



Where learning's an adventure

# Literacy Policy

Including:

- Phonics
- BIG writing
- Handwriting

	Name	Signature	Date
Prepared by:			
Checked and Reviewed by:			
Approved by:	Name: Chair of Governing Body		
Document Title:	Policy – English Phonics and big writing policy		
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## **Introduction**

This policy provides us with a set of principles on which to base our practice. The policy reflects the requirements for Literacy within the National Curriculum.

The Programmes of Study (National Curriculum for English, Primary Framework for Literacy and Curriculum Guidance for the Foundation Stage) will enable us to put these principles into practice in our classrooms, and ensure continuity and progression. Curriculum guidelines for the various aspects of Literacy will be produced to provide more detailed guidance on teaching and learning strategies, procedures and resources.

## **Aims**

We aim to provide:

- A rich and stimulating language environment, where pupils work collaboratively, where speaking and listening, reading and writing are inter-related, and where literature is a core element.
- For all pupils to become confident and competent users of language aware what language is and how it works.
- For all pupils to construct and convey meaning in speech and in writing.
- For pupils to be reflective users of language, able to analyse and evaluate features of language and to discuss choices in relation to purpose and audience.
- An environment, which encourages our pupils to maintain and develop the oracy and literacy of their community languages.

## **Teaching and learning**

### **Speaking and listening**

There will be planned opportunities for a range of speaking and listening activities in the Literacy unit plans so that pupils develop as clear, competent and confident talkers and are able to listen with understanding for increasingly sustained periods.

Our pupils should therefore be able to:

- Use talk appropriately for different purposes, in a variety of situations and to a variety of audiences
- Use talk to develop and express ideas
- Communicate meaning to others using a wide vocabulary
- Know how to listen and respond within discussions and conversations, asking and answering questions
- Understand how speech can have a powerful effect on the listener

- Participate in a wide range of role play and drama activities in order to express ideas and feelings, and appreciate and evaluate drama both as participants and observers
- Be aware of how fact and opinion can be presented to reinforce a particular point of view and encourage active and critical listening to the media
- Think critically and talk about books and other texts

## Reading

The foundation for learning to read for pleasure and understanding will come from:

- The teaching of reading which takes place during shared and guided reading sessions during literacy lessons;
- Reading practice at the pupil's own level, which takes place during carefully planned reading times (during registration or at the end of the day) and as a home learning activity;
- Reading with volunteer and parent helpers who share the reading experience for short periods of time during the school day;
- Continuous assessment and monitoring to ensure all children are reading at a level appropriate to their age;
- Specific catch up and booster schemes for those children who are recognised as not meeting expected standards in reading for their age;
- Shared reading – within literacy lessons and at other times of the day
- Guided reading – this often takes place outside of literacy lessons (see individual timetables)
- Resources – Oxford reading Tree is our main reading scheme but this is supplemented by other schemes such as Big Cat, RWI books and other quality texts.
- All classes have a collection of texts for home reading (from published schemes as well as a range of significant authors), dictionaries and thesaurus, interactive whiteboard, fiction and non-fiction big books.
- Access to a wide range of genres in both fiction and non-fiction.

## Phonics

Systematic discrete phonics is taught daily in Foundation Stage to Year 2. Phonic interventions are in place for pupils in Key Stage 1 and Key Stage 2 when necessary. The RWI programme is used for the teaching of phonics.

### Key points:

- **Purpose** – Keep to the Lesson Intention
- **Pace**- A feeling of pace gives energy. There should be no 'down-time'. If the pace is too slow children may become restless.
- **Passion**- Energy, enthusiasm and passion brings the lesson to life!

### Stretchy consonant sounds

Practise stretching each sound (avoid 'fuh' 'luh' 'muh' 'nuh')

ffff	llll	mmmm	nnnn	rrrr	ssss	vvvv	zzzz	ssshhh	ttthhh	nnng
------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	--------	--------	------

Shortest sounds without an 'ah!'

f	l	m	n	r	s	v	z	sh	th	ng
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	----	----	----

**Bouncy consonant sounds**

c-c-c-c k-k-k-k	h-h-h-h	p-p-p-p	t-t-t-t	ch-ch-ch-ch
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Say the shortest sound you can without an 'uh'

c	h	p	t	ch
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Practice bouncing each sound

b-b-b-b	d-d-d-d	g-g-g-g	j-j-j-j	w-w-w-w	y-y-y-y
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**Double consonant sounds**

These sounds are actually two sounds made closely together, but they are counted as one.

x (c s)	qu (c w)	nk (ng k)
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**Fred's vowel sounds**

There are five vowel sounds 'a' 'e' 'i' 'o' and 'u' but 20 vowel sounds.

a apple	e egg	i insect	o orange	u umbrella
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ay may I play?	ee what can I see?	igh Fly high	ow blow the snow	oo Poo at the zoo	oo look at a book	ar start the car	or shut the door
air that's not fait	ir whirl and twirl	ou shout it out	oy toy for the boy	ire fire fire!	ear hear with your ear	ure sure it's pure	

Practice Fred Talk these words:

1. Read the words in Fred talk. Say the last sound gently.

2. Spell the words using Fred fingers. Touch each finger as you say each sound.

a	m-a-d	s-a-d	g-r-a-n	p-r-a-m	t-r-a-p	b-l-a-ck
e	m-e-t	h-e-n	s-e-n-t	b-e-s-t	b-e-ll	l-e-ss
i	b-i-n	th-i-n	th-i-ck	h-i-n-t	s-l-i-d	th-i-n-g
o	g-o-t	n-o-t	b-o-ss	f-r-o-g	s-t-o-p	c-o-s-t
u	h-u-t	c-u-p	j-u-s-t	l-u-m-p	g-u-ll	c-r-u-s-t

Phrase and picture to help children remember the graphemes:  
Complex stretchy

f	l	m	n	r	s	v	z	sh	th	ng
ff	ll	mm	nn	rr	ss	ve	zz	ti		nk
ph	le	mb	kn	wr	se		S	ci		
					se					
					c					
					ce					

Consonants: bouncy

b	c	d	g	h	j	p	qu	t	w	x	y	t
bb	k	dd	gg		g	pp		tt	wh			tch
	ck				ge							
	ch											

Vowels

a	e	i	o	u	au	ee	igh	ow
	ea				a-e	y	i-e	o-e
					ai	ea	ie	oa
						e	i	o

oo u-e ue ew	oo	ar	or oor ore aw aw	air are	ir ur er	ou ow	oy oi	ire	ear	ure
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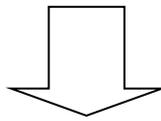
**Teaching Sequence:**

REVISIT AND REVIEW

Recently and previously learned grapheme-phoneme correspondences, or blending and segmenting skills as appropriate

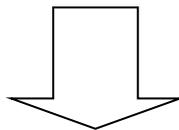
TEACH

New grapheme-phoneme correspondences; skills of blending and segmenting



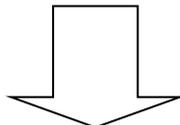
PRACTISE

New grapheme-phoneme correspondences; skills of blending and segmenting



APPLY

New knowledge and skills while reading/writing



ASSESS

Do the pupils know the new phoneme?  
Can they blend and segment using the new phoneme?

**Guidance for Get Writing Lessons are from page 44- 52**

- Activity 1 Play 'Fred rhythms' for spelling
- Activity 2 Play 'Fred fingers' for spelling
- Activity 3 Carry out a spelling check
- Activity 4 Take a spelling test
- Activity 5 Hold a sentence
- Activity 6 Build a sentence
- Activity 7 Edit for spelling/ punctuation
- Activity 8 Write a composition based on a picture strip

- Activity 9 Write a guided composition based on a writing frame

### **Partner Work**

Key points see Phonics Handbook  
Page 26- 34 for more information

### **Assessments**

These are carried out every half term or termly. You need to have a flexible approach some children may go up or down the groups during the term.

You can decide which assessments to carry out according to your group of children.

1. Assessment A: Speed Sound Card Set 1 (Page 73 of Handbook for more information)
2. Assessment B: Oral – sound blending (Page 73 of Handbook)
3. Assessment C Sound Blending for Reading: Speed Sound Card Set 1 (Page 74)
4. Assessment D: Red Words (Page 75)
5. Assessment E: Speed Sounds Cards Set 2 (Page 75)
6. Assessment F: Sound- Blending for Reading Speed Sounds Set 2 (Page 75)
7. Assessment G: Two Syllable Words (Page 76)
8. Assessment H: Red Words (Page 76)
9. Assessment I: Speed Sounds Cards Set 3 (Page 76)
10. Assessment J: Sound-Blending for Reading Speed Sounds Set 3 (Page 76)
11. Assessment K: Multi-syllable Words (Page 77)
12. Assessment L: Red Words (Page 77)

### **Read Write Inc. Spelling (review)**

- Background and principles for teaching spelling
- The complex English alphabetic code
- Read Write Inc. principles for excellent teaching and learning
- Organisation and grouping
- Introductory activities
- Key spelling activities: modelling, partner teaching and individual assessment
- Marking and assessment

### **Read Write Inc. Comprehension (review)**

- Background and principles for teaching comprehension
- Organisation and grouping
- Reading activities:
  - The Big Question and introduction
  - Vocabulary check
  - Read and quick check – summarisation

- Questions to talk about
- Asking questions
- Questions to write about
- Key words and Mind pictures
- Writing activities:
- Grapheme and spelling check
- Vocabulary catch
- Sentence build
- Edit a sentence
- Hold a sentence
- Write a composition
- Marking and assessment

## **Writing**

Writing is closely linked to reading and speaking and listening. There is a strong focus on the teaching of specific skills in spelling and grammar, especially in the lower school. Children have experience of the full writing process, including amending and improving their work against a success criteria. The features and layouts of a full range of writing genres are taught in both fiction and non-fiction with planned opportunities to write in context in other curriculum areas.

Opportunities are provided for:

- Emergent writing in Foundation Stage and Key Stage 1 through directed teaching activities or as a result of continuous provision in class
- Shared Writing – within the literacy lesson
- Guided Writing/Independent Writing - within the literacy lesson or other areas of learning
- Extended writing - within the literacy lesson and other foundation subjects e.g. topic , PCSHE, Science etc. (also see Big Write section below)
- Writing to be stimulated by experiences outside the classroom or as a result of a visitor to school or trips.

## **Big Writing**

To raise standards and enjoyment in writing through the implementation of 'BIG WRITING'

Our aims for our staff and children are:

- To dedicate curriculum time to the implementation of the method
- To establish systems for tracking and monitoring progress
- To provide professional development and effective leadership for the successful implementation of the programme
- To have FUN when writing and raise our writing standards across the whole school

## Introduction

Big Writing involves KS1 and KS2. The children are given opportunities to talk about their compositions and what could be included before they begin to write independently. The children will then use these ideas and plans to write their piece. BIG write is based on V (vocabulary), C (connectives), O (openers), P (punctuation). Teachers use these to improve children's writing by fun warm ups and games.

