

Words & Phrases Progression
Year 1

Nouns & Pronouns	Adjectives & Determiners	Adverbs & Prepositions	Verbs
<p>understand noun as a <i>naming word for a person, place or thing</i> <i>person: boy, doctor, clown</i> <i>place: field, beach, town</i> <i>thing: chair, owl, arm</i></p> <p>plural noun suffixes (-s and -es) <i>alien aliens</i> <i>bush bushes</i></p> <p>Proper nouns: people <i>James Mrs Smith</i></p>	<p>understand adjective as a <i>word that describes a noun</i></p> <p>the determiners <i>the</i> and <i>a</i> <i>the alien a monster</i></p> <p>adjectives of size and colour <i>small big tall</i> <i>orange blue purple</i></p> <p>comparative and superlative forms -er and -est <i>taller tallest</i></p>	<p>understand preposition as a <i>where</i> and <i>when</i> word</p> <p>prepositions and adverbials of place (where) <i>above the trees</i> <i>outside the house</i> <i>behind the fence</i></p> <p>prepositions and adverbials of time (when) <i>at night</i> <i>after dinner</i> <i>before playtime</i></p> <p>understand fronted adverbials as <i>where</i> and <i>when</i> opens fronted adverbials of time (when) and place (where) <i>One day an alien chased Jim</i> <i>In the cave Jim hid.</i></p>	<p>simple present tense verbs, including 3rd person suffixes -s and -es <i>The aliens eat boys.</i> <i>The alien eats James.</i> <i>It crunches on his bones.</i></p> <p>simple past tense verbs using -ed suffix <i>the alien chased</i> <i>James screamed</i></p> <p>understand <i>to be</i> and <i>to have</i> as verbs <i>am, are, is, was, were</i> <i>had, has, have</i></p>
<p>expansion before the noun <i>Two big aliens chased James.</i> <i>James ran into a dark cave.</i></p>			

Year One

Understand noun as a naming word for a person, place or thing

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: understand noun as a *naming word*

Key Idea: a noun names a person, a place or a thing

Key Vocabulary: *noun*

Build on: naming word

Nouns often describe physical objects that can be experienced with the senses: people, places and things. These are often referred to as *concrete nouns*. They are contrasted with *abstract nouns*, which name ideas and concepts, and are studied in Key Stage 2 (*Year 5 W&P: abstract nouns*).

Nouns can be subdivided into those that describe generic things (things of which there are more than one) called *common nouns*, and unique things (things of which there are only one) called *proper nouns*. Children study different groups of proper nouns in Years 1 (people), 2 (places) and 4 (brands and titles).

It is only statutory in the national curriculum for children to know the term *noun* and not the more specific subdivisions: *proper noun*, *common noun*, *concrete noun* and *abstract noun*.

Noun Type	Examples	
	Common Nouns	Proper Nouns
person	artist, singer, queen	Pablo Picasso, Elvis Presley, Queen Elizabeth
place	country, city, park	France, Tokyo, Hyde Park
thing	car, book, dog	Ferrari, The Hobbit, Fido

Common nouns can be identified as they can be immediately preceded by a determiner (those studied in Year 1 are *the* and *a*).

a ball a carrot the chimney the street a hat the doctor a spaceship the school

Singular and plural nouns
Recap & build upon:

- Year 1 **W&P**: understand noun as *a naming word for a person, place or thing*

Key Idea: plural nouns usually end with the suffixes *-s* or *-es*

Key Vocabulary: *noun, plural, singular*

Build on: naming word

Nouns may be singular or plural. Singular nouns name a single person, place or thing; plural nouns name more than one person, place or thing. Singular nouns are not followed by a suffix, whereas plural nouns most commonly take the suffixes *-s* or *-es*.

The most common plural suffix is *-s*. It is most commonly pronounced as /z/

/z/ pronunciation: trees dogs heads pens gums flowers chairs boys

The suffix *-s* is pronounced /s/ if the noun ends with the sounds /f/, /k/, /p/ or /t/

/f/ + -s	<i>cliffs chefs giraffes</i>
/k/ + -s	<i>socks books cakes</i>
/p/ + -s	<i>ships hoops grapes</i>
/t/ + -s	<i>cats boats kites</i>
/th/ + s	<i>moths baths months</i>

The suffix *-es* follows a sibilant sound, which is often referred to as a hissing or shushing sound. The sibilant spellings that are followed by *-es* in English are *ch*, *s*, *sh*, *x* and *z*.

ch + es	<i>watches lunches patches</i>
s + es	<i>buses glasses kisses</i>
sh + es	<i>dishes ashes wishes</i>
x + es	<i>boxes taxes foxes</i>
z + es	<i>quizzes waltzes topazes</i>

It should be noted that nouns ending in *x* and *z* are quite rare.

