CONTEXTUAL EXAMPLES OF GRAMMAR REQUIREMENTS FOR KS2

^T indicates required terminology   ^S indicates content introduced at KS1 and consolidated in KS2

Content domain reference	Explanation of terms	Contextual examples
G1: Grammatical terms / word classes		
G1.1: Nouns^{TS}	Nouns are usually called 'naming words'. A common noun is the word used for a class of person, place or thing. A proper noun names a specific person, place or thing. It takes a capital letter. A collective noun is used to label a group of things. *(eg. flock, swarm, team)* An abstract noun is used for things you cannot touch or see. *(eg. beauty, misery)*	The **girl** sat on the **chair**. **John Smith** drove to **Bristol** last **Tuesday**. The **choir** sang beautifully. He was overcome by **sadness**.
G1.2: Verbs^{TS}	A verb is usually seen as a 'doing' or 'being' word. Some verbs can be classified as modal. (See G4.1c below) Verbs are associated with 'tense', usually past or present. (See G4 below)	I **walk** to school every day. Sally **was** very sad.
G1.3: Adjectives^{TS}	An adjective is usually thought of as a word that 'describes' somebody or something. *(eg. old, careful, huge)* They usually come before a noun, or after linking verbs such as *be, get, seem, look*. When we compare two things, we use the comparative form. This is formed by adding *+er* for most one-syllable adjectives and some two-syllable ones *(eg. older, easier)*, and *more* for most two+ syllable words *(eg. more dangerous)*. When we compare more than two things, we use the superlative form. This is formed by adding *+est (eg. smallest, silliest)* or the use of *most (eg. most intelligent)*.	The **old** cottage had a **red** door. Those shoes look **nice**. Andy is quite the **taller** of the twins. She was **more successful** than her sister. London is the **most important** city in England.
G1.4: Conjunctions^T	A conjunction links two words or phrases/clauses together *(e.g. when, before, after, while, so, because)*. Co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions are dealt with below. (See G3.3 and G3.4)	We're not going out **if** the weather is bad. They ate their fish **and** chips.
G1.5: Pronouns^T	Pronouns are used like nouns as they take the place of nouns in order to aid cohesion^T and avoid repetition. Common examples of personal pronouns are *he, him, she, her, it, they, them etc.*	**She** waved to **him**. Jack couldn't wait for Saturday to come. **He** loved watching United play. [avoids repeating Jack]

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G1.5a: Possessive pronouns[T]	The possessive pronouns are *mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs, its.* Notice that they do not an apostrophe.	The crow flapped **its** wings and flew off. Is this book **yours** or **mine**?
G1.5b: Relative pronouns[T]	Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses. (See G3.1a below) They are *who/whom, whose, which, that.*	That's the boy **who** lives next door to me. The thing **that** annoyed me was his silly grin.
G1.6: Adverbs[TS]	Adverbs are best seen as words which 'add to the verb'. They can describe how, where or when an action occurred. Pupils should understand the use of *–ly* in Standard English to turn adjectives into adverbs[S]. *(eg. bad – badly, soft – softly etc.)* These are usually 'how' words or adverbs of manner. Pupils need to be aware that some adjective to adverb transformations do not follow the *-ly* rule. *(eg. good – well, fast – fast, hard – hard etc.)* Adverbs expressing time, place and cause are sometimes overlooked (e.g. *then, next, later, soon, never, always, often, everywhere, away, therefore*) Adverbs can indicate degrees of possibility. *(e.g. perhaps, surely)* Adverbs can be used to give extra meaning to an adjective.	She whispered **quietly** so that nobody could overhear. Jack performed **well** in the test. He worked **hard** for his success. [not hardly] We searched **everywhere** for the missing book. That flimsy building will **surely** topple over in the wind. My best friend is **really** kind.
G1.6a: Adverbials[T]	An adverbial is a word or a phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or a clause.	The bus leaves **in five minutes**. She promised to see him **last night**. She worked **until she had finished**.
G1.7: Prepositions[T]	Prepositions are words to express time, place and cause using prepositions *(e.g. before, after, during, in, because of)* Prepositions are usually followed by a noun phrase. Sometimes prepositions can occur at the end of the clause. (See example) In formal English, the preposition can go before whom or which. (See example)	I left my bag **outside** the classroom. She'll be back **from** Australia **in** two weeks. He jumped **over** the fence. Who did you go out **with**? **To** whom should I address this letter?

