



Year 1

National

Curriculum



CHASE BRIDGE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Year I National Curriculum

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English

Purpose of study

English has a pre-eminent place in education and in society. A high-quality education in English will teach pupils to speak and write fluently so that they can communicate their ideas and emotions to others and through their reading and listening, others can communicate with them. Through reading in particular, pupils have a chance to develop culturally, emotionally, intellectually, socially and spiritually. Literature, especially, plays a key role in such development. Reading also enables pupils both to acquire knowledge and to build on what they already know. All the skills of language are essential to participating fully as a member of society; pupils, therefore, who do not learn to speak, read and write fluently and confidently are effectively disenfranchised.

Aims

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

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

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should develop a capacity

to explain their understanding of books and other reading, and to prepare their ideas before they write. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions. Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate.

All pupils should be enabled to participate in and gain knowledge, skills and understanding associated with the artistic practice of drama. Pupils should be able to adopt, create and sustain a range of roles, responding appropriately to others in role. They should have opportunities to improvise, devise and script drama for one another and a range of audiences, as well as to rehearse, refine, share and respond thoughtfully to drama and theatre performances.

Statutory requirements which underpin all aspects of spoken language across the six years of primary education form part of the national curriculum. These are reflected and contextualised within the reading and writing domains which follow.

Reading

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

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

It is essential that teaching focuses on developing pupils' competence in both dimensions; different kinds of teaching are needed for each.

Skilled word reading involves both the speedy working out of the pronunciation of unfamiliar printed words (decoding) and the speedy recognition of familiar printed words. Underpinning both is the understanding that the letters on the page represent the sounds in spoken words. This is why phonics should be emphasised in the early teaching of reading to beginners (i.e. unskilled readers) when they start school.

Good comprehension draws from linguistic knowledge (in particular of vocabulary and grammar) and on knowledge of the world. Comprehension skills develop through pupils' experience of high-quality discussion with the teacher, as well as from reading and discussing a range of stories, poems and non-fiction. All pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the world in which they live, to establish an appreciation and love of reading, and to gain knowledge across the curriculum. Reading widely and often increases pupils' vocabulary because they encounter words they would rarely hear or use in everyday speech. Reading also feeds pupils' imagination and opens up a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds.

It is essential that, by the end of their primary education, all pupils are able to read fluently, and with confidence, in any subject in their forthcoming secondary education.

Writing

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

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

It is essential that teaching develops pupils' competence in these two dimensions. In addition, pupils should be taught how to plan, revise and evaluate their writing. These aspects of writing have been incorporated into the programmes of study for composition.

Writing down ideas fluently depends on effective transcription: that is, on spelling quickly and accurately through knowing the relationship between sounds and letters (phonics) and understanding the morphology (word structure) and orthography (spelling structure) of words. Effective composition involves forming, articulating and communicating ideas, and then organising them coherently for a reader. This requires clarity, awareness of the audience, purpose and context, and an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Writing also depends on fluent, legible and, eventually, speedy handwriting.

Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and glossary

The two statutory appendices – on [spelling](#) and on [vocabulary, grammar and punctuation](#) – give an overview of the specific features that should be included in teaching the programmes of study.

Opportunities for teachers to enhance pupils' vocabulary arise naturally from their reading and writing. As vocabulary increases, teachers should show pupils how to understand the relationships between words, how to understand nuances in meaning, and how to develop their understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. They should also teach pupils how to work out and clarify the meanings of unknown words and words with more than one meaning. References to developing pupils' vocabulary are also included within the appendices.

Pupils should be taught to control their speaking and writing consciously and to use Standard English. They should be taught to use the elements of spelling, grammar, punctuation and 'language about language' listed. This is not intended to constrain or restrict teachers' creativity, but simply to provide the structure on which they can construct exciting lessons. A non-statutory [Glossary](#) is provided for teachers.

Throughout the programmes of study, teachers should teach pupils the vocabulary they need to discuss their reading, writing and spoken language. It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching.

School curriculum

The programmes of study for English are set out year-by-year for key stage 1 and two-yearly for key stage 2. The single year blocks at key stage 1 reflect the rapid pace of development in word reading during these two years. Schools are, however, only required to teach the relevant

programme of study by the end of the key stage. Within each key stage, schools therefore have the flexibility to introduce content earlier or later than set out in the programme of study. In addition, schools can introduce key stage content during an earlier key stage if appropriate. All schools are also required to set out their school curriculum for English on a year-by-year basis and make this information available online.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets] or the content indicated as being ‘non-statutory’.

Spoken language – years 1 to 6

Spoken language

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers
- ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge
- use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary
- articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions
- give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings
- maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments
- use spoken language to develop understanding through speculating, hypothesising, imagining and exploring ideas
- speak audibly and fluently with an increasing command of Standard English
- participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates
- gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s)
- consider and evaluate different viewpoints, attending to and building on the contributions of others
- select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

These statements apply to all years. The content should be taught at a level appropriate to the age of the pupils. Pupils should build on the oral language skills that have been taught in preceding years.

Pupils should be taught to develop their competence in spoken language and listening to enhance the effectiveness with which they are able to communicate across a range of contexts and to a range of audiences. They should therefore have opportunities to work in groups of different sizes – in pairs, small groups, large groups and as a whole class. Pupils should understand how to take turns and when and how to participate constructively in conversations and debates.

Attention should also be paid to increasing pupils' vocabulary, ranging from describing their

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

immediate world and feelings to developing a broader, deeper and richer vocabulary to discuss abstract concepts and a wider range of topics, and to enhancing their knowledge about language as a whole.

Pupils should receive constructive feedback on their spoken language and listening, not only to improve their knowledge and skills but also to establish secure foundations for effective spoken language in their studies at primary school, helping them to achieve in secondary education and beyond.

Key stage 1 – year 1

During year 1, teachers should build on work from the Early Years Foundation Stage, making sure that pupils can sound and blend unfamiliar printed words quickly and accurately using the phonic knowledge and skills that they have already learnt. Teachers should also ensure that pupils continue to learn new grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPCs) and revise and consolidate those learnt earlier. The understanding that the letter(s) on the page represent the sounds in spoken words should underpin pupils' reading and spelling of all words. This includes common words containing unusual GPCs. The term 'common exception words' is used throughout the programmes of study for such words.

Alongside this knowledge of GPCs, pupils need to develop the skill of blending the sounds into words for reading and establish the habit of applying this skill whenever they encounter new words. This will be supported by practice in reading books consistent with their developing phonic knowledge and skill and their knowledge of common exception words. At the same time they will need to hear, share and discuss a wide range of high-quality books to develop a love of reading and broaden their vocabulary.

Pupils should be helped to read words without overt sounding and blending after a few encounters. Those who are slow to develop this skill should have extra practice.

Pupils' writing during year 1 will generally develop at a slower pace than their reading. This is because they need to encode the sounds they hear in words (spelling skills), develop the physical skill needed for handwriting, and learn how to organise their ideas in writing.

Pupils entering year 1 who have not yet met the early learning goals for literacy should continue to follow their school's curriculum for the Early Years Foundation Stage to develop their word reading, spelling and language skills. However, these pupils should follow the year 1 programme of study in terms of the books they listen to and discuss, so that they develop their vocabulary and understanding of grammar, as well as their knowledge more generally across the curriculum. If they are still struggling to decode and spell, they need to be taught to do this urgently through a rigorous and systematic phonics programme so that they catch up rapidly.

Teachers should ensure that their teaching develops pupils' oral vocabulary as well as their ability to understand and use a variety of grammatical structures, giving particular support to pupils whose oral language skills are insufficiently developed.

