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

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

Terms in definitions

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

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active <u>verb</u> has its usual pattern of <u>subject</u> and <u>object</u> (in contrast with the <u>passive</u>).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit</i> . Passive: <i>A visit was arranged</i> by the school.
adjective	 The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb be, as its complement. Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be. Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, 	The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work. [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] Their work was <u>good</u> . [adjective used after the verb be, as its complement] Not adjectives: The lamp <u>glowed</u> . [verb] It was such a bright <u>red</u> ! [noun] He spoke <u>loudly</u> . [adverb] It was a French <u>grammar</u> book. [noun]

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	because <u>verbs</u> , <u>nouns</u> and <u>adverbs</u> can do the same thing.	
adverb	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can <u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u> , an <u>adjective</u> , another adverb or even a whole clause. Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as <u>adverbials</u> , such as <u>preposition</u> <u>phrases</u> , <u>noun_phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u> .	 Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>. [adverbs modifying the verbs started and snoring] That match was <u>really</u> exciting! [adverb modifying the adjective exciting] We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often. [adverb modifying the other adverb, often] <u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain. [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it] Not adverbs: Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>. [preposition phrase used as adverbial] She finished her work <u>this</u> <u>evening</u>. [noun phrase used as adverbial] She finished <u>when the teacher</u> <u>got cross</u>. [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, <u>adverbs</u> can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including <u>preposition phrases</u> and <u>subordinate</u> <u>clauses</u> .	The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u> . [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies leaves] She promised to see him <u>last night</u> . [noun phrase modifying either promised or see, according to the intended meaning] She worked until she had finished. [subordinate clause as adverbial] hot – cold
	meanings are opposites.	light – dark light – heavy
apostrophe	 Apostrophes have two completely different uses: showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) 	<u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long. [showing missing letters] <u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car. [marking possessives]

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

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	Some examples of cohesive devices are: <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u> , which can refer back to earlier words	Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much. [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]
	 <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear 	<i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u> ; makes a relationship of time clear]
	 <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words. 	<i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea. [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting]</i>
		Where are you going? [_] To school! [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i> ; links the answer back to the question]
complement	A verb's subject complement adds more information about its <u>subject</u> ,	She is <u>our teacher</u> . [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]
	and its object complement does the same for its <u>object</u> . Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.	<i>They seem very competent.</i> [adds more information about the subject,
		<i>they</i>] <i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]
compound, compounding	A compound word contains at least two <u>root words</u> in its <u>morphology</u> ; e.g. <i>whiteboard, superman</i> . Compounding is very important in English.	blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice- cream, English teacher, inkjet, one- eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow
conjunction	A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of	<i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]
	 conjunctions: <u>co-ordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a <u>subordinate</u> 	<i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]
		<i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]
	<u>clause</u> .	<i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]

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

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	split digraph.	The split digraph <u>i–e</u> in l <u>ine</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and	Frankie waved to Ivana and she watched her drive away.
	predictable.	She did it because she wanted to do it .
etymology	A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>ó÷ïëÞ</i> (<i>skholé</i>) meaning 'leisure'.
	and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i> , meaning 'word'.
		The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
finite verb	Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or	<i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]
	present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite.	Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday. [past tense]
	Verbs that are not finite, such as	<u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser! [imperative]
	participles or infinitives, cannot stand	Not finite verbs:
	on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	 I have <u>done</u> them. [combined with the finite verb have]
		 I will <u>do</u> them. [combined with the finite verb will]
		 I want to <u>do</u> them! [combined with the finite verb want]
fronting, fronted	A word or phrase that normally comes after the <u>verb</u> may be moved	<u>Before we begin</u> , make sure you've got a pencil.
	before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an	[Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin</i> .]
	<u>adverbial</u> which has been moved before the verb.	<u>The day after tomorrow</u> , I'm visiting my granddad.
	When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.	[Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]
future	Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a <u>present-tense</u> <u>verb</u> .	He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow. [present- tense will followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]
	See also <u>tense</u> .	He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow. [present- tense may followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]
	Unlike many other languages (such	1

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	as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its <u>present</u> and <u>past</u> tenses.	 He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow. [present-tense leaves] He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow. [present tense is followed by going to plus the infinitive leave]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single <u>phoneme</u> within a word.	The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>t</u> en, be <u>t</u> and <u>at</u> e corresponds to the phoneme /t/.
		The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word dol <u>ph</u> in corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme- phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (<u>graphemes</u>) and the speech sounds (<u>phonemes</u>) that they represent.	The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>s</u> ee, but it corresponds to the phoneme
	In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	/z/ in the word <i>ea<u>s</u>y</i> .
head	See phrase.	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	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> .
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<u>hear, here</u> <u>some, sum</u>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk, be</i>).	I want to <u>walk</u> . I will <u>be</u> quiet.
	 Infinitives are often used: after to after modal verbs. 	
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of <u>morphology</u> produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. <u>past tense</u>	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog.</i> <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go.</i> <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .