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G1.8: Determiners^T	A determiner is placed before a noun (or noun phrase) to identify or 'determine' the noun in some way. Commonly they are the articles *a, an* and *the*. They can also be words like *this/that, these/those*. They can be possessives such as *my/your/his/her/its/our/their*. They can be words which quantify such as *some, any, many, several, every etc.* They can be specific numbers eg. *three, twenty, sixty-two etc.* Pupils should understand the use of the forms *a* or *an* according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel.	He placed **an** egg in **the** bowl. I like **this** hat. They removed **their** boots. There are **several** magazines to choose from. **Six** guards were waiting outside. We say **a** parasol but **an** umbrella.
G1.9: Subject and object^T	In a sentence the subject is the person or thing about which something is said – in other words the 'do-er'. The object (if the sentence has one) is the person or thing affected by the action. Some verbs can have two objects – technically known as the direct and indirect objects. This is not required pupil subject knowledge, but included to illustrate the added complexities of text analysis! Some sentences may not have an object.	**John** kicked the ball. [*John* is the subject.] John kicked **the ball**. [*The ball* is the object.] She gave **her friend** **some money**. [some money – direct object; her friend – indirect object] **Sarah** always lies. [Sarah – subject; no object]
G2: Functions of sentences		
G2.1: Statements^{TS}	A statement is best seen as a sentence that is not a question, exclamation or command.	There are seven days in a week.
G2.2: Questions^{TS}	Questions are self-explanatory. Although usually cued in by such tags as what, how, when etc., questions can be formed by inversion. Questions always end in a question mark.	**What** did you do? You did **what**?
G2.3: Commands^{TS}	Also known as the imperative form, these are sentences used to give instructions or guidance.	Sit down, please. Take the second turning on the left.
G2.4: Exclamations^{TS}	Within the scope of the KS1&2 tests, exclamations are limited to those starting with *what* or *how.* Notice that exclamations, although sentences, do not necessarily have a verb.	What a good friend you are! How wonderful!

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G3: Combining words, phrases and clauses		
G3.1: Sentences[TS] **and clauses**[T]	A sentence is a set of words that is grammatically complete in itself. It makes sense on its own. For example, **It's cold.** is a sentence, whereas **because it's snowing** is not. A sentence can be a statement, question, exclamation or command. A clause is a group of words that expresses an event or situation, and usually consists of a subject and a verb. *eg. dogs bark; if you want; when it's time.* A main clause is complete on its own and therefore (as mentioned above) can form a complete sentence. *eg. It was raining.* (one clause; simple sentence) A subordinate clause cannot exist on its own, but needs to be part of a longer sentence. *eg. when we went out.* (cannot stand on its own, only makes sense as part of a longer sentence)	Today is Wednesday. It's cold. What fun! It was raining **when we went out**. [subordinate clause underlined]
G3.1a: Relative clauses[T]	A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that refers to or modifies a noun. Relative clauses usually begin with a relative pronoun *eg. who, which, where, when, whose, that*, or an omitted relative pronoun.	That's the girl **who lives in Drury Lane.** The prize **that I won** was a book. The prize **I won** was a book. [Notice the relative pronoun *that* has been omitted.]
G3.2: Noun phrases[TS]	A noun phrase is a group of words that takes the place of and acts like a noun. So instead of writing about **foxes** we could expand that to **all adult foxes** or even **all adult foxes in the Taunton area**.	**My little sister** is very cute. Barcelona are **the best team in the whole world**.
G3.3 Co-ordinating conjunctions[S]	Co-ordinating conjunctions are words such as *and, but* and *or*. They are used to link words, phrases or clauses **of equal importance**.	Jack **and** Jill went up the hill. We searched behind the shed **and** under the woodpile. Sue caught a bus **but** Anna cycled.
G3.4 Subordinating conjunctions[S] **and subordinate clauses**[T]	A clause which has less importance than, less weighting than, or is dependent on the main clause in a sentence is referred to as a subordinate clause. It is a clause that cannot stand on its own as a complete sentence, whereas the main clause in a sentence can. *eg. The bull **that charged us** is back in the field.* The subordinate clause *'that charged us'* cannot stand on its own, whereas the main clause *'The bull … is back in the field'* can. Subordinating conjunctions introduce the subordinate clause. They are commonly words such as *because, although, since, after, since, while etc.*	We arrived late **because the bus had broken down**. **Although it was late**, we weren't tired. I fished **until the sun went down**. You will be late for school **unless you eat your breakfast quickly**.