Year 1 programme of study

Reading – word reading

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words
- respond speedily with the correct sound to graphemes (letters or groups of letters) for all 40+ phonemes, including, where applicable, alternative sounds for graphemes
- read accurately by blending sounds in unfamiliar words containing GPCs that have been taught
- read common exception words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word
- read words containing taught GPCs and –s, –es, –ing, –ed, –er and –est endings
- read other words of more than one syllable that contain taught GPCs
- read words with contractions [for example, I'm, I'll, we'll], and understand that the apostrophe represents the omitted letter(s)
- read aloud accurately books that are consistent with their developing phonic knowledge and that do not require them to use other strategies to work out words
- re-read these books to build up their fluency and confidence in word reading.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should revise and consolidate the GPCs and the common exception words taught in Reception. As soon as they can read words comprising the year 1 GPCs accurately and speedily, they should move on to the year 2 programme of study for word reading.

The number, order and choice of exception words taught will vary according to the phonics programme being used. Ensuring that pupils are aware of the GPCs they contain, however unusual these are, supports spelling later.

Young readers encounter words that they have not seen before much more frequently than experienced readers do, and they may not know the meaning of some of these. Practice at reading such words by sounding and blending can provide opportunities not only for pupils to develop confidence in their decoding skills, but also for teachers to explain the meaning and thus develop pupils' vocabulary.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should be taught how to read words with suffixes by being helped to build on the root words that they can read already. Pupils' reading and re-reading of books that are closely matched to their developing phonic knowledge and knowledge of common exception words supports their fluency, as well as increasing their confidence in their reading skills. Fluent word reading greatly assists comprehension, especially when pupils come to read longer books.

Reading – comprehension

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding by:
 - listening to and discussing a wide range of poems, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently
 - being encouraged to link what they read or hear read to their own experiences
 - becoming very familiar with key stories, fairy stories and traditional tales, retelling them and considering their particular characteristics
 - recognising and joining in with predictable phrases
 - learning to appreciate rhymes and poems, and to recite some by heart
 - discussing word meanings, linking new meanings to those already known
- understand both the books they can already read accurately and fluently and those they listen to by:
 - drawing on what they already know or on background information and vocabulary provided by the teacher
 - checking that the text makes sense to them as they read and correcting inaccurate reading
 - discussing the significance of the title and events
 - making inferences on the basis of what is being said and done
 - predicting what might happen on the basis of what has been read so far
- participate in discussion about what is read to them, taking turns and listening to what others say
- explain clearly their understanding of what is read to them.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should have extensive experience of listening to, sharing and discussing a wide range of high-quality books with the teacher, other adults and each other to engender a love of reading at the same time as they are reading independently.

Pupils' vocabulary should be developed when they listen to books read aloud and when they discuss what they have heard. Such vocabulary can also feed into their writing. Knowing the meaning of more words increases pupils' chances of understanding when they read by themselves. The meaning of some new words should be introduced to pupils before they start to read on their own, so that these unknown words do not hold up their comprehension.

However, once pupils have already decoded words successfully, the meaning of those that are new to them can be discussed with them, so contributing to developing their early skills of inference. By listening frequently to stories, poems and non-fiction that they cannot yet read for themselves, pupils begin to understand how written language can be structured in order, for example, to build surprise in narratives or to present facts in non-fiction. Listening to and discussing information books and other non-fiction establishes the foundations for their learning in other subjects. Pupils should be shown some of the processes for finding out information.

Through listening, pupils also start to learn how language sounds and increase their vocabulary and awareness of grammatical structures. In due course, they will be able to draw on such grammar in their own writing.

Rules for effective discussions should be agreed with and demonstrated for pupils. They should help to develop and evaluate them, with the expectation that everyone takes part. Pupils should be helped to consider the opinions of others.

Role-play can help pupils to identify with and explore characters and to try out the language they have listened to.

Writing – transcription

Statutory requirements

Spelling (see [English Appendix I](#))

Pupils should be taught to:

- spell:
 - words containing each of the 40+ phonemes already taught
 - common exception words
 - the days of the week

Statutory requirements

- name the letters of the alphabet:
 - naming the letters of the alphabet in order
 - using letter names to distinguish between alternative spellings of the same sound
- add prefixes and suffixes:
 - using the spelling rule for adding –s or –es as the plural marker for nouns and the third person singular marker for verbs
 - using the prefix un–
 - using –ing, –ed, –er and –est where no change is needed in the spelling of root words [for example, helping, helped, helper, eating, quicker, quickest]
- apply simple spelling rules and guidance, as listed in [English Appendix I](#)
- write from memory simple sentences dictated by the teacher that include words using the GPCs and common exception words taught so far.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Reading should be taught alongside spelling, so that pupils understand that they can read back words they have spelt.

Pupils should be shown how to segment spoken words into individual phonemes and then how to represent the phonemes by the appropriate grapheme(s). It is important to recognise that phoneme-grapheme correspondences (which underpin spelling) are more variable than grapheme-phoneme correspondences (which underpin reading). For this reason, pupils need to do much more word-specific rehearsal for spelling than for reading.

At this stage pupils will be spelling some words in a phonically plausible way, even if sometimes incorrectly. Misspellings of words that pupils have been taught to spell should be corrected; other misspelt words should be used to teach pupils about alternative ways of representing those sounds.

Writing simple dictated sentences that include words taught so far gives pupils opportunities to apply and practise their spelling.

Statutory requirements

Handwriting

Pupils should be taught to:

- sit correctly at a table, holding a pencil comfortably and correctly
- begin to form lower-case letters in the correct direction, starting and finishing in the right place
- form capital letters
- form digits 0-9
- understand which letters belong to which handwriting 'families' (i.e. letters that are formed in similar ways) and to practise these.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Handwriting requires frequent and discrete, direct teaching. Pupils should be able to form letters correctly and confidently. The size of the writing implement (pencil, pen) should not be too large for a young pupil's hand. Whatever is being used should allow the pupil to hold it easily and correctly so that bad habits are avoided.

Left-handed pupils should receive specific teaching to meet their needs.

Writing – composition

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- write sentences by:
 - saying out loud what they are going to write about
 - composing a sentence orally before writing it
 - sequencing sentences to form short narratives
 - re-reading what they have written to check that it makes sense
- discuss what they have written with the teacher or other pupils
- read aloud their writing clearly enough to be heard by their peers and the teacher.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

At the beginning of year 1, not all pupils will have the spelling and handwriting skills they need to write down everything that they can compose out loud.

Pupils should understand, through demonstration, the skills and processes essential to writing: that is, thinking aloud as they collect ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check their meaning is clear.

Writing – vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- develop their understanding of the concepts set out in [English Appendix 2](#) by:
 - leaving spaces between words
 - joining words and joining clauses using and
 - beginning to punctuate sentences using a capital letter and a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark
 - using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun ‘I’
 - learning the grammar for year 1 in English Appendix 2
- use the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 in discussing their writing.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should be taught to recognise sentence boundaries in spoken sentences and to use the vocabulary listed in [English Appendix 2](#) (‘Terminology for pupils’) when their writing is discussed.

Pupils should begin to use some of the distinctive features of Standard English in their writing. ‘Standard English’ is defined in the [Glossary](#).

English 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 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 word-lists for years 3 and 4 and years 5 and 6 are statutory. The lists are a mixture of words pupils frequently use in their writing and those which they often misspell. Some of the listed words may be thought of as quite challenging, but the 100 words in each list can easily be taught within the four years of key stage 2 alongside other words that teachers consider appropriate.

The rules and guidance are intended to support the teaching of spelling. Phonic knowledge should continue to underpin spelling after key stage 1; teachers should still draw pupils' attention to GPCs that do and do not fit in with what has been taught so far. Increasingly, however, pupils also need to understand the role of morphology and etymology. Although particular GPCs in 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. Teachers should be familiar with what pupils have been taught about spelling in earlier years, such as which rules pupils have been taught for adding prefixes and suffixes.

In this spelling appendix, the left-hand column is statutory; the middle and right-hand columns are non-statutory guidance.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is used to represent sounds (phonemes). A table showing the IPA is provided in this document.