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	or <u>plural</u>). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same <u>word family</u> . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' <u>transitive verb'</u> .	We all <u>laughed</u> . We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u> .
main clause	A <u>sentence</u> contains at least one <u>clause</u> which is not a <u>subordinate</u> <u>clause</u> ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<u>It was raining but the sun was</u> <u>shining.</u> [two main clauses] <u>The man who wrote it told me that</u> <u>it was true</u> . [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] She said, "It rained all day." [one
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other <u>verbs</u> . They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i> . A modal verb only has <u>finite</u> forms and has no <u>suffixes</u> (e.g. <i>I sing – he</i> <i>sings</i> , but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).	 main clause containing another.] <i>I</i> <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself. This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you! You <u>should</u> help your little brother. Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>. Canning swim is important. [not possible because can must be finite; contrast: Being able to swim is important, where being is not a modal verb]
modify, modifier	One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a <u>phrase</u> , the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.	 In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>: <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of <u>root words</u> and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> , as well as other kinds of change such as the change	<i>dogs</i> has the morphological make- up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s.</i> <i>unhelpfulness</i> has the

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	of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> . Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word (e.g. <i>boy</i> – <i>boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy</i> – <i>boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u> . A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).	 morphological make-up: unhelpful + ness where unhelpful = un + helpful and helpful = help + ful
noun	The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after <u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i> : for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The matters/matter." Nouns are sometimes called 'naming words' because they name people, places and 'things'; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name 'things' such as actions. Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy</i> , <i>day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan</i> , <i>Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	 Our dog bit the burglar on his behind! My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard. Actions speak louder than words. Not nouns: He's behind you! [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] She can jump so high! [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] She can jump so high! [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] common, countable: a book, books, two chocolates, one day, fewer ideas common, non-countable: money, some chocolate, less imagination proper, countable: Marilyn, London, Wednesday
noun phrase	A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u> , e.g. <i>some foxes</i> , <i>foxes with bushy tails</i> . Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes are</i> <i>multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i> .	<u>Adult foxes</u> can jump. [adult modifies foxes, so adult belongs to the noun phrase] <u>Almost all healthy adult foxes in</u> <u>this area</u> can jump. [all the other words help to modify foxes, so they all belong to the noun phrase]
object	An object is normally a <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> that comes straight after the <u>verb</u> , and shows what the verb is acting upon. Objects can be turned into the	Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u> . [noun acting as object] <i>I like <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun acting as object]

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	<u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u>).	 Some people suggested <u>a pretty</u> <u>display</u>. [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast: A display was suggested. [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] Year 2 designed pretty. [incorrect, because adjectives
participle	 Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and 'past participle' (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>). Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time although past participles are used as <u>perfects</u> (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as <u>passives</u> (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>). 	cannot be objects] <i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a <u>progressive</u>] <i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a <u>perfect</u>] <i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a <u>passive</u>]
passive	 The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from: the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i> the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u> the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional <u>preposition phrase</u> with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u> the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. Contrast <u>active</u>. A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb. 	 A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school. Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus. Active versions: The school arranged a visit. A bus ran over our cat. Not passive: He received a warning. [past tense, active received] We had an accident. [past tense, active had]
past tense	Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:	<i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV</i> . [names an event in the

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	 talk about the past talk about imagined situations make a request sound more polite. Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> –<i>ed</i>, to form 	past] <i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>] <i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an
	their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular. See also <u>tense</u> .	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]
perfect	 The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, <i>he has gone to lunch</i> implies that he is still away, in contrast with <i>he went to lunch</i>. 'Had gone to lunch' takes a past time point (i.e. when we arrived) as its reference point and is another way of establishing time relations in a text. The perfect tense is formed by: turning the verb into its past participle inflection adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it. It can also be combined with the progressive (e.g. <i>he has been going</i>). 	She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs. [present perfect; now she has some songs] <i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]
phoneme	 A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example: /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>. It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work. There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single 	The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /katʃ/ The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔ:t/