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Content domain reference	Explanation of terms	Contextual examples
G4: Verb forms, tense and consistency		
G4.1a Simple past[T] and simple present[TS]	Tense is the verb form that deals with time ie. When something happens or is happening or has happened. The **simple present** form is: *I play, you laugh, she watches, we run etc.* The **simple past** form is: *I played, you laughed, she watched, we ran etc*. The simple past form is often made by adding –ed to the base verb (*eg. shout – shouted*) but there are irregular forms (*eg. shine – shone*) and in some cases no change (*eg. hit – hit*).	Every day I **walk** to school with my friend. Yesterday I **visited** my gran. Last year we **went** to France for our holidays.
G4.1b: Verbs in the Perfect form	Another way of talking about the past is through the use of the perfect form of verbs. The **present perfect** form is made by taking the ***present tense of the verb 'to have'*** (*eg. I have/she has*) + the ***past participle of the actual verb*** (*eg. played/looked*) The **past perfect** form is made by taking the ***past tense of the verb 'to have'*** (*eg. I had/she had*) + the ***past participle of the actual verb*** (*eg. entered/caught*). The past perfect refers to a time **earlier than before now**. It is used to make it clear that **one event happened before another** in the past. Consider: *I **had saved** my work before the computer crashed.* The use of the past perfect tells us that I had saved my work before the event.	I **have lived** in Bridgwater since 2010. She **has visited** London several times. Mum **had left** by the time I got home. He was tired because he **had not slept** very well.
G4.1c: Modal verbs[T]	Modal verbs are verbs which are used to express such ideas as possibility, ability or obligation. The modal verbs are: *can/could will/would shall/should may/might must/ought* They are a type of auxiliary verb and are followed by the infinitive of the verb. (Nb. Ought is followed by to + infinitive) *eg. can help… might go… will be… ought to eat…*	I **can** help you if you wish. You **should** look after your little brother. It **might** rain tomorrow. I **must** look out for that book.

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G4.1d: Present and past progressive[S]	The progressive (or continuous) forms provide yet another way of talking about things that have or are happening. The **present progressive** form is made by taking the ***present tense of the verb 'to be'*** (*eg. I am/he is/they are etc.*) + the ***present participle of the actual verb*** (*eg. singing/writing/running*). The **past progressive** form is made by taking the ***past tense of the verb 'to be'*** (*eg. I was/they were etc.*) + the ***present participle of the actual verb*** (*eg. laughing/joking etc.*) The past progressive form tends to describe an unfinished or incomplete action from the past.	I **am listening** to every word you say. He usually plays striker, but he **is playing** in defence today. I hope you **are enjoying** our little play. They **were waiting** for the bus when the accident happened. When we arrived he **was having** a bath. I **was watching** TV when I heard a noise outside.
G4.2: Tense consistency	Tense consistency concerns the correct choice and consistent use of present and past tense throughout writing. [Children sometimes slip from the past tense to the present tense in their writing, especially when writing a story.]	I looked out the window and saw a man in the road. He **comes** up the path and **knocks** on the door. [The tense has changed from past to present.]
G4.3: Subjunctive verb Forms	The subjunctive form of a verb tends to be reserved for formal writing and is generally seen as a rather archaic form of writing. The subjunctive is used to express an ***unreal*** or ***hypothetical*** situation that may or may not happen. This is sometimes referred to as the '***were-subjunctive***'. *e.g. If I **were** David Cameron, I'd dump Michael Gove completely.* We'd normally expect 'If I **was** …', but this is a hypothetical situation - I'll never be David Cameron - so the subjunctive (**were**) is used. Cf. "If I Were A Rich Man" from Fiddler on the Roof, and "If I Were A Boy" – Beyonce. The subjunctive is often used after **wish**, for the same reason as above. The general format is **wish** + **were**. *e.g. He wishes he **were** taller.* As an aside, compare the two sentences: I wish it were true.　　　　　　　I hope it is true. ***Wish*** indicates an impossible or unlikely situation so it attracts the subjunctive; ***hope*** indicates a possible or likely situation, so it does not need the subjunctive.	If I **were** you, I'd do it immediately. **Were** I in his shoes, I'd make sure it was finished on time. If Sam **were** the class representative, he would get things done properly. I sometimes wish I **were** you.