### Whole School Organisation

Senior Leadership Team will:

1. Organise and facilitate appropriate CPD, provision of resources and effective leadership for successful implementation
2. Initiate the successful achievement of a fully assessed baseline piece of writing for every pupil from Year 1 to Year 6 (completed Autumn term)
3. Ensure secure assessment of writing through standardized judgements using the Criterion Scale  
Year 2 and Year 6 – use the criterion scale to assess every BIG write piece and Year 1,3,4,5 to use criterion scale to assess each piece once every half term. Teachers in these year groups do a detailed mark of every other piece (see marking policy)
4. Monitor progress of pupils, classes and cohorts through the up-dated trackers
5. Lead celebration of significant successes
6. Identify excellence in order to enable peer coaching and team teaching
7. Provide support and guidance where VA (value-added) fails to meet expectation
8. Report progress back to Governors

Class Teachers will:

1. Plan and deliver the full Big Writing session on a weekly basis
2. Ensure all pupils are able to recognise the next steps they need to address in their writing in order to continue progressing. Teacher will give opportunities for children to reflect on their own work and the work of their peers, self assessing and setting targets for each other
3. Assess the BIG write pieces when appropriate (Year 2 and Year 6 use the criterion scale to assess every BIG write piece and Year 1,3,4,5 to use criterion scale to assess every half term). Use what is found to inform planning and next steps
4. Know where each pupil is, in terms of sub-levels for writing, and what their next small steps need to be to ensure good or better progress
5. Ensure all pupils make good or better progress, (85 per cent or more moving at minimum 2 sub levels per year) each year. Plot progress onto a tracker and then look at children not making expected progress and plan the appropriate intervention
6. Keep a display in the classroom which reflects elements of Big Writing (VCOP and borrowed words wall) that the children can add to or use as a revision aid when writing.

### Big Talk homework

The Big Talk homework needs to be clearly explained and prepared before undertaking the Big Writing in class. It should be interesting and stimulating to engage the children. It works best when linked to a topic/theme or subject currently being studied in class as it allows children the opportunity to apply what they have learnt across the curriculum. ALL genres need covering over the year'

The class teacher will have responsibility for organising the weekly Big Writing Session, this should be:

- Year 1 – In Autumn Term, 10 minutes sharing ideas on the topic then a break and an independent writing session of 10 minutes (building up to 1 hour - 30 minutes planning and sharing ideas, 30 minutes Big Write by the end of the year). It should link to the theme being covered in class and cover the range of genres
- Year 2 – 6 – a period of 1 hour and 30 mins, divided exactly in half by a break or lunchtime. Teacher needs to ensure it links to the current topic or theme and that they are exploring a different genre each week.

The first half of ALL Big Writing sessions will be will be fast, lively, oracy driven V.C.O.P activities and give opportunities to share what they have discussed at home. Towards the end of this first half of the session children will be given time to plan what they intend to include in their writing. They can choose own method of planning or use a scaffold supplied by the teacher if appropriate. The children should have a good understanding of the text type and purpose of the writing.

The second half of ALL Big Writing sessions will begin after playtime. The room will have been prepared for Big Writing with the environmental changes made, (reduced lighting / candle / soft music) and pupil resources on tables (Big Write books). This session will be managed as a silent writing session. The teacher should model writing at the same time to act as a role model for the class. LSAs could be used to support children who found writing difficult and they could work in small groups using the LSA as a scribe and build up to independent writing as appropriate.

After the writing is finished the children should be given an opportunity to reflect on its content. They could look at VCOP (Vocabulary, Connectives, Openers and Punctuation). They should look at how to improve own written work or be given the opportunity to mark the work of a peer and suggest suitable ways forward for them.

All adults (including Learning support assistant ) will:

1. Be enthusiastic about writing
2. Ensure they know what the Criterion scale is
3. Ensure that they are able to model the school methods for teaching handwriting and phonics
4. Model Standard English when it is appropriate to do so
5. Ensure they understand completely the use of VCOP
6. Ensure they know the features of all text types and progression
7. Attend training offered by school to assist in the delivery of Big Writing

Year 1 children will:

1. Be given opportunities to talk about what interests me and have this followed up in class
2. Classrooms to have opportunities to encourage mark making and emergent writing so we can write about what we are doing
3. To do Big Talk at least once a week on a topic I have been introduced to and our teacher will scribe for us and show us what a good piece of writing looks like

Year 1 ( from Spring) and Years 2 - 6 children will:

1. To talk at home about my Big Talk homework
2. To be able to recognize and use VCOP in our writing and say what they all do
3. To be able to use in context a range of words that are beyond expectations for our age (Our teacher will encourage us to make notes of these new exciting words we could use in our writing)
4. To be able to name the key features of each text type we have been taught, and to apply them in the appropriate context
5. We always show enthusiasm and enjoyment for writing activities

The outcomes of successfully implementing BIG writing:

- Attitudes towards writing will be positive across all classes. Our children will have fun and enjoy what they are learning
- Standards will rise in writing in all classes across, at minimum, 85% of pupils
- Within 3 years a minimum of 85% of all mainstream pupils will beat nationally expected standards for their age
- We will consistently achieve writing targets across all 3 phases
- There will be excitement and enthusiasm for writing across the school and this will be celebrated through displays and awards

## **Handwriting**

### **Introduction**

Handwriting is a movement skill, which is best taught directly by modelling, explanation and practice. Handwriting also affects communication across the curriculum and if taught effectively it can be mastered by most pupils by the time they are 7 or 8 years old. This will enable them to develop fluency as they prepare for secondary school and adult life. Consistency in the attitudes displayed, the methods employed and models provided is the key to effective teaching.

## **Rationale**

Good handwriting raises self-esteem and enables children to communicate clearly. Children feel proud about what they have completed and this can impact on their progress and attitude to learning. There is a need for clear expectations to help the school to show it is setting high standards in general and of presentation in particular.

## **Aims**

- Pupils will form letters correctly according to the handwriting scheme
- Pupils will develop a fluent, individual and legible style of writing
- Pupils will realise the effect that presentation and layout of text can have on the reader
- Pupils will demonstrate good handwriting skills in all writing across the curriculum

## **Roles and responsibilities**

### Leadership

The literacy leader and SLT have responsibility for handwriting and presentation in the school as well the other areas of literacy.

He/she will ensure that:

- Class teachers are aware of the handwriting scheme
- Pupils' work is valued and displayed appropriately
- The required resources are available

### Class teachers

The class teacher has the responsibility to support the learning which takes place in the classroom.

They must ensure that they:

- follow the school policy for handwriting and presentation to ensure that each child develops legible and fluent writing
- provide direct teaching and accurate modelling
- model appropriate handwriting to the children when using whiteboards, the interactive whiteboard and when marking books
- vary teaching strategies to take account of different pupils' learning styles and abilities
- pupils' efforts are acknowledged and displayed appropriately

## **Teaching time**

In year 1 to 6 handwriting skills should be taught for a total of thirty minutes on a weekly basis. In Reception handwriting skills should be taught for fifteen minutes a week.

### **Assessment and recording**

An essential part of teaching and learning is the use of assessment to inform planning and gauge the success of the teaching strategies used.

Assessment methods are varied and may include observation, discussion and marking. These can be used by the teacher or by pupils as part of self/peer assessment.

### **Reporting**

Parents/carers afternoons are held each term to report pupils' progress and share information. Opportunities will be given to encourage pupils in their progress by sending home improved work to be shared with parent/carer.

### **Pencils and pens**

In years 1, 2 and 3 pupils learn to write in pencil. The teacher can then decide if pupils can get their 'pen licence'. Children may only get their pen licence if it is deemed they have a neat, legible, joined handwriting style. If this is not the case, pupils continue to write in pencil.

### **Posture**

Children should be encouraged to sit up straight with their feet on the floor. The non-writing hand should be used to steady the book or paper.

### **Pen grip**

The pen or pencil should be gripped comfortably between forefinger and thumb with the second finger below to steady it.



**Right handed pencil grip**  
**pencil grip**



**Left handed**

### **Pencil grip development**

Pencil grip follows a predictable pattern. This develops from:

- the basic palm grasp, where the child wraps all his fingers round the pencil and moves his whole arm to make marks,

- to the digital finger grasp, where the hand is above the pencil and the child uses the whole arm to manipulate it,
- to the tripod grasp, with fingers placed near the tip of the pencil with the thumb opposing the fingers, and movement controlled by the fingers.

### Left handers

Special rules apply for left-handers, They must sit on the left-hand side of double desks or tables. They must be able to rest their forearms on the edge of the desk. The book or paper must slope in line with the left forearm, As writing is completed down the page, the paper must be moved away from the body in the same line. The aim is to keep the left arm in much the same position at all times to avoid the elbow being cramped by the chest, Moving the paper away from the body prevents writing becoming cramped at the foot of the page. The right hand must be used to control the movement of the page. The left hand should end up below the line of writing to avoid smudging and to give a clear view of what is being written. Children should be discouraged from hooking their left hand above the line of writing to avoid smudging.



### Right handers

Right handers do not face the same difficulties as left handers, but pupils will find it helpful to slope the paper slightly and to move it away from the body as the page is completed.



### Success Criteria for Teachers, Pupils and Parents

If pupils' handwriting is to develop into a legible and consistent style, it is helpful to examine each piece of writing in the light of the following:

1. *Shape*  
Are all the letters properly formed and clear?
2. *Joining*  
Are as many letters as possible joined consistently?
3. *Evenness*  
Are letters of a consistent size?
4. *Floating and sinking*  
Do letters sit on the line?
5. *Particular letters*  
What letters are really well formed? Which ones need careful practice?

Points for adults to aid children's fine motor skills development:

- *Chair and table*

These need to be at the required height to suit the child. The adult needs to make sure that the child is sitting comfortably and with both feet under the table.

- *Direction*  
If the child is copying from the board, it is essential that they face the writing that is being copied.
- *Hand support*  
Having decided which the dominant hand is, the child needs to be encouraged to use the other hand to support the paper. This not only prevents the paper slipping, but gives the child the correct posture and balance for the best results.
- *Pressure*  
Children must learn how much pressure to exert in order to make marks. Some children may need a softer pencil than the standard 'HB'.
- *Mirror writing*  
This is a very common occurrence. The adult can help overcome this by consistently writing names at the top left of the page to encourage left to right orientation. A child starting to write at the right hand side of the page will produce mirror writing.
- *Left-handed*  
Children who have a determined left hand need to be encouraged to angle their paper in order to see the writing they have produced.
- *Table contact*  
In order to execute successful writing, the children's side of the hand needs to slide along the paper. Children gradually learn to achieve this. Some children who have only used computers adopt a grip with the pencil that avoids contact with the table, similar to using a mouse. This puts a strain on the arm and does not allow the writer any level of control.

### **Warm-up clips**

These are brief activities that are intended to prepare the body and hands for handwriting. The warm ups emphasise the rhythm of writing and really capture the children's imagination. The gross and fine motor skills use the whole body not just the fingers. They are also good mental warm-ups because they get the children raring to go for the lesson so everyone looks forward to handwriting.

### **Inclusion**

The vast majority of pupils are able to write legibly and fluently. However, some pupils need more support and provision will be made for this in Individual Education Plans (IEPs). Teachers of children whose handwriting is limited by problems with fine motor skills should liaise with the inclusion leader to develop a programme designed for the individual child.

All teachers must be aware of the specific needs of left-handed pupils and make appropriate provision:

- paper should be positioned to the right for left-handed pupils and slanted to suit the individual
- pencils should not be held too close to the point as this can interrupt pupils' line of vision
- pupils should be positioned so that they can place their paper to their left side

- left-handed pupils should sit to the left of a right-handed child so that they are not competing for space
- extra practice with left-to-right exercises may well be necessary before pupils write left-to-right automatically

Teachers must be alert to the fact that it is very difficult for left-handed pupils to follow handwriting movements when a right-handed teacher models them. Teacher demonstrates to left-handers on an individual basis when possible.

### **The learning environment**

In all classrooms there should be examples of good handwriting on display. The adults working in that classroom must ensure that their handwriting follows the Penpal scheme and that all writing on displays, signs and labels also complies with the scheme.

The join that has just been completed in the handwriting lesson should be displayed and a Star Hand writer of the Week should be chosen and their work displayed.