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	phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single <u>grapheme</u> .	
phrase	A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a <u>noun phrase</u> if its head is a noun, a <u>preposition phrase</u> if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a <u>verb</u> , the phrase is called a <u>clause</u> . Phrases can be made up of other phrases.	She waved to <u>her mother</u> . [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head] She waved <u>to her mother</u> . [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head] <u>She waved to her mother</u> . [a clause, with the verb waved as its head]
plural	A plural <u>noun</u> normally has a <u>suffix</u> – <i>s</i> or –es and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different <u>morphology</u> in the plural (e.g. <i>mice,</i> <i>formulae</i>).	<u>dogs</u> [more than one dog]; <u>boxes</u> [more than one box] <u>mice</u> [more than one mouse]
possessive	 A possessive can be: a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u>, with or without <i>s</i> a possessive <u>pronoun</u>. The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u>. 	<u>Tariq's</u> book [Tariq has the book] The <u>boys'</u> arrival [the boys arrive] <u>His</u> obituary [the obituary is about him] That essay is <u>mine</u> . [I wrote the essay]
prefix	A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word. Contrast <u>suffix</u> .	<u>over</u> take, <u>dis</u> appear
preposition	A preposition links a following <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u> .	Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks. I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning. Contrast: I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here! [conjunction: links two clauses]

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preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a	He was <u>in bed</u> .
	noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	I met them <u>after the party</u> .
present tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to:	<i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now]
	talk about the presenttalk about the <u>future</u>.	<i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]
	They may take a suffix <i>–s</i> (depending on the <u>subject</u>).	<i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now]
	See also <u>tense</u> .	<i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]
progressive	The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a <u>verb</u> generally	<i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive]
	describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present <u>participle</u> (e.g. <i>singing</i>) with	<i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive]
	a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i>). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i>).	Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called. [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	 Pronouns are normally used like nouns, except that: they are grammatically more specialised it is harder to modify them In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with nouns, and once with pronouns (underlined). Where the same thing is being talked about, the words are shown in bold. 	Amanda waved to Michael. <u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u> . John's mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there. The visit will be an overnight visit. <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit. <u>Simon is the person: Simon broke</u> <u>it. He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.
punctuation	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! () ""'', and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<u>"I'm_going_out,_</u> Usha <u>,_</u> and <u>I</u> won <u>'</u> t be_long <u>," M</u> um_said <u>.</u>
Received Pronunciation	Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is used only by a small	

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	minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.	
register	Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are 'varieties' of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away. [formal letter] Have you heard that Joe has died? [casual speech] Joe falls down and dies, centre stage. [stage direction]
relative clause	A relative clause is a special type of <u>subordinate clause</u> that modifies a <u>noun</u> . It often does this by using a relative <u>pronoun</u> such as <i>who</i> or <i>that</i> to refer back to that noun, though the relative pronoun <i>that</i> is often omitted. A relative clause may also be attached to a <u>clause</u> . In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun. In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.	That's the boy <u>who lives near</u> <u>school</u> . [who refers back to boy] The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book. [that refers back to prize] The prize <u>I won</u> was a book. [the pronoun that is omitted] Tom broke the game , <u>which</u> <u>annoyed Ali</u> . [which refers back to the whole clause]
root word	Morphology breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> which can't. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its <u>word family</u> such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i> , and also for its <u>inflections</u> such as <i>helping</i> . <u>Compound</u> words (e.g. <i>help- desk</i>) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the	<u>plav</u> ed [the root word is play] un <u>fair</u> [the root word is fair] football [the root words are foot and ball]

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	root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.	
schwa	The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English. It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.	/əlɒŋ/ [<u>a</u> long] /b∧tə/ [<i>butt<u>er</u>]</i> /dɒktə/ [doct <u>or</u>]
sentence	A sentence is a group of <u>words</u> which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence. The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation. A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms 'single- clause sentence' and 'multi-clause sentence' may be more helpful.	John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time. John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time. [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.] You are my friend. [statement] Are you my friend? [question] Be my friend! [command] What a good friend you are! [exclamation] Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets. [single-clause sentence] She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it. [multi-clause sentence]
split digraph	See <u>digraph</u> .	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books, I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English	I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses. [formal Standard English] I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses. [casual Standard English]