Deepening Understanding

There are many plural nouns in English that do not take the suffixes *-s* or *-es*. Common irregular plurals include:

cactus > cacti child > children deer > deer die > dice foot > feet goose > geese man > men mouse > mice person > people sheep > sheep tooth > teeth woman > women

These exceptions can be collected and studied as necessary.

Proper nouns: people
Recap & build upon:

- Year 1 **W&P**: understand noun as *a naming word for a person, place or thing*

Key Idea: unique people are marked with capital letters for each word in their names.

Key Vocabulary: capital letter, *noun*

Build on: naming word

Proper nouns can name people or animals. They differ from common nouns as they describe unique individuals, whereas common nouns describe groups of people that are generic. For example, there is only one *Lassie* (proper noun) but there is more than one *dog* (common noun). Typically, each word in the proper noun is capitalised.

common noun	proper noun
boy	Jim Smith
girl	Mary Munchausen
man	Bob Fribble
woman	Bessie Bronkhurst
dog	Fido
cat	Tiddles
lion	Aslan
ghost	Casper

Deepening Understanding

People might be addressed using titles. These are also capitalised.

Mr Wimblefroom Mrs Noodlesprocket Miss Wigglesworth Doctor Doom
Captain Haddock King Malcolm Princess Doris

In children's stories, characters are often named using otherwise common nouns and are easily mistaken as such.

The Three Little Pigs The Big Bad Wolf The Iron Man

The determiners *the* and *a***Recap & build upon:**

- Year 1 **W&P**: understand noun as *a naming word for a person, place or thing*

Key Idea: the determiner *the* refers to a specific person, place or thing; the determiner *a* refers to any person, place or thing.

Key Vocabulary: *noun*

Build on: naming word

The determiners *the* and *a* refer to specific and non-specific nouns respectively. The determiner *the* is often referred to as the *definite article* and *a* as the *indefinite article* although these are not terms that children expected to learn.

A cat is in the garden.

An unspecified *cat* is in the garden (any cat).

The cat is in the garden.

A specific *cat* jumped is in the garden (a particular cat).

In writing, when a new noun is introduced, it is typically done so with the indefinite article *a* and from then on introduced by the definite article *the*.

One afternoon, Jim heard a noise. The noise came from the shed.

In the first sentence, because the noun *noise* is new and unknown and could be any noise, it is first introduced by the indefinite article *a*. In the second sentence the noun *noise* is now specific - it is the noise we know about from the first sentence – so it is introduced by the definite article *the*. Note that because the noun *shed* is preceded by *the*, it implies that there is only one *shed* and that it is one with which Jim is familiar.

A monster burst through the door. Jim ran. The monster growled and chased him.

Now, a monster is introduced into the narrative and is preceded by *a* because it is new and unknown. In the second sentence, the monster is now known - it is the monster that burst through the door in the previous sentence – so is introduced by *the*. Again, note that the noun *door* is preceded by *the*, which implies that the shed only has one door and is one with which Jim is familiar.

Understand adjective as a *word that describes a noun*

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: understand adjective as a *describing* word
- Year R **W&P**: 1 adjective before a noun
- Year 1 **W&P**: understand *to be* and *to have* as verbs

Key Idea: an adjective is a word that describes a noun.

Key Vocabulary: *adjective, noun*

Build on: describing word, naming word

An adjective describes a particular quality of a noun: for example, size, shape, colour, weight, temperature, personality, and mood.

An adjective may precede the noun that it describes.

Silver fish swam through the warm ocean.

The adjective *silver* describes the colour of the noun *fish*.

The adjective *warm* describes the temperature of the noun *ocean*.

The verb *to be* (am, are, is, was, were) can link a noun and an adjective, with the noun preceding the verb and the adjective following the verb.

The fish are silver.

The adjective *silver* describes the colour of the noun *fish*.

The ocean is warm.

The adjective *warm* describes the temperature of the noun *ocean*.