Spelling – work for year 1

Revision of reception work

Statutory requirements

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

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The sounds /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ spelt ff, ll, ss, zz and ck	The /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ sounds are usually spelt as ff , ll , ss , zz and ck if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words. Exceptions: if, pal, us, bus, yes.	off, well, miss, buzz, back
The /ŋ/ sound spelt n before k		bank, think, honk, sunk
Division of words into syllables	Each syllable is like a ‘beat’ in the spoken word. Words of more than one syllable often have an unstressed syllable in which the vowel sound is unclear.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
-tch	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as tch if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. Exceptions: rich, which, much, such.	catch, fetch, kitchen, notch, hutch
The /v/ sound at the	English words hardly ever end with the	have, live, give

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
end of words	letter v , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter e usually needs to be added after the 'v'.	
Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)	If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as -s . If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as -es .	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches
Adding the endings –ing, –ed and –er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word	<p>-ing and -er always add an extra syllable to the word and -ed sometimes does.</p> <p>The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt -ed.</p> <p>If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.</p>	<p>hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper</p>
Adding –er and –est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word	As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	<p>grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest</p>

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

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

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

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
oo (/u:/)	Very few words end with the letters oo , although the few that do are often words that primary children in year 1 will encounter, for example, <i>zoo</i>	food, pool, moon, zoo, soon
oo (/ʊ/)		book, took, foot, wood, good
oa	The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.	boat, coat, road, coach, goal
oe		toe, goes
ou	The only common English word ending in ou is <i>you</i> .	out, about, mouth, around, sound
ow (/aʊ/) ow (/əʊ/) ue ew	Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ ('oo' and 'yoo') sounds can be spelt as u-e , ue and ew . If words end in the /oo/ sound, ue and ew are more common spellings than oo .	now, how, brown, down, town own, blow, snow, grow, show blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw
ie (/aɪ/)		lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried
ie (/i:/)		chief, field, thief
igh		high, night, light, bright, right
or		for, short, born, horse, morning
ore		more, score, before, wore, shore
aw		saw, draw, yawn, crawl
au		author, August, dinosaur, astronaut
air		air, fair, pair, hair, chair
ear		dear, hear, beard, near, year
ear (/ɛə/)		bear, pear, wear
are (/ɛə/)		bare, dare, care, share, scared

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

International Phonetic Alphabet (non-statutory)

The table below shows each symbol of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and provides examples of the associated grapheme(s).¹ The table is not a comprehensive alphabetic code chart; it is intended simply as guidance for teachers in understanding the IPA symbols used in the spelling appendix ([English Appendix 1](#)). The pronunciations in the table are, by convention, based on Received Pronunciation and could be significantly different in other accents.

Consonants		Vowels	
/b/	bad	/ɑː/	father, arm
/d/	dog	/ɒ/	hot
/ð/	this	/æ/	cat
/dʒ/	gem, jug	/aɪ/	mind, fine, pie, high
/f/	if, puff, photo	/aʊ/	out, cow
/g/	gum	/ɛ/	hen, head
/h/	how	/eɪ/	say, came, bait
/j/	yes	/ɛə/	air
/k/	cat, check, key, school	/əʊ/	cold, boat, cone, blow
/l/	leg, hill	/ɪ/	hit
/m/	man	/ɪə/	beer
/n/	man	/iː/	she, bead, see, scheme, chief
/ŋ/	sing	/ɔː/	launch, raw, born
/θ/	both	/ɔɪ/	coin, boy
/p/	pet	/ʊ/	book
/r/	red	/ʊə/	tour
/s/	sit, miss, cell	/uː/	room, you, blue, brute
/ʃ/	she, chef	/ʌ/	cup
/t/	tea	/ɜː/	fern, turn, girl
/tʃ/	check	/ə/	farmer
/v/	vet		
/w/	wet, when		
/z/	zip, hens, buzz		
/ʒ/	pleasure		

¹ This chart is adapted slightly from the version provided on the DfE's website to support the Year 1 phonics screening check.

English Appendix 2: Vocabulary, 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 are familiar with a grammatical concept [for example 'modal verb'], they should be encouraged to apply and explore this concept in the grammar of their own speech and writing and to note where it is used by 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 programmes of study as it sets out the 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 labelled as 'terminology for pupils'. 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](#).

Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation – Years 1 to 6

Year 1: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>Regular plural noun suffixes –s or –es [for example, <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun</p> <p>Suffixes that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>)</p> <p>How the prefix un– changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives [negation, for example, <i>unkind</i>, or <i>undoing: untie the boat</i>]</p>
Sentence	<p>How words can combine to make sentences</p> <p>Joining words and joining clauses using <i>and</i></p>
Text	Sequencing sentences to form short narratives
Punctuation	<p>Separation of words with spaces</p> <p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences</p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>letter, capital letter</p> <p>word, singular, plural</p> <p>sentence</p> <p>punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark</p>