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	variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most <u>registers</u> . The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.	I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses. [casual non-Standard English]
stress	A <u>syllable</u> is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	a <u>bout</u> <u>vis</u> it
subject	 The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: just before the verb in a statement just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <u>I</u> am, <u>you</u> are). 	<u>Rula's mother</u> went out. <u>That</u> is uncertain. <u>The children</u> will study the animals. Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?
subjunctive	In some languages, the <u>inflections</u> of a <u>verb</u> include a large range of special forms which are used typically in <u>subordinate clauses</u> , and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest. The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime. If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.
subordinate, subordination	 A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example: an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies subjects and objects are 	<u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs] <u>Big dogs need long walks</u> . [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need] We can watch TV <u>when we've</u> <u>finished</u> . [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]

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	subordinate to their <u>verbs</u> . Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of <u>co-ordination</u> . See also <u>subordinate clause</u> .	
subordinate clause	A clause which is <u>subordinate</u> to some other part of the same <u>sentence</u> is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The apple that I ate was</i> <i>sour</i> , the clause <i>that I ate</i> is subordinate to <i>apple</i> (which it <u>modifies</u>). Subordinate clauses contrast with <u>co-ordinate</u> clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i> . (Contrast: <u>main clause</u>) However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.	That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u> . [relative clause; modifies street] He watched her <u>as she</u> <u>disappeared</u> . [adverbial; modifies watched] <u>What you said</u> was very nice. [acts as <u>subject</u> of was] She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u> . [acts as <u>object</u> of noticed] Not subordinate: He shouted, <u>"Look out!"</u>
suffix	A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike <u>root words</u> , suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word. Contrast <u>prefix</u> .	call – call <u>ed</u> teach – teach <u>er</u> [turns a <u>verb</u> into a <u>noun]</u> terror – terror <u>ise</u> [turns a noun into a verb] green – green <u>ish</u> [leaves <u>word</u> <u>class</u> unchanged]
syllable	A syllable sounds like a beat in a <u>word</u> . Syllables consist of at least one <u>vowel</u> , and possibly one or more <u>consonants</u> .	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable. <i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
synonym	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast <u>antonym</u> .	talk – speak old – elderly
tense	In English, tense is the choice between <u>present</u> and <u>past verbs</u> , which is special because it is signalled by <u>inflections</u> and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including	 He <u>studies</u>. [present tense – present time] He <u>studied</u> yesterday. [past tense – past time] He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else! [present tense – future time] He <u>may study</u> tomorrow. [present

Term	Guidance	Example
	a future tense. (See also: <u>future</u> .)	tense + infinitive – future time]
	The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the <u>perfect</u> and <u>progressive</u> .	<i>He <u>plans</u> to <u>study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]
		If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference! [past tense – imagined future]
		Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish:
		 Estudia. [present tense]
		 Estudió. [past tense]
		 Estudiará. [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one	He <u>loves</u> Juliet.
	object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an <u>intransitive verb</u> , which does not.	She <u>understands</u> English grammar.
trigraph	A type of <u>grapheme</u> where three letters represent one <u>phoneme</u> .	H <u>igh</u> , p <u>ure</u> , pa <u>tch</u> , he <u>dge</u>
unstressed	See <u>stressed</u> .	
verb	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a <u>tense</u> , either <u>present</u> or <u>past</u> (see also <u>future</u>). 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 <u>nouns</u> (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions. Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as <u>auxiliary</u> , or <u>modal</u> ; as <u>transitive</u> or <u>intransitive</u> ; and as states or events.	 He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham. [present tense] The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class. [past tense] He <u>likes</u> chocolate. [present tense; not an action] He <u>knew</u> my father. [past tense; not an action] Not verbs: The <u>walk</u> to Halina's house will take an hour. [noun] All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy! [noun]
vowel	A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract. Vowels can form <u>syllables</u> by themselves, or they may combine with <u>consonants</u> . In the English writing system, the letters <i>a</i> , <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>o</i> , <i>u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.	

Term	Guidance	Example
word	A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.	<u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space] <u>I'm</u> going out. <u>9.30 am</u>
	Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built, he's</i>).	
word class	Every <u>word</u> belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: <u>noun</u> , <u>verb</u> , <u>adjective</u> , <u>adverb</u> , <u>preposition</u> , <u>determiner</u> , <u>pronoun</u> , <u>conjunction</u> . Word classes are sometimes called 'parts of speech'.	
word family	The <u>words</u> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of <u>morphology</u> , grammar and meaning.	teach – teacher extend – extent – extensive grammar – grammatical – grammarian

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