Deepening Understanding

Several other adjectives might link a noun and verb in the same manner as the verb *to be*. These include the *verbs to feel, to look, to taste, to smell and to sound*.

The cabbage feels slimy.

The adjective *slimy* describes the texture of the noun *cabbage*.

Jim looks sleepy.

The adjective *sleepy* describes the appearance of the noun *Jim*.

The cake tastes delicious.

The adjective *delicious* describes the taste of the noun *cake*.

Dad's socks smell pongy.

The adjective *pongy* describes the smell of the noun *socks*.

The choir sounds beautiful.

The adjective *beautiful* describes the sound of the noun *choir*.

Adjectives of size and colour

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: one adjective before a noun
- Year 1 **W&P**: understand adjective as a *word that describes a noun*

Key Idea: an adjective can describe the size and colour of a noun.

Key Vocabulary: *adjective, noun*

Build on: describing word, naming word

Adjectives of size describe the physical size of nouns. These include:

big, enormous, gigantic great, huge, large, little, massive, small, tiny

The enormous elephant sat on the little mouse.

The adjective *enormous* describes the size of the *elephant*.

The adjective *little* describes the size of the *mouse*.

Adjectives of colour describe the colour of nouns. These include:

black, blue, brown, gold, green, grey, orange, pink, purple, red, silver, white, yellow

The king wore a gold crown and a purple robe.

The adjective *gold* describes the colour of the *crown*.

The adjective *purple* describes the colour of the *robe*.

Comparative and superlative forms *-er* and *-est*

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: one adjective before a noun
- Year 1 **W&P**: understand adjective as a word that describes a noun
- Year 1 **W&P**: adjectives of size and colour

Key Idea: an adjective can be used to compare two or more nouns.

Key Vocabulary: *adjective, noun*

Build on: describing word, naming word

1. Comparative adjectives

Comparative adjectives describe nouns or noun phrases that have more of a particular quality in comparison with other nouns or noun phrases. They typically end with the suffix *-er*, which means *more* and are followed by *than* which introduces the item being compared.

Jim's pizza was bigger than his head.

The comparative adjective *bigger* describes Jim's pizza's *bigness* as being more than that of his head.

The baby's skin was softer than velvet.

The comparative adjective *softer* describes the baby's skin's *softness* as being more than that of velvet.

The comparison is often implied rather than directly stated if it is assumed to be known to the reader.

After lunch, Jim felt happier.

The implied comparison is that Jim felt *happier* than he did before lunch.

After lunch, Jim felt happier (than before lunch).

King Wilbur moved into a larger palace.

The implied comparison is that King Wilbur's palace was *larger* than his last palace.

King Wilbur moved into a larger palace (than his last palace).

2. Superlative adjectives

Superlative adjectives describe nouns or noun phrases that have the most of a particular quality. They typically end with the suffix *-est*, which means *most*. They always follow the determiner *the*. A phrase often follows the superlative that provides a context for the comparison.

Jim's pet monster was the cutest in the competition.

The superlative adjective *cutest* describes Jim's pet monster.

The phrase *in the competition* provides the context for the comparison: the monster is the cutest of those monsters in the competition.

Mount Everest is the highest mountain in the world.

The superlative adjective describes Mount Everest.

The phrase *in the world* provides the context for the comparison: Mount Everest is the highest of those mountains in the world.

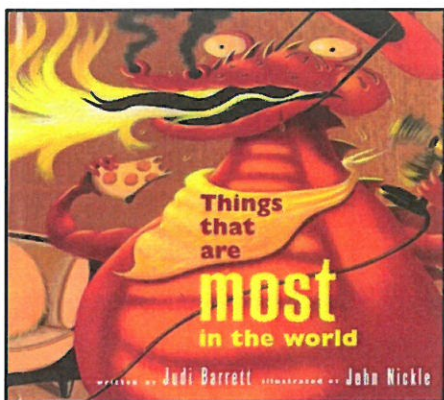
The context for the comparison is often implied rather than directly stated if it is assumed to be known to the reader.

*The **biggest** Billy Goat Gruff stomped onto the bridge.*

The implied context for the comparison is that the Billy Goat is the *biggest* of those Billy Goats in the fairy tale.

*The **biggest** Billy Goat Gruff (of the three Billy Goats Gruff) stomped onto the bridge.*

Teaching Tip



Things That Are Most In the World by Judi Barrett and John Nickle (Atheneum Books) uses superlative adjectives to describe things that are the most in the world (*hottest, heaviest, longest, etc.*) to hilarious effect.