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Content domain reference	Explanation of terms	Contextual examples
G4.3: Subjunctive verb Forms*(contd)*	Certain verbs attract the use of the subjunctive, especially in formal language. These are: *to advise (that) to ask (that) to command (that) to demand (that)* *to desire (that) to insist (that) to propose (that) to recommend (that)* *to request (that) to suggest (that) to urge (that)*	The headteacher insists that all pupils **be** honest. The shop-keeper demanded that she **pay** on time. I suggest that the game **begin** at once.
G4.4: Passive[T] **and active**[T]	Many verbs can be put in the active or passive voice. In the ***active voice***, the subject performs the action. *eg. The dog bit Ben*. The subject (the dog) performs the action of biting Ben. Rewritten in the ***passive voice***, this sentence becomes: *Ben was bitten by the dog.* Here the subject (Ben) is on the receiving end. The two sentences give similar information, but there is a shift in focus. The first is about what the dog did; the second is about what happened to Ben. Passive forms are common in in impersonal, formal styles. They remove identification of the 'agent' and allow generalization.	Somebody saw you. (Active) You were seen by somebody. (Passive) Alex rang the bell. (Active) The bell was rung by Alex. (Passive) Mr Jones arranged the trip. (Active) The trip was arranged by Mr Jones. (Passive) Application forms may be obtained from the office. It was recommended that a letter of complaint be sent.

G5: Punctuation

Content domain reference	Explanation of terms	Contextual examples
G5.1: Capital letters[TS]	Capital letters are used to demarcate sentences. Capital letters for names of people, places, the days of the week, months of the year etc. (Proper nouns) The personal pronoun I is always a capital.	**T**his is the first sentence. **T**his sentence comes next. **H**er address is 15 **O**rchard **R**oad, **Y**eovil, **S**omerset. **W**hen we were in **L**ondon we saw **T**ower **B**ridge. **S**am and **I** are best friends.

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G5.2: Full stops^{TS}	Full stops are used to demarcate sentences.	
G5.3: Question marks^{TS}	Question marks are used to demarcate sentences when the sentence is a question. The question mark takes the place of a full-stop in such cases.	
G5.4: Exclamation marks^{TS}	Exclamation marks are to demarcate sentences when the sentence is an exclamation. The exclamation mark takes the place of a full-stop.	
G5.5: Commas in lists^{TS}	Commas are used to separate items in a list. The accepted practice is to use 'and' to separate the final two list items.	In the box were apples, pears, bananas, oranges, lemons and grapes.
G5.6a: Commas^T to clarify meaning	Commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity^T in writing. It sometimes corresponds to a pause in speech. *eg. Soon after the dinner was interrupted by a loud bang.* This becomes clearer with the insertion of a comma. Thus: *Soon after**,** the dinner was interrupted by a loud bang.*	Let's eat Grandma. *or*… Let's eat, Grandma. Jaimie Oliver talks about cooking his family and his dog. Jaimie Oliver talks about cooking, his family and his dog. Stop clubbing baby seals. *or*… Stop clubbing, baby seals.
G5.6b: Commas^T after fronted adverbials	A fronted adverbial is simply an adverbial (see G1.6a above) placed at the beginning of a sentence. When a sentence begins with a fronted adverbial, a comma is used to separate it from the rest of the sentence.	**<u>Before we begin</u>,** make sure you've got a sharp pencil ready. **<u>Without stopping to think</u>,** Tom rushed through the door.
G5.7: Inverted commas^T	Inverted commas^T (or 'speech marks')^T are used to demarcate direct speech^T. Other punctuation to indicate direct speech (*e.g. a comma after the reporting clause and end punctuation within inverted commas*) is needed to ensure clarity. (See examples opposite for correct use of inverted commas, end punctuation and capital letters.) Inverted commas must not be used when writing indirect or reported speech. *eg. Amy said "that she was going home."* This is <u>incorrect</u> as no direct speech is used.	"Stop talking and do your work," said the teacher. The teacher said, "Stop talking and do your work." "Stop talking," said the teacher, "and do your work." "Can I go now?" she asked. "Watch out!" she shouted. "Are you trying to kill us?"

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G5.8: Apostrophes^{TS}	Apostrophes are used to show the omission of one or more letters in contracted forms. *eg. I'm, can't.*
	The new framework uses both the term *omission* and *contraction*.
	
