause]
- **The prize **that** I won was a book.** [the pronoun is omitted]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root word</th>
<th>A root word is a word which is not made up of any smaller root words, or prefixes or suffixes. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word of the word we are interested in.</th>
<th>played [the root word is play] unfair [the root word is fair]</th>
<th>Spelling Bank p.6 – 7. p. 17 – 18. p.44 Support for Spelling p. 49 – 51, p. 85 - 87</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sentence</td>
<td>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected, and where nothing is grammatically missing. In other words, a sentence must be grammatically complete.</td>
<td>John went to his friend's house. [The preposition to should be linked to a noun, but the noun is missing. This in not grammatically complete, and so it is not a sentence.]</td>
<td>Developing Early Writing Y1 Unit 1-7,9, p.78-82 Y2 Unit 12, H Grammar for Writing Y3 unit 6 Y4 units 20, 28 Compendium of Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>split digraph</td>
<td>See digraph</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard English</td>
<td>Standard English is the variety of the English language that is generally used for formal purposes in speech and writing. It is not the English of a particular region and it can be spoken with any accent.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar for Writing Y5 unit 33 Y6 unit 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stressed</td>
<td>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</td>
<td>about visit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>The subject of a verb is normally the noun or pronoun that names the “do-er” or “be-er”. The subject's normal position is: • just before the verb in a statement • just after the verb, or an auxiliary verb, in a question. Unlike the verb’s object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb. (e.g. I am, you are).</td>
<td>Rula's mother went out. That is uncertain. The children will study the animals. Will the children study the animals?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Subjunctive | The school requires that all pupils be honest. [It's possible for pupils not to be honest, but the school would like them to be.]
The school rules demand that pupils not enter the gym at lunchtime. [But it still might happen]
I wish you would stop! [not "will stop"]
I insist that he come to visit every week. [He doesn't actually come to visit, but I would like him to.]
Not subjunctive: I insist that he comes to visit every week. [I am insisting that it's actually the case that he does visit, not simply that I would like him to.]

| Subordinate, Subordination | big dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]
Big dogs need long walks. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]
We can watch TV when we've finished. [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]

| Subordinate Clause | That's the street where Ben lives. [relative clause; modifies street]
He watched her as she disappeared. [adverbial; modifies watched]
What you said was very nice. [acts as subject of was]
She noticed an hour had passed. [acts as object of noticed]

| Suffix | call → called
teach → teacher [turns a verb into a noun]
terror → terrorise [turns a noun into a verb]
| syllable | A syllable sounds like a beat in a word. Syllables consist of at least one vowel, and possible one or more consonants. | Cat has one syllable.  
Fairy has two syllables  
Hippopotamus has five syllables. |
|---|---|---|
| tense | Tense is the choice between different verb forms that is normally used to indicate time (although tense and time do not always match up.)  
Verbs in English (and other Germanic languages) have two distinct tense forms: present and past. Verbs in languages like French, Spanish and Italian have three distinct tense forms: present, past and future.  
English uses a variety of verbs in the present tense to talk about future time, such as may, will intend, or plan.  
English also uses verbs in the past tense to talk about imagined situations in the past, present or future. | He studies. [present tense → present time]  
He studied yesterday. [past tense → past time]  
He studies tomorrow, or else! [present tense future time]  
He may study tomorrow. [present tense + infinitive → future time]  
He plans to study tomorrow. [present tense + infinitive → future time]  
If he studied tomorrow, he'd see the difference! [past tense → imagined future]  
Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish:  
Estudia [present tense]  
Estudio [past tense]  
Estudiara [future tense]  
Developing Early Writing  
Y2 Unit D  
Compendium of Games |
| trigraph | A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme. | high  
pure  
patch  
hedge  
Letters and Sounds: Notes and Guidance for Practitioners and Teachers p.19 |
| 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), and moreover many verbs do not name actions. | He looked out of the school bus window. [present tense]  
The teacher wrote a song for the class. [past tense]  
We will go to the zoo soon! [present tense + infinitive]  
He likes chocolate. [present tense]  
Not verbs: The walk to Harriet’s house will take an hour. [noun]  
Surfing makes Michelle so sleepy! [noun]  
Grammar for Writing  
Y3 units 1, 2, 7, 14  
Y4 units 22, 30  
Y5 unit 37 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>vowel</strong></th>
<th>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 a, e, i, o, u and y can represent vowels.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>word</strong></td>
<td>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, what appears to be two words are grammatically treated as one. This may be indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>headteacher or head teacher [can be written with or without a space] primary-school teacher (normally written with a hyphen) I’m going out 9.30 am.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>word family</strong></td>
<td>The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of form, grammar and meaning. teacher – teach extensive – extend - extent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Resources

*Grammar for Writing* Ref: DfEE 0107/2000
SBN 0 19 312401 7

*Support for Spelling* Ref: 001717-2009FLR-EN
Copies of this publication may be available from:
[www.teachernet.gov.uk/publication](http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/publication)

*Jumpstart Literacy: Games and activities for ages 7-14* by Corbett, David Fulton Publishers
ISBN 1-84312-102-6

*Compendium of Games*, Primary English Team