The silliest thing in the world is a chicken in a frog costume.

Children can invent their own versions of these sentences using the sentence stem: The adjective + est thing in the word is...

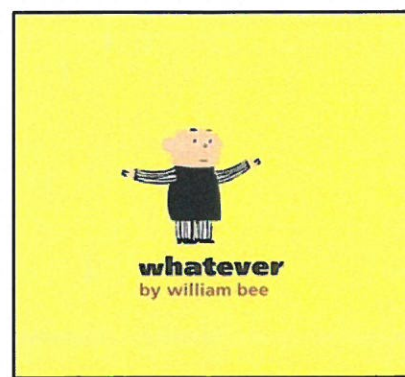
The coldest thing in the world is a penguin in a bath of ice cubes at the South Pole.

Whatever by William Bee (Walker Books) is another picture book that uses superlative adjectives for comic effect. Billy is never satisfied and his father goes to extreme lengths to please his son.

Play him a tune on the world's curliest trumpet and he'll say, "Whatever."

Following a similar format, children can create their own sentences that describe the things Billy's father will do to attempt to please his son. For example.

Bake him the world's tastiest cake and he'll say, "Whatever."



Note, even for much older children, these sentences would prove difficult to colour, so it is advisable not to do so.

Deepening Understanding

There are a small number of adjectives that have irregular comparative and superlative forms.

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
good well	better	best
bad	worse	worst
far	farther further	farthest furthest

Comparatives and superlatives may also be formed by placing the adverbs *more* and *most* before an adjective: *more dangerous, more confused, most beautiful, most colourful*. Whilst there are no strict rules governing precisely when *more* is used instead of *-er*, and *most* instead of *-est*, the following guidelines work with the majority of adjectives.

If the adjective...	Choose..	Examples
has one or two syllables	-er / -est	taller, kinder, hardest, coldest, lovelier, sillier, simplest, naughtiest
has three or more syllables	more / most	more expensive, more important, most intelligent, most popular

One notable exception to this is that adjectives ending with the suffixes *-ed* and *-ing* always use *more* and *most* rather than *-er* and *-est* even when the adjective has only one or two syllables: for example, *more annoyed, most confusing*.

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Expansion before the noun
Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: one adjective before a noun
- Year 1 **W&P**: understand noun as *a naming word for a person, place or thing*
- Year 1 **W&P**: singular and plural nouns
- Year 1 **W&P**: the determiners *the* and *a*
- Year 1 **W&P**: understand adjective as *a word that describes a noun*
- Year 1 **W&P**: adjectives of size and colour

Key Idea: a person, place or thing can be a group of words.

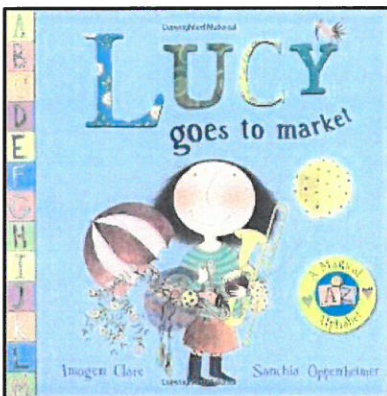
Key Vocabulary: *adjective, noun*, naming phrase, phrase

Build on: describing word, naming word

Nouns can be expanded to add more detail, creating an expanded noun phrase. Expansion before the noun will typically follow the structure: determiner + adjective(s) + noun.

Expansion Before the Noun		
Determiner	Adjective	Noun
the	old	house
two	purple	balloons
a	clever	baboon
six	curious	camels

Expansion before the noun brings together much of the content taught in year 1 focused on nouns, determiners and adjectives.

Teaching Tip


Lucy Goes To Market by Imogen Clare and Sanchia Oppenheimer (Macmillan) is an alliterative take on the parlour game, I Went to The Market and I Bought... Lucy goes to the market and buys outlandish alliterative objects.

a delicate dragon a groovy garland a relaxing rainstorm

Children can have fun creating their own alliterative noun phrases using the form *determiner + adjective + noun*.

a cowardly crocodile a broken biscuit a talking tree

Understand preposition as a *where* or *when* word**Recap & build upon:**

- Year R **P**: prepositions
- Year R **W&P**: prepositions of place (where)

Key Idea: words can tell the reader *when* and *where* things are.**Key Vocabulary:** where word**Build on:** *noun*, naming phrase, phrase

Prepositions are words that organise nouns, nouns phrases and pronouns to other ideas in a sentence often through relationships of time and place. In short, they often describe *when* or *where* nouns, noun phrases or pronouns are relative to other ideas in a sentence. Prepositions are studied from Year R to Year 4. (For a full list of prepositions and the year groups in which they studied see *Years R-4 P: prepositions*).