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

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

Terms in definitions

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

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active verb has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
adjective	The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.</p>	<i>The pupils did some really good work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] <i>Their work was good.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i> , as its complement] Not adjectives: <i>The lamp glowed.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright red!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke loudly.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French grammar book.</i> [noun]
adverb	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can	<i>Usha soon started snoring loudly.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p><u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u>, an <u>adjective</u>, another adverb or even a whole clause.</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 that can be used as <u>adverbials</u>, such as <u>preposition phrases</u>, <u>noun phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u>.</p>	<p>and <i>snoring</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><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	<p>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 clauses</u>.</p>	<p><i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i>, according to the intended meaning]</p> <p><i>She worked <u>until she had finished</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]</p>
antonym	<p>Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.</p>	<p><i>hot – cold</i></p> <p><i>light – dark</i></p> <p><i>light – heavy</i></p>
apostrophe	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) ▪ marking <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>). 	<p><i><u>I'm</u> 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> [marking possessives]</p>
article	<p>The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of <u>determiner</u>.</p>	<p><i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
auxiliary verb	<p>The auxiliary <u>verbs</u> are: <i>be, have, do</i> and the <u>modal verbs</u>. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>be</i> is used in the <u>progressive</u> and <u>passive</u> ▪ <i>have</i> is used in the <u>perfect</u> ▪ <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present 	<p><i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the progressive]</p> <p><i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]</p> <p><i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> 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 <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]</p>
clause	<p>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>.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u>, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]</p> <p><i><u>If you are coming to the party</u>, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]</p> <p><i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]</p>
cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <u>Cohesive devices</u> can help to do this.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>A visit has been arranged for Year 6, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and a <i>nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, the children will follow <i>the trail</i>.</p>
cohesive device	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear ▪ <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words. 	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
		<i>Where are you going? [] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i> ; links the answer back to the question]
complement	A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject , and its object complement does the same for its object . Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.	<i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>] <i>They seem very <u>competent</u>.</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 root words in its morphology ; e.g. <i>whiteboard, superman</i> . Compounding is very important in English.	<i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow</i>
conjunction	A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of conjunctions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair ▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair] <i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair] <i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause] <i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]
consonant	A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth. Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowel 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 conjunction (i.e. <i>and, but, or</i>). In the examples on the right, the co-	<i>Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair] <i>They talked <u>and</u> drank tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>ordinated elements are shown in bold, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p>pair]</p> <p>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked. [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
determiner	<p>A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ articles (<i>the, a or an</i>) ▪ demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>) ▪ possessives (e.g. <i>my, your</i>) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>). 	<p><i>the home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><i>a good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><i>that pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><i>Julia's parents</i> [possessive, known]</p> <p><i>some big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
digraph	<p>A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme.</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>each</u> is pronounced /i:/.</p> <p>The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>shed</u> is pronounced /ʃ/.</p> <p>The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>line</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
ellipsis	<p>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</p>	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i></p> <p><i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i></p>
etymology	<p>A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.</p>	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholé</i>) meaning 'leisure'.</p> <p>The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i>, meaning 'word'.</p> <p>The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i>, meaning 'sheep'.</p>
finite verb	<p>Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite.</p>	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	<p><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser! [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ I have <u>done</u> them. [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>] ▪ I will <u>do</u> them. [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>] ▪ I want to <u>do</u> them! [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]
fronting, fronted	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been ‘fronted’. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you’ve got a pencil.</p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>Make sure you’ve got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I’m visiting my granddad.</p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>I’m visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
future	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb.</p> <p>See also tense.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct ‘future tense’ form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.</p>	<p>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow. [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow. [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow. [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow. [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p>
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	<p>The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>te</u>n, be<u>t</u> and a<u>te</u> corresponds to the phoneme /t/.</p> <p>The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word do<u>lphin</u> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	<p>The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent.</p> <p>In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>s</u> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>se</u>e, but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word ea<u>sy</u>.</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
head	See phrase .	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>.</i> <i>Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i> <i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk</i> , <i>be</i>). Infinitives are often used: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ after <i>to</i> ▪ after modal verbs. 	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of morphology produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. past tense or plural). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same word family . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> . <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' transitive verb '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
main clause	A sentence contains at least one clause which is not a subordinate clause ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i><u>It was raining but the sun was shining.</u></i> [two main clauses] <i><u>The man who wrote it told me that it was true.</u></i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] <i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs . They can express meanings such as certainty,	<i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i>.</p> <p>A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing – he sings</i>, but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).</p>	<p>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</p> <p>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</p> <p>Canning swim is important. [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i>, where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]</p>
modify, modifier	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a phrase, the ‘modifier’ is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) ▪ <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	<p>A word’s morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i>.</p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. <i>boy – boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy – boyish</i>) belonging to the same word family.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog + s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>unhelpful + ness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un + helpful</i> ▪ and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help + ful</i>
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after determiners such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The ___ matters/matter.”</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called ‘naming words’ because they name people, places and ‘things’; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name ‘things’ such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or non-countable (e.g. <i>stuff</i>,</p>	<p>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</p> <p>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</p> <p><u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.</p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <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>common, countable: <i>a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u></i></p> <p>common, non-countable: <i><u>money</u>, some</i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	money). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	<u>chocolate</u> , less <u>imagination</u> proper, countable: <u>Marilyn</u> , <u>London</u> , <u>Wednesday</u>
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 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. [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i> , so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase] <u>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area</u> can jump. [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i> , 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 <u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u>).	Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u> . [noun acting as object] <i>I like <u>that</u></i> . [pronoun acting as object] Some people suggested <u>a pretty display</u> . [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>A display was suggested</i>. [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] ▪ <i>Year 2 designed pretty</i>. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
participle	Verbs in English have two participles, called ‘present participle’ (e.g. <i>walking</i> , <i>taking</i>) and ‘past participle’ (e.g. <i>walked</i> , <i>taken</i>). Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 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>). 	<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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i> ▪ the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u> 	<i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school</i> . <i>Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus</i> . Active versions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The school arranged a visit</i>. ▪ <i>A bus ran over our cat</i>.

Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional preposition phrase with <i>by</i> as its head the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. <p>Contrast active.</p> <p>A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p>Not passive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>] <i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]
past tense	<p>Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> talk about the past talk about imagined situations make a request sound more polite. <p>Most verbs take a suffix <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>
perfect	<p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> turning the verb into its past participle inflection adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it. <p>It can also be combined with the progressive (e.g. <i>he has been going</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now she has 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>
phoneme	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>/t/</i> contrasts with <i>/k/</i> to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> 	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: <i>/kæt/</i></p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: <i>/kɑtʃ/</i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ /t/ contrasts with // to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>. <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	<p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔ:t/</p>
phrase	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the ‘head’. The phrase is a noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her</u> mother.</i> [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head]</p> <p><i>She waved <u>to her</u> mother.</i> [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head]</p> <p><i><u>She waved to her mother.</u></i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
plural	<p>A plural noun normally has a suffix –s or –es and means ‘more than one’.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box]</p> <p><i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]</p>
possessive	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without s ▪ a possessive pronoun. <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of ‘possession’. A possessive may act as a determiner.</p>	<p><i><u>Tariq’s</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><i>The <u>boys’</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive]</p> <p><i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]</p> <p><i>That essay is <u>mine</u>.</i> [I wrote the essay]</p>
prefix	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast suffix.</p>	<p><i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i></p>
preposition	<p>A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She’ll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.</p> <p>Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.</p>	<p><i>I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i></p> <p>Contrast: <i>I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]</p>
preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	<p><i>He was <u>in bed</u>.</i></p> <p><i>I met them <u>after the party</u>.</i></p>
present tense	<p>Verbs in the present tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the future. <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the subject).</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now]</p> <p><i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now]</p> <p><i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]</p>
progressive	The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a verb generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present participle (e.g. <i>singing</i>) with a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i>). The progressive can also be combined with the perfect (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i>).	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive]</p> <p><i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive]</p> <p><i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]</p>
pronoun	<p>Pronouns are normally used like nouns, except that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ it is harder to modify them <p>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.</p>	<p>Amanda waved to Michael.</p> <p><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</p> <p>John's mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</p> <p>The visit will be an overnight visit. <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit.</p> <p><u>Simon</u> is the person: Simon broke it.</p> <p><u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</p>
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	<i><u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long."</u> Mum said.</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	
Received Pronunciation	Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is used only by a small minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.	
register	Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are ‘varieties’ of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	<p><i>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.</i> [formal letter]</p> <p><i>Have you heard that Joe has died?</i> [casual speech]</p> <p><i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.</i> [stage direction]</p>
relative clause	<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.</p>	<p><i>That’s the boy who lives near school.</i> [who refers back to boy]</p> <p><i>The prize that I won was a book.</i> [that refers back to prize]</p> <p><i>The prize I won was a book.</i> [the pronoun that is omitted]</p> <p><i>Tom broke the game, which annoyed Ali.</i> [which refers back to the whole clause]</p>
root word	<u>Morphology</u> breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> which can’t. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its <u>word family</u> such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i> , and also for its <u>inflections</u> such as <i>helping</i> . <u>Compound</u> words (e.g. <i>help-desk</i>) contain two or	<p><i>played</i> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><i>unfair</i> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p> <p><i>football</i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.</p>	
<p>schwa</p>	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/əldŋ/ [<u>a</u>long] /bʌtə/ [<u>u</u>tter] /dɒktə/ [<u>o</u>ctor]</p>
<p>sentence</p>	<p>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence.</p> <p>The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</u></p> <p><i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement] <i>Are you my friend?</i> [question] <i>Be my friend!</i> [command] <i>What a good friend you are!</i> [exclamation]</p> <p><i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]</p>
<p>split digraph</p>	<p>See digraph.</p>	
<p>Standard English</p>	<p>Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i>, <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor</p>	<p><i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]</p> <p><i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]</p> <p><i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more</i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most registers. The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.</p>	<p><i>work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>
stress	<p>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><i><u>about</u></i> <i><u>visit</u></i></p>
subject	<p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb’s object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am, you are</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>Rula’s mother</u> went out.</i> <i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i> <i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i> <i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>
subjunctive	<p>In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called ‘subjunctives’. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.</p>	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> <i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i></p>
subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p>	<p><i><u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]</i> <i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</i> <i>We can watch TV <u>when we’ve finished</u>.</i> [when we’ve finished is subordinate to watch]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	See also subordinate clause .	
subordinate clause	<p>A clause which is subordinate to some other part of the same sentence is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The apple that I ate was sour</i>, the clause <i>that I ate</i> is subordinate to <i>apple</i> (which it modifies). Subordinate clauses contrast with co-ordinate clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i>. (Contrast: main clause)</p> <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> <p>Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, "<u>Look out!</u>"</i></p>
suffix	<p>A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike root words, suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word.</p> <p>Contrast prefix.</p>	<p><i>call – <u>called</u></i></p> <p><i>teach – <u>teacher</u></i> [turns a verb into a noun]</p> <p><i>terror – <u>terrorise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb]</p> <p><i>green – <u>greenish</u></i> [leaves word class unchanged]</p>
syllable	<p>A syllable sounds like a beat in a word. Syllables consist of at least one vowel, and possibly one or more consonants.</p>	<p><i>Cat</i> has one syllable.</p> <p><i>Fairy</i> has two syllables.</p> <p><i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.</p>
synonym	<p>Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast antonym.</p>	<p><i>talk – speak</i></p> <p><i>old – elderly</i></p>
tense	<p>In English, tense is the choice between present and past verbs, which is special because it is signalled by inflections and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including a future tense. (See also: future.)</p> <p>The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive.</p>	<p><i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense – present time]</p> <p><i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense – past time]</p> <p><i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense – future time]</p> <p><i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]</p> <p><i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]</p> <p><i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
		future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb , which does not.	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme .	<i>High, <u>pure</u>, <u>patch</u>, <u>hedge</u></i>
unstressed	See stressed .	
verb	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense , either present or past (see also future). Verbs are sometimes called ‘doing words’ because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions. Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary , or modal ; as transitive or intransitive ; and as states or events.	<i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action] <i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action] Not verbs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] ▪ <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]
vowel	A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract. Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants . In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.	
word	A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces. Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe	<i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u></i> [can be written with or without a space] <i><u>I’m</u> going out.</i> <i><u>9.30 am</u></i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	(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.	<i>teach – teacher</i> <i>extend – extent – extensive</i> <i>grammar – grammatical – grammarian</i>