### **Assessment and evaluation**

Children will be assessed on a regular basis including at the end of handwriting lessons, through teacher's or pupils' marking and discussions. Teachers should provide next step targets for individual pupils and groups.

### **Equal opportunities**

Lessons will be differentiated to accommodate all levels of ability. Children in need of extra help will be identified and given such help.

Children joining the school from other schools who arrive with different handwriting styles will be allowed to continue with these if teachers judge them to be acceptable.

### **Cross Curricular Opportunities**

Teachers will seek to take advantage of opportunities to make cross-curricular links. They will plan for pupils to practise and apply the skills, knowledge and understanding acquired through literacy lessons to other areas of the curriculum especially in topic and science lessons.

### **Spelling**

The teaching of spelling is based on a structured scheme, which introduces word families and phonemes at the pupils own level. This is supported with handwriting and language work to provide further practise of words and phonemes. High frequency and topic words are also introduced at the pupils own level. New words are given and tested weekly (also see Spelling objectives attached)

### **ICT in Literacy**

In an increasingly technological world, we recognise the children's need to have the opportunity to use a range of ICT applications in their learning and

teaching. ICT is used to enhance literacy learning and teaching in a variety of ways. Such as:

- The use of interactive whiteboards to display visual texts, interactive texts and multimodal texts.
- The use of software and internet based resources to teach specific language skills.
- Children/teacher using multimedia devices to capture sound and/or images to be used to create a digital text, display or presentation.
- Using word processing technology in the process of writing and presenting written work.
- Each class has a shared year group camera in KS1 and KS2. FS2 and FS1 have their own cameras. There are two Flip cameras available and Digi blues to present and capture and present their learning.

## **Planning**

We plan for continuity and progression by using the Primary Literacy Framework. Literacy is used across the curriculum and the International Primary Curriculum provides a progression of topics their related language demands.

Teachers in the Foundation Stage plan weekly and these plans have links to the six areas of learning where 'communication, language and literacy' is an integral part of the planning.

Teachers in Key stage 1 and Key Stage 2 plan for Literacy using the guidance available from the Primary Literacy Framework. Planning is undertaken by year group teachers using the Copenhagen Primary School Literacy planning grid (see attached). Teaching objectives are taken from the framework and group activities are differentiated accordingly.

## **Marking, assessment and monitoring**

### **Marking**

Children's work is marked in accordance with the school marking policy.

### **Assessment and monitoring**

Assessment in literacy is both summative and formative.

#### **Foundation Stage:**

- Profiles

#### **Key stage 1:**

- Phonics tracking

#### **Key Stage 1 and 2:**

- These samples of writing are collected from across the curriculum during big write sessions.
- Writing samples are moderated in year groups and cross-phase meetings.

- All children are set appropriate targets linked to literacy targets and their needs based on the assessments against the criterion scale.
- All children should be aware of their targets (in their books and on the Literacy working wall) and are encouraged to be involved in assessing their own progress and discussing this with their teacher.
- Guided reading is carried out every day by class teachers. Children read in ability groups using banded books.
- Reading is also assessed using APP. As with writing, 6 pupils are tracked and other pupils are grouped accordingly.

### **Parental Involvement**

Parents are encouraged to support their child's learning in many ways.

- Termly meetings are held for parents in the Foundation Stage to explain our approach to the teaching of reading and writing.
- Throughout the school parents' evenings/ open evenings are held termly to discuss individual progress and targets for the future
- Reading records are used throughout the school to aid communication between home and school.
- Regular reading homework is set throughout the school – timings are age dependent
- We promote events at the local library to encourage parents to make use of this valuable resource.

### **Health and safety**

Refer to school health and safety policy

### **Inclusion**

Copenhagen Primary School believes that children have the right to develop their full potential, irrespective of ability, race, gender or physical ability. We aim to ensure that, in partnership with parents, we offer all pupils equality of access and opportunity for successful learning.

All pupils are entitled to a broad, balanced and relevant curriculum. They will be given every opportunity to be successful in their learning and achieve as high a standard as possible.

We actively seek to remove barriers to learning and participation so each pupil can achieve their full potential.

When teaching literacy we need to plan, assess and provide for a wide range of abilities and interests. When planning provision for pupils with Special Educational Needs, Gifted and Talented, or EAL pupils we need to:

- Set suitable learning challenges
- Respond to pupils' diverse needs
- Work to overcome barriers to learning

### **Time allocation**

The Revised National Literacy Framework is used and every class in Key Stages 1 and 2 has an hour of Literacy on a daily basis, although this may be spread

across the day as appropriate. It has been agreed that additional time is given to phonics, spelling, Guided Reading and handwriting. The exact time allocation for this may vary (see class timetables)

In the EYFS Communication Language and Literacy (CLLD) is carefully planned so that it permeates all aspects of the child's day.

### **Early Years Foundations Stage**

In the Foundation Stage (Nursery and Reception) children should be given opportunities to:

- Speak and listen and represent ideas in their activities;
- Use communication, language and literacy in every part of the curriculum;
- Become immersed in an environment rich in print and possibilities for communication.

### **Additional Support and Intervention**

The Literacy Subject Leader, Inclusion Leader and the class teacher will discuss the needs of children requiring additional support for their Literacy.

### **Phonics**

Extra phonics sessions with a reading tutor are used for children in Year 1 and 2 who have fallen behind in the RWI phonics programme. There is also phonics in small groups for children who need it in KS2.

### **Wave 2**

Intervention strategies such as Early Literacy Support (ELS) and Fresh Start (Y5/6) are used when and if they are considered appropriate for particular groups of children.

### **Wave 3**

Where children need a higher level of intervention support is available through in line with the Special Educational Needs (SEN) policy.

### **Equal Opportunities**

All children have an entitlement to participate fully in English, regardless of gender, race, age or ability, in accordance with the school's Equal Opportunities Policy.

Children whose second language is English receive appropriate support as necessary.

### **Reporting to Parents**

Parents receive regular informal or verbal feedback as to their children's progress in Literacy. Each child has a reading record book to record progress in reading at home and school. The practising of spellings and other written work may be set as appropriate. In addition, parents also have an opportunity in the autumn and spring terms, to meet with the staff to discuss progress and to see work.

Parents receive an annual written report at the end of the school year. This includes details of their children's progress, attitude and areas for development. Where appropriate the SAT results are reported.

### **Monitoring and Evaluation**

In order to monitor standards and progress the following systems are in place:

- Pupil Progress meetings are held during the year allowing the class teacher, Literacy Subject Leader, Headteacher and the Inclusion Leader (SENCO) to monitor and evaluate the progress of children in Literacy. Where appropriate, TA's are also involved.
- The Headteacher monitors children's work once a term through the work sample.
- The Literacy Subject Leader is given time to observe lessons and give oral and written feedback. A Governor monitors the Literacy Subject Leader's evaluations.
- The Subject Leader is given time to analyse RAISEonline data and end of key stage SATs results for writing and reading. Recommendations from this analysis may feed into Performance Management Targets and the School Development Plan.
- The progress of pupils with Special Educational Needs (SEN) is reviewed with the Inclusion Leader on a regular basis

### **The Role of the subject leader**

The role of the Literacy Subject Leader is defined in the job description.

### **Resourcing**

The Literacy Subject Leader, with the Headteacher, is responsible for the ordering, costing and allocation of resources to support the teaching of English.

A review of resources is carried out periodically which leads to a prioritised list of requirements. This is funded within the school's budget plan for the financial year.

### **Spiritual Development**

*Across the curriculum, but particularly in Literacy lessons, pupils are given opportunities to:*

- Express personal thoughts, feelings and ideas through discussion, responding to texts
- Understand human feelings (e.g. hopes and fears) through stories and drama
- Reflect on issues raised in texts (e.g. relationships and moral dilemmas)
- Experience and share a sense of wonder through the beauty of language used in poetry, literature and the spoken word.

### **Review**

This policy will be reviewed every two years.

Edited and agreed by the staff	
Agreed by Governors	
To be reviewed in	

## **Appendix 1: Spelling**

Most people read words more accurately than they spell them. The younger pupils are, the truer this is.

By the end of Year 1, pupils should be able to read a large number of different words containing the grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPCs) that they have learnt, whether or not they have seen these words before. Spelling, however, is a very different matter. Once pupils have learnt more than one way of spelling particular sounds, choosing the right letter or letters depends on their either having made a conscious effort to learn the words or having absorbed them less consciously through their reading. Younger pupils have not had enough time to learn or absorb the accurate spelling of all the words that they may want to write. This appendix provides examples of words embodying each pattern which is taught. Many of the words listed as 'example words' for Years 1 and 2, including almost all those listed as 'exception words', are used frequently in pupils' writing, and therefore it is worth pupils learning the correct spelling. The 'exception words' contain GPCs which have not yet been taught as widely applicable, but this may be because they are applicable in very few age-appropriate words rather than because they are rare in English words in general.

The statutory word-lists for Years 3 and 4 and Years 5 and 6 contain a mixture of words frequently used in pupils' writing and words which are often misspelt. Some of the words in these lists may be thought of as quite challenging, but the 100 words in each list can be covered in fewer than two school years if teachers simply add words each week to the words they choose for their pupils to learn.

The rules and guidelines are intended to support the teaching of spelling. Phonic knowledge should continue to underpin spelling after Key Stage 1 but, increasingly, pupils also need to understand the role of morphology and etymology. Although many root words simply have to be learnt, teachers can help pupils to understand relationships between meaning and spelling where these are relevant. For example, understanding the relationship between *medical* and *medicine* may help pupils to spell the /s/ sound in *medicine* with the letter 'c'. Pupils can also be helped to spell words with prefixes and suffixes correctly if they understand some general principles for adding them.

The spelling appendix is structured in the same way as the programmes of study: the left-hand column is statutory; the middle and right-hand columns are non-statutory guidance.

## Year 1

Work for Year 1		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
<p><b>Revision of Reception work</b></p> <p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• all grapheme-phoneme correspondences which have been taught</li> <li>• the process of segmenting spoken words into sounds before choosing graphemes to represent the sounds</li> <li>• words with adjacent consonants;</li> <li>• rules and guidelines which have been taught</li> <li>• vowel digraphs which have been taught</li> </ul>		<p>No example words are suggested because the selection will vary according to the programme used, particularly where vowel digraphs are concerned.</p>
<p><b>The sounds /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ spelt ff, ll, ss, zz and ck</b></p>	<p>The /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ sounds are usually spelt as <b>ff</b>, <b>ll</b>, <b>ss</b>, <b>zz</b> and <b>ck</b> if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words.  <b>Exceptions:</b> if, pal, us, bus, yes.</p>	<p>off, well, miss, buzz, back</p>

<b>The /ŋ/ sound spelt n before k</b>		bank, think, honk, sunk
<b>Division of words into syllables</b>	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 is unclear so the spelling of this vowel may need to be learnt.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset
<b>-tch</b>	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as <b>tch</b> if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. <b>Exceptions:</b> rich, which, much, such.	catch, fetch, kitchen, notch, hutch
<b>The /v/ sound at the end of words</b>	English words hardly ever end with the letter <b>v</b> , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter <b>e</b> usually needs to be added after the 'v'.	have, live, give
<b>Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)</b>	If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as <b>-s</b> . If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as <b>-es</b> .	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches
<b>Adding the endings -ing, -ed and -er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word</b>	<b>-ing</b> and <b>-er</b> always add an extra syllable to the word and <b>-ed</b> sometimes does. The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt <b>-ed</b> .  If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper
<b>Adding -er and -est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word</b>	As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest
<b>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</b>	Some may already be known, depending on the programmes used in reception, but some will be new. The endings <b>-ing</b> , <b>-ed</b> , <b>-er</b> and <b>-est</b> , if relevant, can be added straight on to all the words which can function as verbs or adjectives, except for those in italics.	
<b>ai</b>	The digraphs <b>ai</b> and <b>oi</b> are never used at the end of English words.	rain, wait, train, paid, afraid
<b>oi</b>		oil, join, coin, point, soil
<b>ay</b>	<b>ay</b> and <b>oy</b> are used for those sounds at the end of words	day, play, say, way, stay