Common prepositions that describe relationships of place (*where*) include:

above, after, against, at, behind, below, before, between, in, in front of, inside, near, next to, on, off, outside, under, with

Common prepositions that describe relationships of time (*when*) include:

after, at, before, between, in, on

*Jim built a rocket **in** the garden.*

The preposition *in* organises the noun phrase *the garden* by stating *where* it is relative to *built a rocket*. The noun phrase is organised by place. The preposition functions as a *where* word.

*Mary bought a new hat **before** the wedding.*

The preposition *on* organises the noun phrase *the wedding* by stating *when* it is relative to *bought a new hat*. The two ideas are linked by time. The preposition functions as a *when* word.

Many prepositions may describe relationships of both time and place.

*The vampire met the zombie **at** the graveyard **at** midnight.*

The first preposition *at* organises the noun phrase *met the graveyard* by stating *where* it is relative to *met the zombie*; the second organises the ideas *midnight* by stating *when* relative to *met the zombie*.

Prepositions and adverbials of place (where)
Recap & build upon:

- Year R **P**: prepositions
- Year R **W&P**: prepositions of place (where)

Key Idea: words and phrases can tell the reader *where* things happen.

Key Vocabulary: where word, where phrase

Build on: *noun*, naming phrase, phrase, *verb*

Adverbial phrases express the place (where), time (when), manner (how) or purpose (why) of a verb. They are typically constructed from a preposition. Those that express place begin with a preposition that expresses place. Common prepositions that express place include:

above, after, against, at, behind, below, before, between, in, inside, near, next to, on, off, outside, under, with

The preposition is always followed by a noun, noun phrase or pronoun. So, typically an adverbial phrase takes the form: preposition + noun / noun phrase / pronoun. The adverbial phrase typically follows the verb that it modifies.

Donald stood on the cliff edge.

adverbial phrase (where) = *on the cliff edge*

preposition = *on*

noun phrase = *the cliff edge*

The adverbial phrase *on the cliff edge* describes where the explorer *stood*.

The grassy plain stretched below him.

adverbial phrase (where) = *below him*

preposition = *below*

pronoun = *him*

The adverbial phrase *below him* describes where the grassy plain *stretched*.

The mountains towered behind Donald.

adverbial phrase (where) = *behind Donald*

preposition = *behind*

noun = *Donald*

The adverbial phrase *behind Donald* describes where the mountains *towered*.

Teaching Tip

Preposition boxes can visually represent many prepositions of place. For example:

above



near



against



Deepening Understanding

Verbs may be modified by more than one adverbial phrase.

Mary grew herbs in a pot on the windowsill.

adverbial phrase 1 (where): *in a pot*

preposition: *in*

noun phrase: *a pot*

adverbial phrase 2 (where): *on the windowsill*

preposition = *on*

noun phrase = *the windowsill*

The adverbial phrases *in a pot* and *on the windowsill* both describe where Mary grew herbs.

The coordinating conjunction *and, but* may separate two adverbial phrases.

Jim grew mould in the greenhouse and between his toes.

adverbial phrase 1 (where): *in the greenhouse*

preposition: *in*

noun phrase: *the greenhouse*

adverbial phrase 2 (where): *between his toes*

preposition = *between*

noun phrase = *his toes*

The adverbial phrases *in the greenhouse* and *between his toes* both describe where Jim grew mould.

Year One

Prepositions and adverbials of time (when)

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **P**: prepositions
- Year R **W&P**: prepositions of place (where)

Key Idea: words and phrases can tell the reader *when* things happen.

Key Vocabulary: when word, when phrase

Build on: *noun*, naming phrase, phrase, *verb*

Adverbial phrases express the place (where), time (when), manner (how) or purpose (why) of a verb. They are typically constructed from a preposition. Those that express time often begin with a preposition that expresses time. Common prepositions that express time include:

Preposition	Adverbial Phrase
after	after lunch, after playtime, after school
at	at midnight, at six o'clock, at the weekend
before	before bedtime, before breakfast, before three o'clock
between	between lunch and dinner, between three and four o'clock
in	in January, in autumn, in three years
on	on Wednesday, on 25 th December, on my birthday

The preposition is always followed by a noun, noun phrase or pronoun. So, typically an adverbial phrase takes the form: preposition + noun / noun phrase / pronoun. The adverbial phrase typically follows the verb that it modifies.