	Apostrophes are used to mark possession in nouns^S.
	eg. Sam's book – the book belonging to Sam
	the cat's whiskers – the whiskers of the cat
	
	Apostrophes are placed after the '-s' in plural nouns which end in '-s'.
	eg. the dogs' collars – the collars of the dogs
	   the boys' coats – the coats belonging to all the boys
	If the plural form is irregular (*eg. children, men etc.*) the possessive is formed as above for the singular.
	eg. the women's shoes – the shoes of the women
	   The mice's tails – the tails of the mice
	
	If the singular noun ends in '-s', there are two schools of thought regarding the position of the apostrophe.
	eg. the poems of John Keats may be written as either Keats' poems or
	   Keats's poems.
		Anna says that **she's** going swimming.
		
		He'll be hoping to win the last race.
		
		The jockey fastened the **horse's** saddle.
		
		Andy borrowed **George's** football boots.
		
		The referee checked all the **players'** boots.
		
		The **babies'** cots were placed in a long line.
		
		The teacher asked to see the **children's** books.
		The **policemen's** helmets were all hanging up.
		
		The Bible has many accounts of **Jesus'** miracles. [or **Jesus's** miracles]

G5.9: Punctuation for parenthesis	Parenthesis is where a word or phrase is inserted into a sentence to explain, elaborate, or add a bit more information as an 'aside'. Brackets^T, dashes^T and commas^T can all be used to indicate parenthesis^T. Brackets are the most formal (and most obvious) way of showing parenthesis. *eg. Sam and Maggie (his two oldest children) are coming to visit him.* Commas are a less forceful way of showing parenthesis but should be avoided if the sentence or aside already contains commas. *eg. Becky is, I believe, the fastest runner in the class.* Dashes are the least formal, often used for notes, memos, e-mails etc. *eg. His trainers – talk about smelly – really were very unpleasant!* The sentence into which the parenthesis is introduced should be grammatically correct in its own right. In other words, if you were to remove the part in parenthesis, the sentence that remains should be grammatically correct.	Many people believe that UFOs **(Unidentified Flying Objects)** regularly visit Earth. Our new headteacher**, Mrs Robertson,** will be taking assembly today. Joe's fun to be with - **he's always cracking jokes** - but I could see that he wasn't himself.

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G5.10: Colons[T]	The main use of a colon is to introduce lists. *eg. The club offered three choices: song & dance, art & craft, outdoor games.* A colon is sometimes used to mark the boundary between independent clauses where the second clause expands or illustrates the first. *eg. He was very cold: the temperature was below zero.* Nb. This is a tricky concept and probably best avoided by the use of a full-stop to construct two separate sentences.	The main ingredients are**: salt, flour, milk, eggs and butter**.
G5.11: Semi-colons[T]	One use of the semi-colon is to separate items in a list if these items consist of longer phrases or have commas in them. *eg. I need large, juicy tomatoes; half a pound of unsalted butter; a kilo of fresh pasta; and a jar of black olives.* A semi-colon can also be used to mark the boundary between independent clauses where the two clauses are closely linked. It acts as a pause which is midway between a comma and a full-stop. *eg. I liked the book; it was a pleasure to read.* However, as with the use of the colon above (see G5.10), this is a tricky concept and probably best avoided by the use of a full-stop to form two separate sentences.	The children had a choice of **snakes and ladders; blind man's bluff; hide 'n' seek; pin the tail on the donkey; or hunt the thimble**. There were competitors who had come from **Paris, France; Berlin, Germany; Rome, Italy; and other major cities.**
G5.12: Single dashes[T]	A single dash is a punctuation mark used especially in informal writing (such as letters to friends, postcards or notes). They can be used to replace other punctuation marks such as colons, semi-colons, commas or brackets. *eg. It was a great day out – everybody enjoyed it.*	Yes, I'll play cricket with you – **as long as I get to bat first**.
G5.13: Hyphens	Hyphens are used to join the two parts of *some* compound words. (Nb. Most compound words are single words *eg. playground*.) *eg. golf-ball proof-read* Hyphens are used in many compound words where the second part is a short word like *–in*, *-off*, *-up*, or *–by*. *eg. a break-in a mix-up a passer-by* Hyphens are also used in compound adjectives or longer phrases modifying nouns. This helps to avoid ambiguity in many cases. *eg. ten-year-old boys is different to ten year-old boys* Hyphens are also used in many words beginning with the prefixes *co-, non-*, and *ex-*. *eg. co-worker non-existent ex-convict*	The boss always wore **well-made** clothes. That poor boy is definitely **accident-prone**. The crashed car was a complete **write-off**. There was a **one-in-a-million** chance of getting it right first time. They were using a **state-of-the-art** computer. She hoped that by **co-operating** with police, the purse could be returned quickly.