<p>oy  a-e  e-e  i-e  o-e  u-e  ar  ee  ea (/i:/)  ea (/ɛ/)  er (/ɜ:/)  er (/ə/)</p> <p>ir  ur  oo  oo  oa  oe</p>	<p>and at the end of syllables.</p> <p>Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ sounds can be spelt <b>u-e</b></p> <p>Very few words end with the letters <b>oo</b>.</p> <p>The digraph <b>oa</b> is very rare at the end of an English word.</p>	<p>boy, toy, enjoy, annoy  made, came, same, take, safe  these, theme, complete  five, ride, like, time, side  home, those, woke, hope, hole  June, rule, rude, use, tube, tune  car, start, park, arm, garden  see, tree, green, meet, week  sea, dream, meat, each, read (present tense)  head, bread, meant, instead, read (past tense)  (stressed sound): her, term, verb, person  (unstressed schwa sound): better, under, summer,  winter, sister  girl, bird, shirt, first, third  turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday  food, pool, moon, zoo, soon  book, took, foot, wood, good  boat, coat, road, coach, goal  toe, goes</p>
<p>ou  ow (/aʊ/)  ow (/əʊ/)  ue  ew  ie (/aɪ/)  ie (/i:/)  igh  or  ore  aw  au</p>	<p>The only common English word ending in <b>ou</b> is <i>you</i>.</p> <p>Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ (“oo” and “yoo”) sounds can be spelt as <b>u-e</b>, <b>ue</b> and <b>ew</b>. If words end in the /oo/ sound, <b>ue</b> and <b>ew</b> are more common spellings than <b>oo</b>.</p>	<p>out, about, mouth, around, sound  now, how, brown, down, town  own, blow, snow, grow, show  blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday  new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw  lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried  chief, field, thief  high, night, light, bright, right  for, short, born, horse, morning  more, score, before, wore, shore  saw, draw, yawn, crawl  author, August, dinosaur, astronaut</p>

air ear ear (/ɛə/) are (/ɛə/)		air, fair, pair, hair, chair dear, hear, beard, near, year bear, pear, wear bare, dare, care, share, scared
<b>Words ending -y (/i:/ or /ɪ/ depending on accent)</b>		very, happy, funny, party, family
<b>New consonant spellings ph and wh</b>	The /f/ sound is not usually spelt as <b>ph</b> in short everyday words (e.g. <i>fat, fill, fun</i> ).	dolphin, alphabet, phonics, elephant when, where, which, wheel, while
<b>Using k for the /k/ sound</b>	The /k/ sound is spelt as <b>k</b> rather than as <b>c</b> before <b>e, i</b> and <b>y</b> .	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky
<b>Adding the prefix -un</b>	The prefix <b>un-</b> is added to the beginning of a word without any change to the spelling of the root word.	unhappy, undo, unload, unfair, unlock
<b>Compound words</b>	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
<b>Common exception words</b>		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

## Year 2

<b>Revision of work from Year 1</b>	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.
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<b>New work for Year 2</b>		
<b>Statutory requirements</b>	<b>Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)</b>	<b>Example words (non-statutory)</b>
<b>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</b>	The letter <b>j</b> is never used for the /dʒ/ ("dʒe") sound at the end of English words. At the end of a word, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt <b>-dge</b> straight after the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sounds (sometimes called "short" vowels). After all other sounds, whether vowels or consonants, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt as <b>-ge</b> at the end of a word. In other positions in words, the /dʒ/ sound is often (but not always) spelt as <b>g</b> before <b>e, i, and y</b> . The /dʒ/ sound is always spelt as <b>j</b> before <b>a, o</b> and <b>u</b> .	badge, edge, bridge, dodge, fudge  age, huge, change, charge, bulge, village  gem, giant, magic, giraffe, energy
<b>The /s/ sound spelt c before e, i and y</b>		race, ice, cell, city, fancy
<b>The /n/ sound spelt kn and (less often) gn at the beginning of words</b>	The 'k' and 'g' at the beginning of these words was sounded hundreds of years ago.	knock, know, knee, gnat, gnaw
<b>The /ɹ/ sound spelt wr at the beginning of words</b>	This spelling probably also reflects an old pronunciation.	write, written, wrote, wrong, wrap
<b>The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt -le at the end of words</b>	The <b>-le</b> spelling is the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	table, apple, bottle, little, middle
<b>The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt -el at the end of words</b>	The <b>-el</b> spelling is much less common than <b>-le</b> . The <b>-el</b> spelling is used after <b>m, n, r, s, v, w</b> .	camel, tunnel, squirrel, tinsel, travel, towel
<b>The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt -al at the end of words</b>	Not many nouns end in <b>-al</b> , but many adjectives do.	metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal
<b>Words ending -il</b>	There are not many of these words.	pencil, fossil, nostril
<b>The /aɪ/ sound spelt -y at the end of words</b>	This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July

<b>Adding -es to nouns and verbs ending in consonant-letter-y</b>	The <b>y</b> is changed to <b>i</b> before <b>-es</b> is added.	flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries
<b>Adding -ed, -ing, -er and -est to root words ending in consonant-letter-y</b>	The <b>y</b> is changed to <b>i</b> before <b>-ed</b> , <b>-er</b> and <b>-est</b> are added, but not before <b>-ing</b> as this would result in <b>ii</b> . The only ordinary words with <b>ii</b> are <i>skiing</i> and <i>taxiing</i> .	copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied ... <b>but</b> copying, crying, replying
<b>Adding the endings -ing, -ed, -er, -est and -y to words ending in vowel-letter-consonant-letter-e</b>	The <b>-e</b> at the end of the root word is dropped before <b>-ing</b> , <b>-ed</b> , <b>-er</b> , <b>-est</b> , <b>-y</b> or any other suffix beginning with a vowel letter is added.	hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny
<b>Adding -ing, -ed, -er, -est and -y to words of one syllable ending in a single consonant letter after a single vowel letter</b>	The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel 'short'). <b>Exception:</b> 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
<b>The /ɔ:/ sound spelt a before l and ll</b>	The /ɔ:/ sound ("or") is usually spelt as <b>a</b> before <b>l</b> and <b>ll</b> .	all, ball, call, walk, talk, always
<b>The /ʌ/ sound spelt o</b>		other, mother, brother, nothing, Monday
<b>The /i:/ sound spelt -ey</b>	The plural of these words is formed by the addition of <b>-s</b> ( <i>donkeys</i> , <i>monkeys</i> etc.).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley
<b>The /ɒ/ sound spelt a after w and qu</b>	<b>a</b> is the most common spelling for the /ɒ/ ("hot") sound after <b>w</b> and <b>qu</b> .	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash
<b>The /ɜ:/ sound spelt or after w</b>	Very few words spell the /ɜ:/ sound ("b <u>u</u> rn") this way.	word, work, worm, world, worth
<b>The /ɔ:/ sound spelt ar after w</b>	Very few words spell the /ɔ:/ sound ("or") this way.	war, warm, towards
<b>The /ɜ/ sound spelt s</b>		television, treasure, usual
<b>The suffixes -ment, -ness, -ful and -less</b>	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. <b>Exceptions:</b> (1) <i>argument</i> (2) root words ending in a consonant letter followed by <b>y</b> – see above.	enjoyment, sadness, careful, playful, hopeless, plainness (plain + ness)
<b>Contractions</b>	In contractions, the apostrophe shows where a letter or	can't, didn't, hasn't, couldn't, it's, I'll

	<p>letters would be if the words were written in full (e.g. <i>can't</i> – <i>cannot</i>).</p> <p><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.</p>	
<b>The possessive apostrophe (singular nouns)</b>		Megan's, Ravi's, the girl's, the child's, the man's
<b>Words ending in -tion</b>		station, fiction, motion, national, section
<b>Homophones and near-homophones</b>	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
<b>Common exception words</b>	<p>Some words are exceptions in some accents but not in others – e.g. <i>past</i>, <i>last</i>, <i>fast</i>, <i>path</i> and <i>bath</i> are not exceptions in accents where the <b>a</b> in these words is pronounced /æ/, as in <i>cat</i>.</p> <p><i>Great</i>, <i>break</i> and <i>steak</i> are the only common words where the /eɪ/ sound is spelt <b>ea</b>.</p> <p>Note 'children' is not an exception, but is included for convenience with 'child'.</p>	<p>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.</p>

## Years 3 and 4

<b>Revision of work from Years 1 and 2</b>	Pay special attention to the rules for adding suffixes.
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<b>New work for Years 3 and 4</b>		
<b>Statutory requirements</b>	<b>Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)</b>	<b>Example words (non-statutory)</b>
<b>Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words of more than one syllable</b>	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
<b>The /ɪ/ sound spelt y elsewhere than at the end of words</b>	These words should be learnt as needed.	myth, gym, Egypt, pyramid, mystery
<b>The /ʌ/ sound spelt ou</b>	These words should be learnt as needed.	young, touch, double, trouble, country
<b>More prefixes</b>	<p>Most prefixes are added to the beginning of root words without any changes in spelling, but see <b>in-</b> below. Like <b>un-</b>, the prefixes <b>dis-</b> and <b>mis-</b> have negative meanings.</p> <p>The prefix <b>in-</b> can mean both 'not' and 'in'/'into'. In the words given here it means 'not'. Before a root word starting with <b>l</b>, <b>in-</b> becomes <b>il</b> Before a root word starting with <b>m</b> or <b>p</b>, <b>in-</b> becomes <b>im-</b>. Before a root word starting with <b>r</b>, <b>in-</b> becomes <b>ir-</b>. <b>re-</b> means 'again' or 'back'. <b>sub-</b> means 'under'. <b>inter-</b> means 'between' or 'among'.</p> <p><b>super-</b> means 'above'. <b>anti-</b> means 'against'. <b>auto-</b> means 'self' or 'own'.</p>	<p><b>dis-, mis-, in-</b> disappoint, disagree, disobey misbehave, mislead, misspell (mis + spell)</p> <p>inactive, incorrect</p> <p>illegal, illegible immature, immortal, impossible, impatient, imperfect irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible <b>re-</b>: redo, refresh, return, reappear, redecorate <b>sub-</b>: subdivide, subheading, submarine, submerge <b>inter-</b>: interact, intercity, international, interrelated (inter + related) <b>super-</b>: supermarket, superman, superstar</p>

		<b>anti-</b> : antiseptic, anti-clockwise, antidote <b>auto-</b> : automatic, autograph
<b>The suffix -ation</b>	The suffix <b>-ation</b> is added to verbs to form nouns. The rules already learnt still apply.	information, adoration, sensation, preparation, admiration