Jim ate a huge cake after lunch.

adverbial phrase (when) = *after lunch* preposition = *after* noun = *lunch*
 The adverbial phrase *after lunch* describes when Jim ate a huge cake.

Mary trained dancing poodles at the weekend.

adverbial phrase (when) = *at the weekend* preposition = *at* noun phrase = *the weekend*
 The adverbial phrase *at the weekend* describes when Mary trained dancing poodles.

Deepening Understanding 1

The prepositions in, on and at are used to introduce varying periods of time.

Preposition	Size	Used For	Example
in	bigger	years seasons months weeks	in 1066 in summer in April in two weeks
on	smaller	days	on Tuesday on Christmas Day
at	smallest	hours precise times	at two o'clock at midnight at dawn

Deepening Understanding 2

There is a special group of noun phrases that can express time without being preceded by a preposition. They are often termed temporal noun phrases. They commonly begin with a small group of determiners.

Determiner	Example adverbial phrase
each	each morning, each night, each month
every	every day, every Tuesday, every year
one	one day, one evening, one morning
this	this morning, this month, this Friday
that	that afternoon, that evening, that night

Jim bathed in chocolate milk every morning.

adverbial phrase = *every morning*

The adverbial phrase *every morning* describes when Jim *bathed* in chocolate milk.

Children will study each of these determiners throughout key stages 1 and 2: *one* in Year 1; *each* and *every* in Year 3; and *this* and *that* in Year 4. At this stage, it is not necessary to teach these determiners in detail; children should simply be able to recognise the phrases as describing *when* an action occurs.

Fronted adverbials of time (when) and place (where)

Recap & build upon:

- Year R-1 P: prepositions
- Year 1 W&P: understand preposition as a *where* or *when* word
- Year 1 W&P: prepositions and adverbials of place (where)
- Year 1 W&P: prepositions and adverbials of time (where)

Key Idea: *where* and *when* phrases can be used as sentence openers.

Key Vocabulary: when opener, where opener

Build on: phrase, when phrase, when word, where phrase, where word

Adverbials of time and place may be used as sentence openers (and are called *fronted adverbials* in the national curriculum). Fronted adverbials do not appear in the national curriculum until Year 4. However, many children use simple fronted adverbials much earlier in their writing development. And once children understand that phrases can tell the reader where or when something happens, it is a short mental step to using them as fronted adverbials.

In Year 1, these are best understood as *where* and *when* openers and children should understand that *where* and *when* phrases can begin sentences.

One morning, the king looked out of the castle window.
when opener = *one morning*

In the garden, a fierce dragon was eating his prize turnips.
where opener = *in the garden*

When teaching *when* and *where* openers, start by placing the adverbial after the verb.

Jim discovered a dinosaur bone one morning.
adverbial phrase (when) = *one morning*

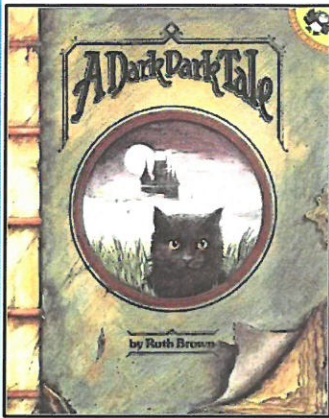
Mary wrestled a tiger at the zoo.
adverbial phrase (where) = *at the zoo*

Once the adverbial has been identified, cut it from the predicate and move it to the front of the sentence.

One morning Jim discovered a dinosaur bone.
At the zoo Mary wrestled a tiger.

This demonstrates to children that it is still the same information and that the adverbial still forms part of the predicate.

Teaching Tip



Both *A Dark Dark Tale* by Ruth Brown (Andersen Press) and *Funnybones* by Janet & Allan Ahlberg (Puffin Books) use fronted adverbials that describe *where* in a similar fashion.