Mathematics

Purpose of study

Mathematics is a creative and highly inter-connected discipline that has been developed over centuries, providing the solution to some of history's most intriguing problems. It is essential to everyday life, critical to science, technology and engineering, and necessary for financial literacy and most forms of employment. A high-quality mathematics education therefore provides a foundation for understanding the world, the ability to reason mathematically, an appreciation of the beauty and power of mathematics, and a sense of enjoyment and curiosity about the subject.

Aims

The national curriculum for mathematics aims to ensure that all pupils:

- become **fluent** in the fundamentals of mathematics, including through varied and frequent practice with increasingly complex problems over time, so that pupils develop conceptual understanding and the ability to recall and apply knowledge rapidly and accurately.
- **reason mathematically** by following a line of enquiry, conjecturing relationships and generalisations, and developing an argument, justification or proof using mathematical language
- can **solve problems** by applying their mathematics to a variety of routine and non-routine problems with increasing sophistication, including breaking down problems into a series of simpler steps and persevering in seeking solutions.

Mathematics is an interconnected subject in which pupils need to be able to move fluently between representations of mathematical ideas. The programmes of study are, by necessity, organised into apparently distinct domains, but pupils should make rich connections across mathematical ideas to develop fluency, mathematical reasoning and competence in solving increasingly sophisticated problems. They should also apply their mathematical knowledge to science and other subjects.

The expectation is that the majority of pupils will move through the programmes of study at broadly the same pace. However, decisions about when to progress should always be based on the security of pupils' understanding and their readiness to progress to the next stage. Pupils who grasp concepts rapidly should be challenged through being offered rich and sophisticated problems before any acceleration through new content. Those who are not sufficiently fluent with earlier material should consolidate their understanding, including through additional practice, before moving on.

Information and communication technology (ICT)

Calculators should not be used as a substitute for good written and mental arithmetic. They should therefore only be introduced near the end of key stage 2 to support pupils' conceptual understanding and exploration of more complex number problems, if written and mental arithmetic are secure. In both primary and secondary schools, teachers should use their judgement about when ICT tools should be used.

Spoken language

The national curriculum for mathematics reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are key factors in developing their mathematical vocabulary and presenting a mathematical justification, argument or proof. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions.

School curriculum

The programmes of study for mathematics are set out year-by-year for key stages 1 and 2. Schools are, however, only required to teach the relevant programme of study by the end of the key stage. Within each key stage, schools therefore have the flexibility to introduce content earlier or later than set out in the programme of study. In addition, schools can introduce key stage content during an earlier key stage, if appropriate. All schools are also required to set out their school curriculum for mathematics on a year-by-year basis and make this information available online.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets] or the content indicated as being 'non-statutory'.

Key stage 1 – years 1 and 2

The principal focus of mathematics teaching in key stage 1 is to ensure that pupils develop confidence and mental fluency with whole numbers, counting and place value. This should involve working with numerals, words and the four operations, including with practical resources [for example, concrete objects and measuring tools].

At this stage, pupils should develop their ability to recognise, describe, draw, compare and sort different shapes and use the related vocabulary. Teaching should also involve using a range of measures to describe and compare different quantities such as length, mass, capacity/volume, time and money.

By the end of year 2, pupils should know the number bonds to 20 and be precise in using and understanding place value. An emphasis on practice at this early stage will aid fluency.

Pupils should read and spell mathematical vocabulary, at a level consistent with their increasing word reading and spelling knowledge at key stage 1.

Year 1 programme of study

Number – number and place value

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- count to and across 100, forwards and backwards, beginning with 0 or 1, or from any given number
- count, read and write numbers to 100 in numerals; count in multiples of twos, fives and tens
- given a number, identify one more and one less
- identify and represent numbers using objects and pictorial representations including the number line, and use the language of: equal to, more than, less than (fewer), most, least
- read and write numbers from 1 to 20 in numerals and words.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils practise counting (1, 2, 3...), ordering (for example, first, second, third...), and to indicate a quantity (for example, 3 apples, 2 centimetres), including solving simple concrete problems, until they are fluent.

Pupils begin to recognise place value in numbers beyond 20 by reading, writing, counting and comparing numbers up to 100, supported by objects and pictorial representations.

They practise counting as reciting numbers and counting as enumerating objects, and counting in twos, fives and tens from different multiples to develop their recognition of patterns in the number system (for example, odd and even numbers), including varied and frequent practice through increasingly complex questions.

They recognise and create repeating patterns with objects and with shapes.

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- read, write and interpret mathematical statements involving addition (+), subtraction (–) and equals (=) signs
- represent and use number bonds and related subtraction facts within 20
- add and subtract one-digit and two-digit numbers to 20, including zero
- solve one-step problems that involve addition and subtraction, using concrete objects and pictorial representations, and missing number problems such as $7 = \square - 9$.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils memorise and reason with number bonds to 10 and 20 in several forms (for example, $9 + 7 = 16$; $16 - 7 = 9$; $7 = 16 - 9$). They should realise the effect of adding or subtracting zero. This establishes addition and subtraction as related operations.

Pupils combine and increase numbers, counting forwards and backwards.

They discuss and solve problems in familiar practical contexts, including using quantities.

Problems should include the terms: put together, add, altogether, total, take away, distance between, difference between, more than and less than, so that pupils develop the concept of addition and subtraction and are enabled to use these operations flexibly.

Number – multiplication and division

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- solve one-step problems involving multiplication and division, by calculating the answer using concrete objects, pictorial representations and arrays with the support of the teacher.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Through grouping and sharing small quantities, pupils begin to understand: multiplication and division; doubling numbers and quantities; and finding simple fractions of objects, numbers and quantities.

They make connections between arrays, number patterns, and counting in twos, fives and tens.

Number – fractions

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- recognise, find and name a half as one of two equal parts of an object, shape or quantity
- recognise, find and name a quarter as one of four equal parts of an object, shape or quantity.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils are taught half and quarter as 'fractions of' discrete and continuous quantities by solving problems using shapes, objects and quantities. For example, they could recognise and find half a length, quantity, set of objects or shape. Pupils connect halves and quarters to the equal sharing and grouping of sets of objects and to measures, as well as recognising and combining halves and quarters as parts of a whole.