<p><b>The suffix -ly</b></p>	<p>The suffix <b>-ly</b> is added to an adjective to form an adverb. The rules already learnt still apply.</p> <p>The <b>-ly</b> suffix starts with a consonant letter, so it is added straight on to most root words unless they end with <b>y</b>. If the root word ends with <b>y</b>, the <b>y</b> is changed to <b>i</b>.</p> <p><b>Exceptions:</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. If the root word ends with <b>-le</b>, the <b>-le</b> is changed to <b>-ly</b>.</li> <li>2. If the root word ends with <b>-ic</b>, <b>-ally</b> is added rather than just <b>-ly</b>, except in the word <i>publicly</i>.</li> <li>3. The words <i>truly, duly, wholly</i>.</li> </ol>	<p>sadly, completely, usually (usual + ly), finally (final + ly), comically (comical + ly) happily, angrily</p> <p>gently, simply, humbly, nobly basically, frantically, dramatically</p>
<p><b>Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/</b></p>	<p>The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt <b>-sure</b>.</p> <p>The ending sounding like /tʃə/ is often spelt <b>-ture</b>, but check that the word is not a root word ending in <b>(t)ch</b> with an <b>er</b> ending, e.g. <i>teacher, catcher, richer, stretcher</i>.</p>	<p>measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure</p> <p>creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure</p>
<p><b>Endings which sound like /ʒən/</b></p>	<p>If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as <b>-sion</b>.</p>	<p>division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television</p>
<p><b>The suffix -ous</b></p>	<p>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.</p> <p><b>-our</b> is changed to <b>-or</b> before <b>-ous</b> is added. A final 'e' must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of 'g' is to be kept.</p> <p>If there is an /i:/ sound before the <b>-ous</b> ending, it is usually spelt as <b>i</b>, but a few words have <b>e</b>.</p>	<p>poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various</p> <p>tremendous, enormous, jealous</p> <p>humorous, glamorous, vigorous courageous, outrageous</p> <p>serious, obvious, curious hideous, spontaneous, courteous</p>
<p><b>Endings which sound like /ʃən/, spelt -tion, -sion, -ssion, -cian</b></p>	<p>Strictly speaking, the endings are <b>-ion</b> and <b>-ian</b>. Clues about whether to put <b>t, s, ss</b> or <b>c</b> before these endings often come from the last letter or letters of the root word.</p> <p><b>-tion</b> is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in <b>t</b> (invent) or <b>te</b> (hesitate).</p> <p><b>-ssion</b> is used if the root word ends in <b>ss</b> or <b>-mit</b>.</p>	<p>invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion</p>

	<p><b>-sion</b> is used if the root word ends in <b>d</b> or <b>se</b>.  <b>Exceptions:</b> attend – attention, intend – intention  <b>-cian</b> is used if the root word ends in <b>c</b> or <b>cs</b>.</p>	<p>expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission  expansion, extension, comprehension, tension    musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician</p>
<b>Words with the /k/ sound spelt ch (Greek in origin)</b>		<p>scheme, chorus, chemist, echo, character</p>

<b>Words with the /ʃ/ sound spelt ch (mostly French in origin)</b>		chef, chalet, machine, brochure
<b>Words ending with the /g/ sound spelt -gue and the /k/ sound spelt -que (French in origin)</b>		league, tongue, antique, unique
<b>Words with the /s/ sound spelt sc (Latin in origin)</b>		science, scene, discipline, fascinate, crescent
<b>Words with the /eɪ/ sound spelt ei, eigh, or ey</b>		vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey
<b>Possessive apostrophe with plural words</b>	The apostrophe is placed after the plural form of the word; <b>-s</b> is not added if the plural already ends in <b>-s</b> , but is added if the plural does not end in <b>-s</b> (i.e. is an irregular plural – e.g. <i>children's</i> ).	girls', boys', babies', children's, men's, mice's (Note: singular proper nouns ending in an s use the 's suffix e.g. Cyprus's population.)
<b>Homophones or near-homophones</b>		accept/except, affect/effect, ball/bawl, berry/bury, brake/break, fair/fare, grate/great, groan/grown, here/hear, heel/heal/he'll, knot/not, mail/male, main/mane, meat/meet, medal/meddle, missed/mist, peace/piece, plain/plane, rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether, whose/who's

## Word list for Years 3 and 4

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

Many root words simply need to be learnt, but once they are learnt, and the rules and guidelines for adding prefixes and suffixes are known, many longer words can be spelt correctly. Examples:

*business* (**busy + ness**, with the **y** of **busy** changed to **i** according to the rule).

*disappear* (just add **dis-** to **appear**).

Understanding 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**.

## Years 5 and 6

### Revise work done in previous years

New work for Years 5 and 6		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
<b>Endings which sound like /ʃəs/ spelt -cious or -tious</b>	Not many common words end like this. If the root word ends in <b>-ce</b> , the /ʃ/ sound is usually spelt as <b>c</b> – e.g. <i>vice</i> – <i>vicious</i> , <i>grace</i> – <i>gracious</i> , <i>space</i> – <i>spacious</i> , <i>malice</i> – <i>malicious</i> . <b>Exception:</b> <i>anxious</i>	vicious, precious, conscious, delicious, malicious, suspicious ambitious, cautious, fictitious, infectious, nutritious
<b>Endings which sound like /ʃəl/</b>	<b>-cial</b> is common after a vowel letter and <b>-tial</b> after a consonant letter, but there are some exceptions. <b>Exceptions:</b> initial, financial, commercial, provincial (the spelling of the last three is clearly related to <i>finance</i> , <i>commerce</i> and <i>province</i> ).	official, special, artificial, partial, confidential, essential
<b>Words ending in -ant, -ance/-ancy, -ent, -ence/-ency</b>	Use <b>-ant</b> and <b>-ance/-ancy</b> if there is a related word with a /æ/ or /eɪ/ sound in the right position; <b>-ation</b> endings are often a clue.  Use <b>-ent</b> and <b>-ence/-ency</b> after soft <b>c</b> (/s/ sound), soft <b>g</b> (/dʒ/ sound) and <b>qu</b> , or if there is a related word with a clear /ɛ/ sound in the right position.  There are many words, however, where the above guidelines don't help. These words just have to be learnt.	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)  innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confidential)  assistant, assistance, obedient, obedience, independent, independence
<b>Words ending in -able and -ible</b>	The <b>-able</b> ending is far more common than the <b>-ible</b> ending.  As with <b>-ant</b> and <b>-ance/-ancy</b> , the <b>-able</b> ending is used if there is a related word ending in <b>-ation</b> . If the <b>-able</b> ending is added to a word ending in <b>-ce</b> or <b>-ge</b> , the <b>e</b> after the <b>c</b> or <b>g</b> must be kept as those letters would	adorable (adoration), applicable (application), considerable (consideration), tolerable (toleration)  changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible

	<p>otherwise have their 'hard' sounds (as in <i>cap</i> and <i>gap</i>) before the <b>a</b> of the <b>-able</b> ending.</p> <p>The <b>-able</b> 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 <b>-ation</b>. The first five examples opposite are obvious; in <i>reliable</i>, the complete word <i>rely</i> is heard, but the <b>y</b> changes to <b>i</b> in accordance with the rule. The <b>-ible</b> ending is common if a complete root word can't be heard before it but it also sometimes occurs when a complete word can be heard (e.g. <i>sensible</i>).</p>	<p>dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable</p> <p>possible, horrible, terrible, visible, incredible, sensible</p>
<p><b>Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words ending in -fer</b></p>	<p>The <b>r</b> is doubled if the <b>-fer</b> is still stressed when the ending is added.</p> <p>The <b>r</b> is not doubled if the <b>-fer</b> is no longer stressed.</p>	<p>referring, referred, referral, preferring, preferred, transferring, transferred</p> <p>reference, referee, preference, transference</p>
<p><b>Use of the hyphen</b></p>	<p>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.</p>	<p>co-ordinate, re-enter, co-operate, co-own</p>
<p><b>Words with the /i:/ sound spelt ei after c</b></p>	<p>The 'i before e except after c' rule applies to words where the sound spelt by <b>ei</b> is /i:/. Exceptions: <i>protein</i>, <i>caffeine</i>, <i>seize</i> (and <i>either</i> and <i>neither</i> if pronounced with an initial /i:/ sound).</p>	<p>deceive, conceive, receive, perceive, ceiling</p>
<p><b>Words containing the letter-string ough</b></p>	<p><b>ough</b> is one of the trickiest spellings in English – it can be used to spell a number of different sounds.</p>	<p>ought, bought, thought, nought, brought, fought</p> <p>rough, tough, enough</p> <p>cough</p> <p>though, although, dough</p> <p>through</p> <p>thorough, borough</p> <p>plough</p>
<p><b>Words with 'silent' letters (i.e. letters whose presence cannot be predicted from the pronunciation of the word)</b></p>	<p>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 <b>gh</b> used to represent the sound that 'ch' now represents in the Scottish word <i>loch</i>.</p>	<p>doubt, island, lamb, solemn, thistle, knight</p>

<p><b>Homophones and other words that are often confused</b></p>	<p>In these pairs of words, nouns end <b>-ce</b> and verbs end <b>-se</b>. <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 <b>c</b>.</p> <p>aisle: a gangway between seats (in a church, train, plane) isle: an island</p> <p>aloud: out loud allowed: permitted</p> <p>affect: usually a verb (e.g. <i>The weather may affect our plans.</i>) effect: usually a noun (e.g. <i>It may have an effect on our plans.</i>). If a verb, it means 'bring about' (e.g. <i>He will effect changes in the running of the business.</i>).</p> <p>altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church alter: to change</p> <p>ascent: the act of ascending (going up) assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun)</p> <p>bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse</p> <p>cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal) serial: adjective from the noun <i>series</i> – a succession of things one after the other</p> <p>compliment: to make nice remarks about someone (verb) or the remark that is made (noun) complement: related to the word <i>complete</i> – to make something complete or more complete (e.g. <i>her scarf complemented her outfit</i>)</p>	<p>advice/advise device/devise licence/license practice/practise prophecy/prophesy eligible: suitable to be chosen or elected illegible: not legible (i.e. unreadable)</p> <p>eliminate: get rid of/exclude illuminate: light up</p> <p>farther: further father: a male parent</p> <p>guessed: past tense of the verb <i>guess</i> guest: visitor</p> <p>heard: past tense of the verb <i>hear</i> herd: a group of animals</p> <p>led: past tense of the verb <i>lead</i> lead: present tense of that verb, or else the metal which is very heavy (<i>as heavy as lead</i>) morning: before noon mourning: grieving for someone who has died</p> <p>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>)</p> <p>precede: go in front of or before proceed: go on</p> <p>principal: adjective – most important (e.g. <i>principal</i>)</p>
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	<p>descent: the act of descending (going down)  dissent: to disagree/disagreement (verb and noun)</p> <p>desert: as a noun – a barren place (stress on first syllable); as a verb – to abandon (stress on second syllable)  dessert: (stress on second syllable) a sweet course after the main course of a meal</p> <p>disinterested: not having a personal stake in the matter (a World Cup referee must be disinterested – i.e. must not be from one of the countries playing in the match)  uninterested: not interested, bored (a referee should be interested, not uninterested, in football)</p> <p>draft: noun – a first attempt at writing something; verb – to make the first attempt; also, to draw in someone (e.g. <i>to draft in extra help</i>)  draught: a current of air</p>	<p><i>ballerina</i>) noun – important person (e.g. <i>principal of a college</i>)  principle: basic truth or belief</p> <p>profit: money that is made in selling things  prophet: someone who foretells the future</p> <p>stationary: not moving  stationery: paper, envelopes etc.</p> <p>steal: take something that does not belong to you  steel: metal</p> <p>wary: cautious  weary: tired</p> <p>who's: contraction of <i>who is</i> or <i>who has</i>  whose: belonging to someone (e.g. <i>Whose jacket is that?</i>)</p>
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## Word list for Years 5 and 6

accommodate	communicate	environment	individual	prejudice	sufficient
accompany	community	equip (-ped, -ment)	interfere	privilege	suggest
according	competition	especially	interrupt	profession	symbol
achieve	conscience*	exaggerate	language	programme	system
aggressive	conscious*	excellent	leisure	pronunciation	temperature
amateur	controversy	existence	lightning	queue	thorough
ancient	convenience	explanation	marvellous	recognise	twelfth
apparent	correspond	familiar	mischievous	recommend	variety
appreciate	criticise (critic + ise)	foreign	muscle	relevant	vegetable
attached	curiosity	forty	necessary	restaurant	vehicle
available	definite	frequently	neighbour	rhyme	yacht
average	desperate	government	nuisance	rhythm	
awkward	determined	guarantee	occupy	sacrifice	
bargain	develop	harass	occur	secretary	
bruise	dictionary	hindrance	opportunity	shoulder	
category	disastrous	identity	parliament	sincere(ly)	
cemetery	embarrass	immediate(ly)	persuade	soldier	
committee			physical	stomach	

Many of these words can be used for practice in adding suffixes.