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G5.14: Bullet points^T	Bullet points are used to draw attention to important information within a document so that a reader can identify the key issues and facts quickly. They occur in the form of a list. Usually the text introducing the list ends in a colon. The text that follows each bullet point is not a proper sentence and does not need a capital letter or a full-stop.	For Thursday's school trip the children will need to bring: • waterproof clothing in case of rain • notebook and pencil • packed lunch • trainers or walking shoes
6: Vocabulary		
G6.1: Synonyms and antonyms^T	Two words are synonyms if they have the same or similar meanings. Antonyms are words which have the opposite meaning.	talk – speak old – elderly large – big hot – cold dark – light big – small

G6.2: Prefixes^T	A prefix is a word or part of a word added to the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word.
	Adding the prefix **–un** generally forms an antonym.
	
	Many nouns can be generated by the addition of a range of Latin- or Greek -based prefixes.
	
	The verb prefixes (*e.g. dis–, de–, mis–, over–* and *re–*) generate new verbs with different meanings.
		happy – unhappy cover – uncover able – unable
		
		e.g. **super**- (meaning 'greater') gives such words as *superstar, supertanker*
		      anti- (meaning 'against') gives such words as *antifreeze, anticlockwise*
		
		eg. **dis**- forms the antonym, so… for example: appear – disappear like - dislike
		      mis- means 'wrongly' or 'badly', so… spell – misspell handle – mishandle
		      re- means 'again', so… heat – reheat design – redesign

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G6.3: Suffixes[TS]	A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another. The suffixes **–ment, –ness, –er** form nouns from verbs or adjectives. Adjectives can be formed by the addition of the suffixes **–ful** and **–less**. A common way of forming adverbs is by the addition of the suffix **–ly**. Nouns or adjectives can be turned into verbs by the addition of such suffixes as **-ise,** or **-ify**. The regular rule for changing a singular noun to its plural is by the addition of the suffixes **–s** or **–es**. Verb forms are constructed by the addition of such suffixes as **–s, -ed, -ing etc**.	entertain – entertainment sad – sadness play – player success – successful care – careless quick – quickly happy – happily marginal – marginalise false – falsify beauty - beautify bird – birds church – churches walk – walks – walked - walking
G6.4: Word families[T]	The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of form, grammar and meaning.	extend – extent – extensive child – childishness – children - childhood
G7: Standard English and formality		
G7.1: Standard English	Standard English is the form of English expected to be used in writing and relatively formal speaking. It is recognized as the 'correct' form as opposed to casual non-Standard English. Verb forms (*eg. I did* **not** *I done; we were* **not** *we was; isn't* **not** *ain't*) Pronouns (*eg.* correct use of *them / those; that / what*) Adverbs (*eg.* correct use of *run quickly* **not** *run quick; did well* **not** *did good etc.*) Avoidance of double negatives (*eg. didn't do anything* **not** *didn't do nothing etc.*)	I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses. [formal Standard English] I did it 'cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses. [casual Standard English] I done it 'cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses. [casual non-Standard English]

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^T indicates required terminology   ^S indicates content introduced at KS1 and consolidated in KS2

Content domain reference	Explanation of terms	Contextual examples
G7.2: Formal and informal vocabulary	Pupils should be aware of the difference between the ***vocabulary*** typical of informal speech and writing, and the vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing.	ask for – request need – require allow – permit
G7.3: Formal and informal structures	Pupils should be aware of the difference between ***structures*** typical of informal speech and writing, and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing.	Use of the passive: **Permission may be granted** rather than **We will grant permission**. Avoidance of the personal: **Clients are expected to…** rather than **We expect you to…**
G7.4: The subjunctive	Pupils should recognise the vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including subjunctive forms. (See G4.3 above)	The chairman requests that Mr Jones **attend** the meeting. The governors propose that the work **be completed** by March 2017.