Measurement

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- compare, describe and solve practical problems for:
 - lengths and heights [for example, long/short, longer/shorter, tall/short, double/half]

Statutory requirements

- mass/weight [for example, heavy/light, heavier than, lighter than]
- capacity and volume [for example, full/empty, more than, less than, half, half full, quarter]
- time [for example, quicker, slower, earlier, later]
- measure and begin to record the following:
 - lengths and heights
 - mass/weight
 - capacity and volume
 - time (hours, minutes, seconds)
- recognise and know the value of different denominations of coins and notes
- sequence events in chronological order using language [for example, before and after, next, first, today, yesterday, tomorrow, morning, afternoon and evening]
- recognise and use language relating to dates, including days of the week, weeks, months and years
- tell the time to the hour and half past the hour and draw the hands on a clock face to show these times.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

The pairs of terms: mass and weight, volume and capacity, are used interchangeably at this stage.

Pupils move from using and comparing different types of quantities and measures using non-standard units, including discrete (for example, counting) and continuous (for example, liquid) measurement, to using manageable common standard units.

In order to become familiar with standard measures, pupils begin to use measuring tools such as a ruler, weighing scales and containers.

Pupils use the language of time, including telling the time throughout the day, first using o'clock and then half past.

Geometry – properties of shapes

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- recognise and name common 2-D and 3-D shapes, including:
 - 2-D shapes [for example, rectangles (including squares), circles and triangles]

Statutory requirements

- 3-D shapes [for example, cuboids (including cubes), pyramids and spheres].

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils handle common 2-D and 3-D shapes, naming these and related everyday objects fluently. They recognise these shapes in different orientations and sizes, and know that rectangles, triangles, cuboids and pyramids are not always similar to each other.

Geometry – position and direction

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- describe position, direction and movement, including whole, half, quarter and three-quarter turns.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils use the language of position, direction and motion, including: left and right, top, middle and bottom, on top of, in front of, above, between, around, near, close and far, up and down, forwards and backwards, inside and outside.

Pupils make whole, half, quarter and three-quarter turns in both directions and connect turning clockwise with movement on a clock face.

Science

Purpose of study

A high-quality science education provides the foundations for understanding the world through the specific disciplines of biology, chemistry and physics. Science has changed our lives and is vital to the world's future prosperity, and all pupils should be taught essential aspects of the knowledge, methods, processes and uses of science. Through building up a body of key foundational knowledge and concepts, pupils should be encouraged to recognise the power of rational explanation and develop a sense of excitement and curiosity about natural phenomena. They should be encouraged to understand how science can be used to explain what is occurring, predict how things will behave, and analyse causes.

Aims

The national curriculum for science aims to ensure that all pupils:

- develop **scientific knowledge and conceptual understanding** through the specific disciplines of biology, chemistry and physics
- develop understanding of the **nature, processes and methods of science** through different types of science enquiries that help them to answer scientific questions about the world around them
- are equipped with the scientific knowledge required to understand the **uses and implications** of science, today and for the future.

Scientific knowledge and conceptual understanding

The programmes of study describe a sequence of knowledge and concepts. While it is important that pupils make progress, it is also vitally important that they develop secure understanding of each key block of knowledge and concepts in order to progress to the next stage. Insecure, superficial understanding will not allow genuine progression: pupils may struggle at key points of transition (such as between primary and secondary school), build up serious misconceptions, and/or have significant difficulties in understanding higher-order content.

Pupils should be able to describe associated processes and key characteristics in common language, but they should also be familiar with, and use, technical terminology accurately and precisely. They should build up an extended specialist vocabulary. They should also apply their mathematical knowledge to their understanding of science, including collecting, presenting and analysing data. The social and economic implications of science are important but, generally, they are taught most appropriately within the wider school curriculum: teachers will wish to use different contexts to maximise their pupils' engagement with and motivation to study science.

The nature, processes and methods of science

‘Working scientifically’ specifies the understanding of the nature, processes and methods of science for each year group. It should not be taught as a separate strand. The notes and guidance give examples of how ‘working scientifically’ might be embedded within the content of biology, chemistry and physics, focusing on the key features of scientific enquiry, so that pupils learn to use a variety of approaches to answer relevant scientific questions. These types of scientific enquiry should include: observing over time; pattern seeking; identifying, classifying and grouping; comparative and fair testing (controlled investigations); and researching using secondary sources. Pupils should seek answers to questions through collecting, analysing and presenting data. ‘Working scientifically’ will be developed further at key stages 3 and 4, once pupils have built up sufficient understanding of science to engage meaningfully in more sophisticated discussion of experimental design and control.

Spoken language

The national curriculum for science reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils’ development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are key factors in developing their scientific vocabulary and articulating scientific concepts clearly and precisely. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear, both to themselves and others, and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions.

School curriculum

The programmes of study for science are set out year-by-year for key stages 1 and 2. Schools are, however, only required to teach the relevant programme of study by the end of the key stage. Within each key stage, schools therefore have the flexibility to introduce content earlier or later than set out in the programme of study. In addition, schools can introduce key stage content during an earlier key stage if appropriate. All schools are also required to set out their school curriculum for science on a year-by-year basis and make this information available online.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the content indicated as being ‘non-statutory’.

Key stage 1

The principal focus of science teaching in key stage 1 is to enable pupils to experience and observe phenomena, looking more closely at the natural and humanly-constructed world around them. They should be encouraged to be curious and ask questions about what they notice. They should be helped to develop their understanding of scientific ideas by using different types of scientific enquiry to answer their own questions, including observing changes over a period of time, noticing patterns, grouping and classifying things, carrying out simple comparative tests, and finding things out using secondary sources of information. They should begin to use simple scientific language to talk about what they have found out and communicate their ideas to a range of audiences in a variety of ways. Most of the learning about science should be done through the use of first-hand practical experiences, but there should also be some use of appropriate secondary sources, such as books, photographs and videos.

‘Working scientifically’ is described separately in the programme of study, but must **always** be taught through and clearly related to the teaching of substantive science content in the programme of study. Throughout the notes and guidance, examples show how scientific methods and skills might be linked to specific elements of the content.

Pupils should read and spell scientific vocabulary at a level consistent with their increasing word reading and spelling knowledge at key stage 1.

Key stage 1 programme of study – years 1 and 2

Working scientifically

Statutory requirements

During years 1 and 2, pupils should be taught to use the following practical scientific methods, processes and skills through the teaching of the programme of study content:

- asking simple questions and recognising that they can be answered in different ways
- observing closely, using simple equipment
- performing simple tests
- identifying and classifying
- using their observations and ideas to suggest answers to questions
- gathering and recording data to help in answering questions.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils in years 1 and 2 should explore the world around them and raise their own questions. They should experience different types of scientific enquiries, including practical activities, and begin to recognise ways in which they might answer scientific questions. They should use simple features to compare objects, materials and living things and, with help, decide how to sort and group them, observe changes over time, and, with guidance, they should begin to notice patterns and relationships. They should ask people questions and use simple secondary sources to find answers. They should use simple measurements and equipment (for example, hand lenses, egg timers) to gather data, carry out simple tests, record simple data, and talk about what they have found out and how they found it out. With help, they should record and communicate their findings in a range of ways and begin to use simple scientific language.

These opportunities for working scientifically should be provided across years 1 and 2 so that the expectations in the programme of study can be met by the end of year 2. Pupils are not expected to cover each aspect for every area of study.

Year 1 programme of study

Plants

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- identify and name a variety of common wild and garden plants, including deciduous and evergreen trees
- identify and describe the basic structure of a variety of common flowering plants, including trees.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should use the local environment throughout the year to explore and answer questions about plants growing in their habitat. Where possible, they should observe the growth of flowers and vegetables that they have planted.