\**Conscience* and *conscious* are related to *science* – all come from the Latin word meaning 'to know'. *Conscience* is simply *science* with the prefix *con-* added. *Conscious* also contains the 'sci' of *science*.

## **Appendix 2: Grammar and punctuation**

The grammar of our first language is learnt naturally and implicitly through interactions with other speakers and from reading. Explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language. Building this knowledge is best achieved through a focus on grammar within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking. Once pupils have been introduced to a grammatical concept, they should be encouraged to apply their learning by using that grammar in their own speech and writing and noting where it is used in the speech and writing of others. Young pupils, in particular, use more complex language in speech than in writing, and teachers should build on this, aiming for a smooth transition to sophisticated writing.

The table below focuses on Standard English and should be read in conjunction with the programme of study as it sets out statutory requirements. The table shows when concepts should be introduced first, not necessarily when they should be completely understood. It is very important, therefore, that the content in earlier years be revisited in subsequent years to consolidate knowledge and build on pupils' understanding. Teachers should also go beyond the content set out here if they feel it is appropriate.

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are set out in the final column. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice. All terms in **bold** should be understood with the meanings set out in the glossary.

## Years 1 to 6

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
1	<p>Regular <b>plural noun suffixes</b> –s or –es (e.g. <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>)</p> <p><b>Suffixes</b> that can be added to <b>verbs</b> (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>)</p> <p>How the <b>prefix un-</b> changes the meaning of <b>verbs</b> and <b>adjectives</b> (negation, e.g. <i>unkind</i>, or undoing, e.g. <i>untie the boat</i>)</p>	<p>How <b>words</b> can combine to make <b>sentences</b></p> <p>Joining <b>words</b> and joining <b>sentences</b> using <i>and</i></p>	<p>Sequencing <b>sentences</b> to form short narratives</p>	<p>Separation of <b>words</b> with spaces</p> <p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate <b>sentences</b></p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal <b>pronoun I</b></p>	<p>word, sentence, letter, capital letter, full stop, punctuation, singular, plural, question mark, exclamation mark</p>
2	<p>Formation of <b>nouns</b> using <b>suffixes</b> such as –ness, –er</p> <p>Formation of <b>adjectives</b> using <b>suffixes</b> such as –ful, –less (A fuller list of <b>suffixes</b> can be found in the Year 2 spelling appendix.)</p> <p>Use of the <b>suffixes</b> –er and –est to form comparisons of <b>adjectives</b> and <b>adverbs</b></p>	<p><b>Subordination</b> (using <i>when, if, that, or because</i>) and <b>co-ordination</b> (using <i>or, and, or but</i>)</p> <p>Expanded <b>noun phrases</b> for description and specification (e.g. <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i>)</p> <p><b>Sentences</b> with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command</p>	<p>Correct choice and consistent use of <b>present tense</b> and <b>past tense</b> throughout writing</p> <p>Use of the <b>continuous</b> form of <b>verbs</b> in the <b>present</b> and <b>past tense</b> to mark actions in progress (e.g. <i>she is drumming, he was shouting</i>)</p>	<p>Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate <b>sentences</b></p> <p>Commas to separate items in a list</p> <p><b>Apostrophes</b> to mark contracted forms in spelling</p>	<p>verb, tense (past, present), adjective, noun, suffix, apostrophe, comma</p>

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
3	<p>Formation of <b>nouns</b> using a range of <b>prefixes</b>, such as <i>super-</i>, <i>anti-</i>, <i>auto-</i></p> <p>Use of the <b>determiners</b> <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> according to whether the next <b>word</b> begins with a <b>consonant</b> or a <b>vowel</b> (e.g. <u>a</u> rock, <u>an</u> open box)</p> <p><b>Word families</b> based on common <b>words</b></p>	<p>Expressing time and cause using <b>conjunctions</b> (e.g. <i>when, so, before, after, while, because</i>), <b>adverbs</b> (e.g. <i>then, next, soon, therefore, or</i>) and <b>prepositions</b> (e.g. <i>before, after, during, in, because of</i>)</p>	<p>Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material</p> <p>Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation</p> <p>Use of the <b>perfect</b> form of <b>verbs</b> to mark relationships of time and cause (e.g. <i>I have written it down so we can check what he said.</i>)</p>	<p>Introduction to inverted commas to <b>punctuate</b> direct speech</p>	<p>word family, conjunction, adverb, preposition, direct speech, inverted commas (or "speech marks"), prefix, consonant, vowel, consonant letter, vowel letter, clause, subordinate clause</p>
4	<p>The grammatical difference between <b>plural</b> and <b>possessive -s</b></p> <p>Standard English forms for <b>verb inflections</b> instead of local spoken forms (e.g. <i>we were</i> instead of <i>we was</i>, or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i>)</p>	<p>Appropriate choice of <b>pronoun</b> or <b>noun</b> within a <b>sentence</b> to avoid ambiguity and repetition</p> <p><b>Fronted adverbials</b> (e.g. <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>)</p>	<p>Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme</p> <p>Appropriate choice of <b>pronoun</b> or <b>noun</b> across <b>sentences</b> to aid cohesion and avoid repetition</p>	<p>Use of inverted commas to <b>punctuate</b> direct speech</p> <p><b>Apostrophes</b> to mark singular and <b>plural</b> possession (e.g. <i>the girl's name, the boys' boots</i>)</p> <p>Use of commas after <b>fronted adverbials</b></p>	<p>pronoun, possessive pronoun, adverbial</p>
5	<p>Converting <b>nouns</b> or <b>adjectives</b> into <b>verbs</b> using <b>suffixes</b> (e.g. <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>)</p> <p><b>Verb prefixes</b> (e.g. <i>dis-, de-, mis-, over-</i> and <i>re-</i>)</p>	<p><b>Relative clauses</b> beginning with <i>who, which, where, why, whose, that</i>, or an omitted relative pronoun</p>	<p>Devices to build <b>cohesion</b> within a paragraph (e.g. <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>)</p> <p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using</p>	<p>Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis</p> <p>Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity</p>	<p>relative clause, modal verb, relative pronoun, parenthesis, bracket, dash, determiner, cohesion, ambiguity</p>

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
	)	Indicating degrees of possibility using <b>modal verbs</b> (e.g. <i>might, should, will, must</i> ) or <b>adverbs</b> (e.g. <i>perhaps, surely</i> )	<b>adverbials</b> of time (e.g. <i>later</i> ), place (e.g. <i>nearby</i> ) and number (e.g. <i>secondly</i> )		

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
6	<p>The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing (e.g. <i>said</i> versus <i>reported</i>, <i>alleged</i>, or <i>claimed</i> in formal speech or writing)</p>	<p>Use of the <b>passive voice</b> to affect the presentation of information in a <b>sentence</b> (e.g. <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse</i> versus <i>The window in the greenhouse was broken</i>)</p> <p>Expanded <b>noun phrases</b> to convey complicated information concisely (e.g. <i>the boy that jumped over the fence is over there</i>, or <i>the fact that it was raining meant the end of sports day</i>)</p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (such as the use of question tags, e.g. <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i>, or the use of the <b>subjunctive</b> in some very formal writing and speech)</p>	<p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of <b>cohesive devices</b>: semantic <b>cohesion</b> (e.g. repetition of a <b>word</b> or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of <b>adverbials</b> such as <i>on the other hand</i>, <i>in contrast</i>, or <i>as a consequence</i>), and <b>ellipsis</b></p> <p>Layout devices, such as headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text</p>	<p>Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent <b>clauses</b> (e.g. <i>It's raining; I'm fed up.</i>)</p> <p>Use of the colon to introduce a list</p> <p><b>Punctuation</b> of bullet points to list information</p> <p>How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (e.g. <i>man eating shark</i> versus <i>man-eating shark</i>, or <i>recover</i> versus <i>re-cover</i>)</p>	<p>active and passive voice, subject and object, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points, synonym and antonym</p>

## Phonemic transcription examples using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

Vowels							
ʌ	<u>b</u> ut, c <u>u</u> p	ɜ:	sh <u>ir</u> t, b <u>ur</u> n	ʊ	p <u>u</u> ll, sh <u>ou</u> ld	əʊ	sh <u>ow</u> , g <u>o</u>
a:	<u>a</u> rm, b <u>a</u> r	ɪ	s <u>i</u> t, f <u>itt</u> ing	u:	gl <u>ue</u> , f <u>oo</u> d	ɔɪ	b <u>oy</u> , j <u>oi</u> n
æ	c <u>a</u> t, n <u>a</u> p	i:	b <u>ee</u> , b <u>ea</u> t	aɪ	l <u>ie</u> , s <u>ky</u>	ɛə	f <u>a</u> re, <u>a</u> ir
ɛ	l <u>e</u> t, b <u>e</u> d	ɒ	n <u>o</u> t, l <u>o</u> ck	aʊ	c <u>ow</u> , sh <u>ou</u> t	ɪə	h <u>e</u> re, <u>e</u> ar
ə	<u>a</u> lone, <u>u</u> pon	ɔ:	c <u>a</u> ll, l <u>a</u> w	eɪ	<u>e</u> ight, s <u>a</u> y	ʊə	s <u>u</u> re, t <u>ou</u> r

Consonants							
b	<u>b</u> all, d <u>a</u> b	k	<u>c</u> at, l <u>u</u> ck	ɹ	r <u>ea</u> d, c <u>r</u> y	ð	<u>th</u> e, f <u>ath</u> er
d	<u>d</u> o, sh <u>a</u> de	l	<u>l</u> it, s <u>il</u> ly	s	<u>s</u> ee, k <u>iss</u>	v	<u>v</u> ase, <u>a</u> live
f	<u>f</u> all, <u>i</u> f	m	<u>m</u> an, <u>i</u> mp	ʃ	<u>sh</u> e, st <u>ash</u>	w	<u>w</u> all, <u>w</u> indow
g	<u>g</u> o, s <u>a</u> g	n	<u>n</u> o, <u>o</u> n	t	<u>t</u> oo, s <u>e</u> t	z	<u>z</u> oo, c <u>r</u> azy
h	<u>h</u> ave, <u>h</u> old	ŋ	<u>r</u> ing, f <u>ing</u> er	tʃ	<u>ch</u> ea <u>p</u> , <u>it</u> ch	ʒ	mea <u>s</u> ure, telev <u>is</u> ion
j	<u>y</u> es, <u>y</u> ank	p	<u>p</u> al, s <u>to</u> p	θ	<u>th</u> istle, b <u>o</u> th	dʒ	<u>j</u> am, b <u>ar</u> ge

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

The following glossary includes all the technical grammatical terms used in the programmes of study for English at Key Stages 1 and 2. It is intended as an aid for teachers, not as the body of knowledge that should be learnt by pupils. Apart from a few which are used only in schools (e.g. *connective*, *root word*), the terms below are used with the meanings defined here in most modern books on English grammar. For further details, teachers should consult the many books that are available.

#### **Terms in definitions**

As in any tightly structured area of knowledge, grammar and spelling involve a network of technical concepts that help to define each other. Consequently, the definition of one concept builds on other concepts that are equally technical. Concepts that are defined elsewhere in the glossary appear in [blue](#), and are hyperlinked. For some concepts, the technical definition may be slightly different from the meaning that some teachers may have learnt at school themselves; in these cases, the more familiar meaning is also discussed.

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

<b>adverbial</b>	<p>An adverbial is a word or phrase that makes the meaning of a <a href="#">verb</a> more specific (i.e. it <a href="#">modifies</a> the verb).</p> <p>Of course, <a href="#">adverbs</a> can be used as an adverbial, but many types of words and phrases can be used this way, including <a href="#">preposition</a> phrases and <a href="#">subordinate clauses</a>.</p>	<p><i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies leaves]</p> <p><i>Alex forgot <u>to buy Easter eggs</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial: modifies forgot]</p> <p><i>Priscila complained <u>constantly</u>.</i> [adverb: modifies complained]</p>
<b>apostrophe</b>	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>)</li> <li>• showing possession (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>).</li> </ul>	<p><i>I'm going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters]</p> <p><i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [showing possession]</p>
<b>article</b>	<p>The articles are <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite). Articles are a type of <a href="#">determiner</a>.</p>	<p><i>The dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i></p>
<b>auxiliary verb</b>	<p>The auxiliary verbs are <i>be</i>, <i>have</i> and <i>do</i>, plus all the <a href="#">modal verbs</a>. They can all be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>be</i> is used in the <a href="#">continuous</a> and <a href="#">passive</a></li> <li>• <i>have</i> is used in the <a href="#">perfect</a></li> <li>• <i>do</i> is used to make questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present.</li> </ul>	<p><i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [be used in the continuous]</p> <p><i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [have used to make a question, and the perfect]</p> <p><i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [do used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]</p> <p><i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb will used to make a question]</p>

<b>clause</b>	<p>A clause is a special type of <a href="#">phrase</a>, whose main word (or “head”) is a <a href="#">verb</a> that describes an event or state of affairs. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a <a href="#">finite verb</a>, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><u>Eleni's mother was out</u> so Eleni was left in charge.</p> <p><u>Eleni's mother went out</u> so <u>Eleni was left in charge</u>.</p> <p>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>. [non-finite clause]</p>
<b>cohesion</b>	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <a href="#">Cohesive devices</a> can help to do this.</p> <p>In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different colours and underlines), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p><u>A visit</u> has been arranged for Year 6, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. <u>This is an overnight visit</u>. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <u>a nature trail</u>. During the afternoon, the children will follow <u>the trail</u>.</p>
<b>cohesive device</b>	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <a href="#">cohesion</a>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <a href="#">determiners</a> and <a href="#">pronouns</a>, which can refer back to earlier words</li> <li>• <a href="#">prepositions</a>, <a href="#">conjunctions</a> and <a href="#">adverbs</a>, which can make relations between words clear</li> <li>• <a href="#">ellipsis</a> of expected words.</li> </ul>	<p>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The</u> football was expensive! [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park. [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p>Where are you going? [ ] To school! [ellipsis of the expected words I'm going; links the answer back to the question]</p>

<b>complement</b>	<p>A <a href="#">verb</a>'s complement adds more information about the verb's subject (or, in some cases, its object).</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>Today is <u>Wednesday</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>today</i>]</p> <p><i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>
<b>conjunction</b>	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <a href="#">co-ordinating</a> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair</li> <li>• subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a <a href="#">subordinate clause</a>.</li> </ul>	<p><i>James bought a top <u>and</u> gloves.</i> [links the words <i>top</i> and <i>gloves</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Ali is strong <u>but</u> he is also very fast.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
<b>connective</b>	<p>This is an informal name for words that connect the ideas expressed in different <a href="#">clauses</a>; connectives may be <a href="#">prepositions</a>, <a href="#">conjunctions</a> or <a href="#">adverbs</a>.</p>	<p><i>It rained on sports day, <u>so</u> we had to run <u>without</u> worrying <u>about</u> getting wet, <u>but</u> it was great fun <u>because</u> we got really muddy.</i></p>
<b>consonant</b>	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <a href="#">vowel</a> sounds.</p>	<p>/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]</p> <p>/t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released]</p> <p>/f/ [flow of air obstructed by the top teeth touching the bottom lip]</p> <p>/s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]</p>

<p><b>continuous</b></p>	<p>The continuous (also known as the “progressive”) form of a verb generally describes actions in progress. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• taking the <i>-ing</i> form of the verb (e.g. <i>singing</i>, <i>reading</i>)</li> <li>• adding the verb <i>be</i> before it (e.g. <i>he was reading</i>).</li> </ul> <p>The continuous can also be combined with the <a href="#">perfect</a> (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present continuous]</p> <p><i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past continuous]</p> <p><i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect continuous]</p>
<p><b>co-ordinate, co-ordination</b></p>	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating <a href="#">conjunction</a> (e.g. <i>and</i>).</p> <p>In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in the same colour, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and <a href="#">subordination</a> is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><i><b>Susan</b> <u>and</u> <b>Amra</b> met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i><b>They talked</b> <u>and</u> <b>drank tea</b> for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i><b>Susan got a bus</b> <u>but</u> <b>Amra walked</b>.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>

<b>determiner</b>	<p>A determiner <a href="#">modifies</a> a noun, but it goes before any other modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <a href="#">articles</a> (<i>the, a or an</i>)</li> <li>• demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>)</li> <li>• <a href="#">possessives</a> (e.g. <i>my, your</i>)</li> <li>• quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>)</li> <li>• numerals (e.g. <i>thirty-one</i>)</li> </ul>	<p><i><u>the</u> best team</i> [article]  <i><u>that</u> pupil</i> [demonstrative]  <i><u>Julia's</u> parents</i> [possessive]  <i><u>some</u> boys</i> [quantifier]  <i><u>eleven</u> strong players</i> [numeral]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>best <u>the</u> team</i>                      <i>strong <u>eleven</u> players</i>  [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
<b>digraph</b>	<p>A type of <a href="#">grapheme</a> where two letters represent one <a href="#">phoneme</a>.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>ea</u>ch is pronounced /i:/.  The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>sh</u>ed is pronounced /ʃ/.  The split digraph <u>i</u><u>e</u> in <u>li</u><u>n</u>e is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
<b>ellipsis</b>	<p>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</p>	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <del>she</del> watched her drive away.</i>  <i>She did it because she wanted to <del>do it</del>.</i></p>
<b>etymology</b>	<p>A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed.</p>	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word σχολή (<i>skholé</i>) meaning "leisure".</p>

<b>finite verb</b>	<p>Finite verbs can stand on their own as the only verb in a sentence. They can be in the present tense, the past tense, or imperatives.</p> <p>Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they depend on another verb in the sentence.</p>	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]  <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense]  <i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs:  <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>have</i>]  <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>will</i>]  <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>want</i>]</p>
<b>fronting, fronted</b>	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the <a href="#">verb</a> may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been “fronted”. For example, a fronted adverbial is an <a href="#">adverbial</a> which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i>  [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.</i>  [Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
<b>future</b>	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense <a href="#">verb</a>.</p> <p>See also <a href="#">tense</a>.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct “future tense” form of the verb comparable with its <a href="#">present</a> and <a href="#">past</a> tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]  <i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]  <i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p>
<b>GPC</b>	See <a href="#">grapheme-phoneme correspondences</a> .	

<b>grapheme</b>	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single <a href="#">phoneme</a> within a word.	The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>t</u> en, be <u>t</u> and a <u>t</u> e corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <u>ph</u> in corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
<b>grapheme-phoneme correspondences</b>	The links between letters, or combinations of letters, ( <a href="#">graphemes</a> ) and the speech sounds ( <a href="#">phonemes</a> ) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme s corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>s</u> ee, but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word ea <u>s</u> y.
<b>homograph</b>	Two different words are homographs if they look exactly the same when written.	<i>A female pig is called a <u>sow</u>. The farmer has to <u>sow</u> the seeds. This animal is called a <u>bear</u>. I can't <u>bear</u> to look at it!</i>
<b>homonym</b>	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>. The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
<b>homophone</b>	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u> <u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>
<b>infinitive</b>	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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• after to</li> <li>• after <a href="#">modal verbs</a>.</li> </ul>	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>. I will be <u>quiet</u>.</i>

<b>inflection</b>	<p>Inflection is a change ('bending') of <a href="#">morphology</a> which signals a special grammatical classification of the word.</p> <p>Inflection is sometimes thought of as a change of ending, but, in fact, some words can have all their parts inflected.</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> is the plural inflection of <i>dog</i>.</p> <p><i>went</i> is the past-tense inflection of <i>go</i>.</p>
<b>modal verb</b>	<p>Modal <a href="#">verbs</a> are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express degrees of certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i>.</p> <p>A modal verb only has <a href="#">finite</a> forms and has no <a href="#">suffixes</a> (e.g. <i>I sing</i> → <i>he sings</i>, but not <i>I must</i> → <i>he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i></p> <p><i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i></p> <p><i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i></p> <p><i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i></p>
<b>modify</b>	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a <a href="#">phrase</a>, the "modifier" is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher)</li> <li>• <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).</li> </ul>
<b>morphology</b>	<p>A word's morphology is its internal make-up, consisting of a <a href="#">root word</a> plus any changes (e.g. the addition of suffix).</p> <p>Dictionaries normally give only the root word.</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i>.</p>

<p><b>noun</b></p>	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used: they can go with a <a href="#">verb</a> to act as its <a href="#">subject</a>, and can usually be singular or <a href="#">plural</a>.</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called “naming words” because they name people, places and “things”; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, <a href="#">prepositions</a> can name places and <a href="#">verbs</a> can name actions.</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p> <p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns: <i>He's <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun]  <i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</p>
<p><b>noun phrase</b></p>	<p>A noun phrase is a <a href="#">phrase</a> (i.e. a group of grammatically connected words) with a <a href="#">noun</a> as its “head” (main word). A noun phrase can normally be used in place of a noun.</p> <p>The noun is called the “head” of the phrase because all the other words help to <a href="#">modify</a> the noun.</p>	<p><i><u>Foxes</u> can jump.</i> [noun phrase consisting of just a noun]</p> <p><i><u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i><u>Almost all healthy adult foxes</u> can jump.</i></p> <p>[all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
<p><b>object</b></p>	<p>An object is normally a <a href="#">noun</a>, <a href="#">pronoun</a> or <a href="#">noun phrase</a> that comes straight after the <a href="#">verb</a>, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the <a href="#">subject</a> of a <a href="#">passive</a> verb, and cannot be adjectives. (Contrast with <a href="#">complements</a>.)</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun <i>that</i> acting as object]</p> <p><i>Year 2 designed <u>a pretty display</u>.</i> [noun phrase <i>a pretty display</i> acting as object]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>A display was designed.</i> [object of active verb → subject of passive verb]  <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</p>