They should become familiar with common names of flowers, examples of deciduous and evergreen trees, and plant structures (including leaves, flowers (blossom), petals, fruit, roots, bulb, seed, trunk, branches, stem).

Pupils might work scientifically by: observing closely, perhaps using magnifying glasses, and comparing and contrasting familiar plants; describing how they were able to identify and group them, and drawing diagrams showing the parts of different plants including trees. Pupils might keep records of how plants have changed over time, for example the leaves falling off trees and buds opening; and compare and contrast what they have found out about different plants.

Animals, including humans

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- identify and name a variety of common animals including fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals
- identify and name a variety of common animals that are carnivores, herbivores and omnivores

Statutory requirements

- describe and compare the structure of a variety of common animals (fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals, including pets)
- identify, name, draw and label the basic parts of the human body and say which part of the body is associated with each sense.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should use the local environment throughout the year to explore and answer questions about animals in their habitat. They should understand how to take care of animals taken from their local environment and the need to return them safely after study. Pupils should become familiar with the common names of some fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals, including those that are kept as pets.

Pupils should have plenty of opportunities to learn the names of the main body parts (including head, neck, arms, elbows, legs, knees, face, ears, eyes, hair, mouth, teeth) through games, actions, songs and rhymes.

Pupils might work scientifically by: using their observations to compare and contrast animals at first hand or through videos and photographs, describing how they identify and group them; grouping animals according to what they eat; and using their senses to compare different textures, sounds and smells.

Everyday materials

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- distinguish between an object and the material from which it is made
- identify and name a variety of everyday materials, including wood, plastic, glass, metal, water, and rock
- describe the simple physical properties of a variety of everyday materials
- compare and group together a variety of everyday materials on the basis of their simple physical properties.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should explore, name, discuss and raise and answer questions about everyday materials so that they become familiar with the names of materials and properties such as: hard/soft; stretchy/stiff; shiny/dull; rough/smooth; bendy/not bendy; waterproof/not waterproof; absorbent/not absorbent; opaque/transparent. Pupils should explore and experiment with a wide variety of materials, not only those listed in the programme of study, but including for example: brick, paper, fabrics, elastic, foil.

Pupils might work scientifically by: performing simple tests to explore questions, for example: 'What is the best material for an umbrella? ...for lining a dog basket? ...for curtains? ...for a bookshelf? ...for a gymnast's leotard?'

Seasonal changes

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- observe changes across the four seasons
- observe and describe weather associated with the seasons and how day length varies.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should observe and talk about changes in the weather and the seasons.

Note: Pupils should be warned that it is not safe to look directly at the Sun, even when wearing dark glasses.

Pupils might work scientifically by: making tables and charts about the weather; and making displays of what happens in the world around them, including day length, as the seasons change.

Art and design

Purpose of study

Art, craft and design embody some of the highest forms of human creativity. A high-quality art and design education should engage, inspire and challenge pupils, equipping them with the knowledge and skills to experiment, invent and create their own works of art, craft and design. As pupils progress, they should be able to think critically and develop a more rigorous understanding of art and design. They should also know how art and design both reflect and shape our history, and contribute to the culture, creativity and wealth of our nation.

Aims

The national curriculum for art and design aims to ensure that all pupils:

- produce creative work, exploring their ideas and recording their experiences
- become proficient in drawing, painting, sculpture and other art, craft and design techniques
- evaluate and analyse creative works using the language of art, craft and design
- know about great artists, craft makers and designers, and understand the historical and cultural development of their art forms.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets].

Subject content

Key stage I

Pupils should be taught:

- to use a range of materials creatively to design and make products
- to use drawing, painting and sculpture to develop and share their ideas, experiences and imagination
- to develop a wide range of art and design techniques in using colour, pattern, texture, line, shape, form and space
- about the work of a range of artists, craft makers and designers, describing the differences and similarities between different practices and disciplines, and making links to their own work.

Computing

Purpose of study

A high-quality computing education equips pupils to use computational thinking and creativity to understand and change the world. Computing has deep links with mathematics, science, and design and technology, and provides insights into both natural and artificial systems. The core of computing is computer science, in which pupils are taught the principles of information and computation, how digital systems work, and how to put this knowledge to use through programming. Building on this knowledge and understanding, pupils are equipped to use information technology to create programs, systems and a range of content. Computing also ensures that pupils become digitally literate – able to use, and express themselves and develop their ideas through, information and communication technology – at a level suitable for the future workplace and as active participants in a digital world.

Aims

The national curriculum for computing aims to ensure that all pupils:

- can understand and apply the fundamental principles and concepts of computer science, including abstraction, logic, algorithms and data representation
- can analyse problems in computational terms, and have repeated practical experience of writing computer programs in order to solve such problems
- can evaluate and apply information technology, including new or unfamiliar technologies, analytically to solve problems
- are responsible, competent, confident and creative users of information and communication technology.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets].

Subject content

Key stage I

Pupils should be taught to:

- understand what algorithms are; how they are implemented as programs on digital devices; and that programs execute by following precise and unambiguous instructions
- create and debug simple programs
- use logical reasoning to predict the behaviour of simple programs
- use technology purposefully to create, organise, store, manipulate and retrieve digital content
- recognise common uses of information technology beyond school
- use technology safely and respectfully, keeping personal information private; identify where to go for help and support when they have concerns about content or contact on the internet or other online technologies.

Design and technology

Purpose of study

Design and technology is an inspiring, rigorous and practical subject. Using creativity and imagination, pupils design and make products that solve real and relevant problems within a variety of contexts, considering their own and others' needs, wants and values. They acquire a broad range of subject knowledge and draw on disciplines such as mathematics, science, engineering, computing and art. Pupils learn how to take risks, becoming resourceful, innovative, enterprising and capable citizens. Through the evaluation of past and present design and technology, they develop a critical understanding of its impact on daily life and the wider world. High-quality design and technology education makes an essential contribution to the creativity, culture, wealth and well-being of the nation.

Aims

The national curriculum for design and technology aims to ensure that all pupils:

- develop the creative, technical and practical expertise needed to perform everyday tasks confidently and to participate successfully in an increasingly technological world
- build and apply a repertoire of knowledge, understanding and skills in order to design and make high-quality prototypes and products for a wide range of users
- critique, evaluate and test their ideas and products and the work of others
- understand and apply the principles of nutrition and learn how to cook.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets].

Subject content

Key stage I

Through a variety of creative and practical activities, pupils should be taught the knowledge, understanding and skills needed to engage in an iterative process of designing and making. They should work in a range of relevant contexts [for example, the home and school, gardens and playgrounds, the local community, industry and the wider environment].

When designing and making, pupils should be taught to:

Design

- design purposeful, functional, appealing products for themselves and other users based on design criteria
- generate, develop, model and communicate their ideas through talking, drawing, templates, mock-ups and, where appropriate, information and communication technology

Make

- select from and use a range of tools and equipment to perform practical tasks [for example, cutting, shaping, joining and finishing]
- select from and use a wide range of materials and components, including construction materials, textiles and ingredients, according to their characteristics

Evaluate

- explore and evaluate a range of existing products
- evaluate their ideas and products against design criteria

Technical knowledge

- build structures, exploring how they can be made stronger, stiffer and more stable
- explore and use mechanisms [for example, levers, sliders, wheels and axles], in their products.

Cooking and nutrition

As part of their work with food, pupils should be taught how to cook and apply the principles of nutrition and healthy eating. Instilling a love of cooking in pupils will also open a door to one of the great expressions of human creativity. Learning how to cook is a crucial life skill that enables pupils to feed themselves and others affordably and well, now and in later life.

Pupils should be taught to:

Key stage 1

- use the basic principles of a healthy and varied diet to prepare dishes
- understand where food comes from.