<b>participle</b>	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called “present participle” (e.g. walking, taking) and “past participle” (e.g. walked, taken).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time</li> <li>• “past participles” are also used as <a href="#">passives</a>.</li> </ul>	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle]  <i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle]  <i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle]</p>
<b>passive voice</b>	<p>A <a href="#">verb</a> in the passive voice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• is in its past-<a href="#">participle</a> form (e.g. <i>thrown, taken, helped</i>)</li> <li>• follows the verb <i>be</i></li> <li>• has its normal (active) <a href="#">object</a> and <a href="#">subject</a> reversed.</li> </ul> <p>Contrast <a href="#">active voice</a>.</p> <p>A verb is not “passive” just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive-voice version of an active-voice verb.</p>	<p><i>A <u>visit</u> was arranged by the school.</i>  <i>The ball was <u>thrown</u>.</i></p> <p>Active-voice versions:     <i>The school arranged a visit.</i>                                        <i>He threw the ball.</i></p> <p>Not passive voice:    <i>He received a warning.</i>                                        <i>We had an accident.</i></p>
<b>past tense</b>	<p><a href="#">Verbs</a> in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• talk about the past</li> <li>• talk about imagined situations</li> <li>• make a request sound more polite.</li> </ul> <p>Most verbs take a <a href="#">suffix</a> <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also <a href="#">tense</a>.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Cristy <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]  <i>Alex <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]  <i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>

<p><b>perfect</b></p>	<p>The perfect form of a <a href="#">verb</a> generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior situation. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• taking the past <a href="#">participle</a> of the verb (e.g. <i>thrown, taken, helped</i>)</li> <li>• adding the verb <i>have</i> before it (e.g. <i>she has helped</i>).</li> </ul> <p>It can also be combined with the <a href="#">continuous</a> (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now we have some songs]</p> <p><i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]</p>
<p><b>phoneme</b></p>	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i></li> <li>• /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>.</li> </ul> <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; 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 <a href="#">grapheme</a>.</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes.</p>

<p><b>phrase</b></p>	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected.</p> <p>Technically speaking, they are connected because all the words in the phrase help to <a href="#">modify</a> the main word of the phrase (called the “head”). If this main word is a <a href="#">verb</a>, then the phrase is a <a href="#">clause</a> or a <a href="#">sentence</a>. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [The main word is <i>mother</i>, a noun.]</p> <p><i>Always cross <u>on the zebra crossing!</u></i> [The main word is <i>on</i>, a preposition.]</p> <p><i><u>Nadia waved to her mother.</u></i> [The main word is <i>waved</i>, a verb. This phrase is also a sentence.]</p>
<p><b>plural</b></p>	<p>A plural <a href="#">noun</a> normally has a <a href="#">suffix</a> –s or –es and means “more than one”.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different <a href="#">morphology</a> in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><u>dogs</u> [more than one dog]</p> <p><u>boxes</u> [more than one box]</p> <p><u>mice</u> [more than one mouse]</p>
<p><b>possessive</b></p>	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• a <a href="#">noun</a> followed by an <a href="#">apostrophe</a> (and sometimes s)</li> <li>• a possessive <a href="#">pronoun</a>.</li> </ul> <p>A possessive names the “possessor” of the noun that it <a href="#">modifies</a>. A possessive also acts as a <a href="#">determiner</a>.</p>	<p><u>Tariq's</u> book [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><u>her</u> basketball [she has the basketball]</p>
<p><b>prefix</b></p>	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a <a href="#">word</a> in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast <a href="#">suffix</a>.</p>	<p><u>overnight</u></p> <p><u>disappear</u></p>



<p><b>punctuation</b></p>	<p>Punctuation includes any conventional features of written presentation other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks (. , ; : ? ! - - ( ) " " ' ' ), and also <a href="#">word-spaces</a>, <a href="#">capital letters</a>, <a href="#">apostrophes</a>, paragraph breaks and bullet points.</p> <p>One important role of punctuation is to indicate <a href="#">sentence</a> boundaries.</p>	<p><u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said,</u></p>
<p><b>relative clause</b></p>	<p>A relative <a href="#">clause</a> is a special type of <a href="#">subordinate clause</a> that makes the meaning of a noun more specific (i.e. it <a href="#">modifies</a> the noun). It does this by using a special <a href="#">pronoun</a> to refer back to that noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and the colour-coding pairs the pronouns with the nouns they refer back to. It is sometimes possible for the pronoun to refer back to the main clause as a whole, rather than referring back to a noun. It is also possible for the pronoun to be omitted.</p>	<p>That's the <b>boy</b> <u>who</u> lives near school. [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p>The <b>prize</b> <u>that</u> I won was a book. [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p><b>Tom broke the game</b>, <u>which</u> annoyed Ali. [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p> <p>The <b>prize</b> <u>that</u> I won was a book. [the pronoun is omitted]</p>
<p><b>root word</b></p>	<p>A root word is a <a href="#">word</a> which is not made up of any smaller root words, or <a href="#">prefixes</a> or <a href="#">suffixes</a>. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><u>played</u> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><u>unfair</u> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p>

<b>schwa</b>	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/ə<b>l</b>ŋ/ [<u>a</u>long]</p> <p>/bʌt<b>ə</b>/ [<u>b</u>utter]</p> <p>/dɒkt<b>ə</b>/ [<u>d</u>octor]</p>
<b>sentence</b>	<p>A sentence is a group of <a href="#">words</a> which are grammatically connected, and where nothing is grammatically missing. In other words, a sentence must be grammatically complete.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend's house.</u></p> <p>Contrast: <i>John went to.</i> [The preposition <i>to</i> should be linked to a noun, but the noun is missing. This is not grammatically complete, and so it is not a sentence.]</p>
<b>split digraph</b>	See <a href="#">digraph</a> .	
<b>Standard English</b>	<p>Standard English is the variety of the English language that is generally used for formal purposes in speech and writing. It is not the English of any particular region and it can be spoken with any accent.</p>	
<b>stressed</b>	<p>A <a href="#">syllable</a> is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><u>about</u></p> <p><u>visit</u></p>

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

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

<b>syllable</b>	A syllable sounds like a beat in a <a href="#">word</a> . Syllables consist of at least one <a href="#">vowel</a> , and possibly one or more <a href="#">consonants</a> .	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable. <i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
<b>tense</b>	<p>Tense is the choice between different verb forms that is normally used to indicate time (although tense and time do not always match up).</p> <p>Verbs in English (and other Germanic languages) have two distinct tense forms: <a href="#">present</a> and <a href="#">past</a>. Verbs in languages like French, Spanish and Italian have three distinct tense forms: present, past and future.</p> <p>English uses a variety of verbs in the present tense to talk about <a href="#">future</a> time, such as <i>may</i>, <i>will</i>, <i>intend</i>, or <i>plan</i>.</p> <p>English also uses verbs in the past tense to talk about imagined situations in the past, present or future.</p>	<p><i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense → present time]  <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense → past time]  <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense → future time]  <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time]  <i>He <u>plans</u> to <u>study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time]  <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense → imagined future]</p> <p>Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish:  <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense]  <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense]  <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]</p>
<b>trigraph</b>	A type of <a href="#">grapheme</a> where three letters represent one <a href="#">phoneme</a> .	<i>high</i> <i>pure</i> <i>patch</i> <i>hedge</i>
<b>unstressed</b>	See <a href="#">stressed</a> .	

<b>verb</b>	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a <a href="#">tense</a>, either <a href="#">present</a> or <a href="#">past</a>. (See also <a href="#">future</a>.)</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called “doing words” because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn't distinguish verbs from <a href="#">nouns</a> (which can also name actions), and moreover many verbs do <b>not</b> name actions.</p>	<p><i>He <u>looked</u> out of the school bus window. [present tense]</i></p> <p><i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class. [past tense]</i></p> <p><i>We <u>will go</u> to the zoo soon! [present tense + infinitive]</i></p> <p><i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate. [present tense]</i></p> <p>Not verbs: <i>The <u>walk</u> to Harriet's house will take an hour. [noun]</i>  <i><u>Surfing</u> makes Michelle so sleepy! [noun]</i></p>
<b>vowel</b>	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form <a href="#">syllables</a> by themselves, or they may combine with <a href="#">consonants</a>.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
<b>word</b>	<p>A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.</p> <p>Sometimes, what appears to be two words are grammatically treated as one. This may be indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe.</p>	<p><i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space]</i></p> <p><i><u>primary-school</u> teacher [normally written with a hyphen]</i></p> <p><i><u>I'm</u> going out.</i></p> <p><i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
<b>word family</b>	<p>The <a href="#">words</a> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of form, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><i><u>teacher</u> – <u>teach</u></i></p> <p><i><u>extensive</u> – <u>extend</u> – <u>extent</u></i></p>

### Phonemic transcription examples using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

Vowels							
ʌ	b <u>u</u> t, c <u>u</u> p	ɜ:	sh <u>i</u> r <u>t</u> , b <u>u</u> r <u>n</u>	ʊ	p <u>u</u> ll, sh <u>o</u> u <u>l</u> d	əʊ	sh <u>o</u> w, g <u>o</u>
a:	ɑ <u>r</u> m, b <u>a</u> r	ɪ	s <u>i</u> t, f <u>i</u> t <u>t</u> i <u>n</u> g	u:	gl <u>u</u> e, f <u>o</u> o <u>d</u>	ɔɪ	b <u>o</u> y, j <u>o</u> i <u>n</u>
æ	c <u>a</u> t, n <u>a</u> p	i:	b <u>e</u> e, b <u>e</u> a <u>t</u>	aɪ	l <u>i</u> e, sk <u>y</u>	ɛə	f <u>a</u> r <u>e</u> , <u>a</u> i <u>r</u>
ɛ	l <u>e</u> t, b <u>e</u> d	ɒ	n <u>o</u> t, l <u>o</u> ck	aʊ	c <u>o</u> w, sh <u>o</u> u <u>t</u>	ɪə	h <u>e</u> r <u>e</u> , <u>e</u> a <u>r</u>
ə	ɑ <u>l</u> o <u>n</u> e, <u>u</u> p <u>o</u> n	ɔ:	c <u>a</u> ll, l <u>a</u> w	eɪ	<u>e</u> i <u>g</u> h <u>t</u> , s <u>a</u> y	ʊə	s <u>u</u> r <u>e</u> , t <u>o</u> u <u>r</u>

Consonants							
b	b <u>a</u> ll, d <u>a</u> b	k	c <u>a</u> t, l <u>u</u> ck	ɹ	r <u>e</u> a <u>d</u> , c <u>r</u> y	ð	t <u>h</u> e, f <u>a</u> t <u>h</u> e <u>r</u>
d	d <u>o</u> , sh <u>a</u> d <u>e</u>	l	l <u>i</u> t, s <u>i</u> l <u>l</u> y	s	s <u>e</u> e, k <u>i</u> s <u>s</u>	v	v <u>a</u> s <u>e</u> , a <u>l</u> i <u>v</u> e
f	f <u>a</u> ll, <u>i</u> f	m	m <u>a</u> n, <u>i</u> m <u>p</u>	ʃ	sh <u>e</u> , st <u>a</u> sh	w	w <u>a</u> ll, w <u>i</u> n <u>d</u> o <u>w</u>
g	g <u>o</u> , s <u>a</u> g	n	n <u>o</u> , o <u>n</u>	t	t <u>o</u> o, s <u>e</u> t	z	z <u>o</u> o, c <u>r</u> a <u>z</u> y
h	h <u>a</u> v <u>e</u> , h <u>o</u> l <u>d</u>	ŋ	r <u>i</u> n <u>g</u> , f <u>i</u> n <u>g</u> e <u>r</u>	tʃ	ch <u>e</u> a <u>p</u> , <u>i</u> t <u>ch</u>	ʒ	m <u>e</u> as <u>u</u> r <u>e</u> , t <u>e</u> l <u>e</u> v <u>i</u> s <u>i</u> o <u>n</u>
j	y <u>e</u> s, y <u>a</u> n <u>k</u>	p	p <u>a</u> l, s <u>t</u> o <u>p</u>	θ	th <u>i</u> s <u>t</u> l <u>e</u> , b <u>o</u> th	dʒ	j <u>a</u> m, b <u>a</u> r <u>g</u> e