Geography

Purpose of study

A high-quality geography education should inspire in pupils a curiosity and fascination about the world and its people that will remain with them for the rest of their lives. Teaching should equip pupils with knowledge about diverse places, people, resources and natural and human environments, together with a deep understanding of the Earth's key physical and human processes. As pupils progress, their growing knowledge about the world should help them to deepen their understanding of the interaction between physical and human processes, and of the formation and use of landscapes and environments. Geographical knowledge, understanding and skills provide the frameworks and approaches that explain how the Earth's features at different scales are shaped, interconnected and change over time.

Aims

The national curriculum for geography aims to ensure that all pupils:

- develop contextual knowledge of the location of globally significant places – both terrestrial and marine – including their defining physical and human characteristics and how these provide a geographical context for understanding the actions of processes
- understand the processes that give rise to key physical and human geographical features of the world, how these are interdependent and how they bring about spatial variation and change over time
- are competent in the geographical skills needed to:
 - collect, analyse and communicate with a range of data gathered through experiences of fieldwork that deepen their understanding of geographical processes
 - interpret a range of sources of geographical information, including maps, diagrams, globes, aerial photographs and Geographical Information Systems (GIS)
 - communicate geographical information in a variety of ways, including through maps, numerical and quantitative skills and writing at length.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets].

Subject content

Key stage I

Pupils should develop knowledge about the world, the United Kingdom and their locality. They should understand basic subject-specific vocabulary relating to human and physical geography and begin to use geographical skills, including first-hand observation, to enhance their locational awareness.

Pupils should be taught to:

Locational knowledge

- name and locate the world's seven continents and five oceans
- name, locate and identify characteristics of the four countries and capital cities of the United Kingdom and its surrounding seas

Place knowledge

- understand geographical similarities and differences through studying the human and physical geography of a small area of the United Kingdom, and of a small area in a contrasting non-European country

Human and physical geography

- identify seasonal and daily weather patterns in the United Kingdom and the location of hot and cold areas of the world in relation to the Equator and the North and South Poles
- use basic geographical vocabulary to refer to:
 - key physical features, including: beach, cliff, coast, forest, hill, mountain, sea, ocean, river, soil, valley, vegetation, season and weather
 - key human features, including: city, town, village, factory, farm, house, office, port, harbour and shop

Geographical skills and fieldwork

- use world maps, atlases and globes to identify the United Kingdom and its countries, as well as the countries, continents and oceans studied at this key stage
- use simple compass directions (North, South, East and West) and locational and directional language [for example, near and far; left and right], to describe the location of features and routes on a map
- use aerial photographs and plan perspectives to recognise landmarks and basic human and physical features; devise a simple map; and use and construct basic symbols in a key
- use simple fieldwork and observational skills to study the geography of their school and its grounds and the key human and physical features of its surrounding environment.

History

Purpose of study

A high-quality history education will help pupils gain a coherent knowledge and understanding of Britain's past and that of the wider world. It should inspire pupils' curiosity to know more about the past. Teaching should equip pupils to ask perceptive questions, think critically, weigh evidence, sift arguments, and develop perspective and judgement. History helps pupils to understand the complexity of people's lives, the process of change, the diversity of societies and relationships between different groups, as well as their own identity and the challenges of their time.

Aims

The national curriculum for history aims to ensure that all pupils:

- know and understand the history of these islands as a coherent, chronological narrative, from the earliest times to the present day: how people's lives have shaped this nation and how Britain has influenced and been influenced by the wider world
- know and understand significant aspects of the history of the wider world: the nature of ancient civilisations; the expansion and dissolution of empires; characteristic features of past non-European societies; achievements and follies of mankind
- gain and deploy a historically grounded understanding of abstract terms such as 'empire', 'civilisation', 'parliament' and 'peasantry'
- understand historical concepts such as continuity and change, cause and consequence, similarity, difference and significance, and use them to make connections, draw contrasts, analyse trends, frame historically-valid questions and create their own structured accounts, including written narratives and analyses
- understand the methods of historical enquiry, including how evidence is used rigorously to make historical claims, and discern how and why contrasting arguments and interpretations of the past have been constructed
- gain historical perspective by placing their growing knowledge into different contexts, understanding the connections between local, regional, national and international history; between cultural, economic, military, political, religious and social history; and between short- and long-term timescales.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets] or the content indicated as being ‘non-statutory’.

Subject content

Key stage 1

Pupils should develop an awareness of the past, using common words and phrases relating to the passing of time. They should know where the people and events they study fit within a chronological framework and identify similarities and differences between ways of life in different periods. They should use a wide vocabulary of everyday historical terms. They should ask and answer questions, choosing and using parts of stories and other sources to show that they know and understand key features of events. They should understand some of the ways in which we find out about the past and identify different ways in which it is represented.

In planning to ensure the progression described above through teaching about the people, events and changes outlined below, teachers are often introducing pupils to historical periods that they will study more fully at key stages 2 and 3.

Pupils should be taught about:

- changes within living memory. Where appropriate, these should be used to reveal aspects of change in national life
- events beyond living memory that are significant nationally or globally [for example, the Great Fire of London, the first aeroplane flight or events commemorated through festivals or anniversaries]
- the lives of significant individuals in the past who have contributed to national and international achievements. Some should be used to compare aspects of life in different periods [for example, Elizabeth I and Queen Victoria, Christopher Columbus and Neil Armstrong, William Caxton and Tim Berners-Lee, Pieter Bruegel the Elder and LS Lowry, Rosa Parks and Emily Davison, Mary Seacole and/or Florence Nightingale and Edith Cavell]
- significant historical events, people and places in their own locality.

Music

Purpose of study

Music is a universal language that embodies one of the highest forms of creativity. A high-quality music education should engage and inspire pupils to develop a love of music and their talent as musicians, and so increase their self-confidence, creativity and sense of achievement. As pupils progress, they should develop a critical engagement with music, allowing them to compose, and to listen with discrimination to the best in the musical canon.

Aims

The national curriculum for music aims to ensure that all pupils:

- perform, listen to, review and evaluate music across a range of historical periods, genres, styles and traditions, including the works of the great composers and musicians
- learn to sing and to use their voices, to create and compose music on their own and with others, have the opportunity to learn a musical instrument, use technology appropriately and have the opportunity to progress to the next level of musical excellence
- understand and explore how music is created, produced and communicated, including through the inter-related dimensions: pitch, duration, dynamics, tempo, timbre, texture, structure and appropriate musical notations.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Subject content

Key stage I

Pupils should be taught to:

- use their voices expressively and creatively by singing songs and speaking chants and rhymes
- play tuned and untuned instruments musically
- listen with concentration and understanding to a range of high-quality live and recorded music
- experiment with, create, select and combine sounds using the inter-related dimensions of music.

Physical education

Purpose of study

A high-quality physical education curriculum inspires all pupils to succeed and excel in competitive sport and other physically-demanding activities. It should provide opportunities for pupils to become physically confident in a way which supports their health and fitness. Opportunities to compete in sport and other activities build character and help to embed values such as fairness and respect.

Aims

The national curriculum for physical education aims to ensure that all pupils:

- develop competence to excel in a broad range of physical activities
- are physically active for sustained periods of time
- engage in competitive sports and activities
- lead healthy, active lives.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets].

Subject content

Key stage 1

Pupils should develop fundamental movement skills, become increasingly competent and confident and access a broad range of opportunities to extend their agility, balance and coordination, individually and with others. They should be able to engage in competitive (both against self and against others) and co-operative physical activities, in a range of increasingly challenging situations.

Pupils should be taught to:

- master basic movements including running, jumping, throwing and catching, as well as developing balance, agility and co-ordination, and begin to apply these in a range of activities
- participate in team games, developing simple tactics for attacking and defending
- perform dances using simple movement patterns.

Swimming and water safety

All schools must provide swimming instruction either in key stage 1 or key stage 2.

In particular, pupils should be taught to:

- swim competently, confidently and proficiently over a distance of at least 25 metres
- use a range of strokes effectively [for example, front crawl, backstroke and breaststroke]
- perform safe self-rescue in different water-based situations.