From *A Dark Dark Tale*:

On the moor, there was a dark, dark wood.

fronted adverbial (where) = *on the moor*

In the wood, there was a dark, dark house.

fronted adverbial (where) = *in the wood*

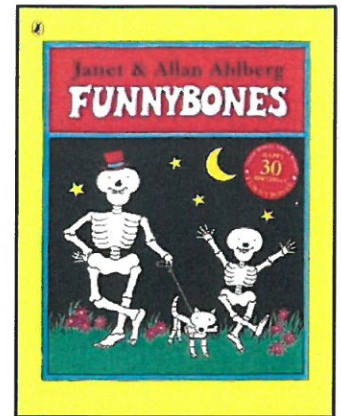
And from *Funnybones*:

On a dark dark hill there was a dark dark town.

fronted adverbial (where) = *on a dark dark hill*

In the dark dark town there was a dark dark street.

fronted adverbial (where) = *in the dark dark town*

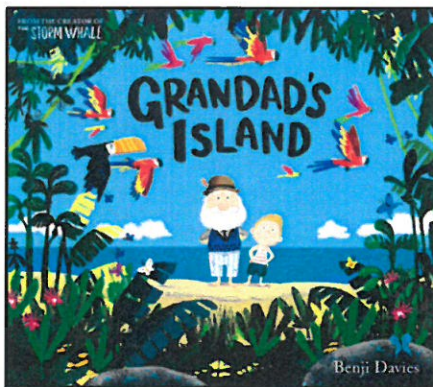


Children can create their own versions of these tales, mimicking the sentence structure.

An additional challenge can be created by not allowing children to begin their fronted adverbials with the same preposition twice, encouraging them to experiment with different prepositions (*by the lake, beyond the forest, below the bridge*)

Note, that sentences that begin with *there are* and *there is* are difficult to understand grammatically and beyond even most Year 6 children, so do not attempt to colour the main clauses of these sentences. (For your own subject knowledge development you might read <http://www.english-grammar-revolution.com/there-is.html>.)

Teaching Tip



Grandad's Island by Benji Davies (Macmillan) is a picture book that includes many examples of fronted adverbials of both time and place.

One day Syd called round to see Grandad.

fronted adverbial (when) = *one day*

In the thick jungle of the island, it was very hot.

fronted adverbial (where) = *in the thick jungle of the island*

Across the waves the ship chugged and churned.

fronted adverbial (where) = *across the waves*

The next morning, Syd went back round to Grandad's house.

fronted adverbial (when) = *the next morning*

Deepening Understanding

When used as sentence openers, adverbials are typically followed by a comma although the use of commas after fronted adverbials is not expected until year 3 (*Year 3 P: commas after a fronted adverbials*). Children should have the use of the comma modelled correctly, but they may not use the comma consistently at this stage in their writing development.

However, the use of a comma after a fronted adverbial can be easily explained to some Year 1 children. Simply describe the comma as a bumper that prevents the where or when opener from crashing into the rest of the sentence.

One morning, Jim discovered a dinosaur bone.

The comma (bumper) stops the when opener *one morning* from crashing into the rest of the sentence.

At the zoo, Mary wrestled a tiger.

The comma (bumper) stops the where opener *in Austria* from crashing into the rest of the sentence.

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Year One

Simple present tense verbs including 3rd person suffixes –s and –es

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: understand verb as a *doing* word

Key Idea: verbs can describe what is happening now.

Key Vocabulary: *verb*

Build on: doing word

Simple present tense verbs are typically used to express actions occurring in the present. The simple present tense is commonly used for many non-narrative forms of writing such as persuasive, discursive and informative writing. Poetry is also often written in the present tense.

In the third person singular, they take the suffix –s or –es.

	Singular		Plural	
1 st Person	I walk	I wish	We walk	We wish
2 nd Person	You walk	You wish	We wish	We wish
3 rd Person	He walks She walks It walks	He wishes She wishes It wishes	They walk	They wish

Giraffes eat leaves from the tops of trees.

3rd person plural verb = *eat*

Jim eats cheese in the garden shed.

3rd person singular verb = *eats*

The most common 3rd person singular suffix is –s. It is most commonly pronounced as /z/

/z/ pronunciation: grabs rides digs rolls looms runs stares saves chews plays

The suffix –s is pronounced /s/ if the noun ends with the sounds /f/, /k/, /p/ or /t/

/f/ + -s *sniffs huffs laughs*
 /k/ + -s *picks takes walks*
 /p/ + -s *stops stamps hopes*
 /t/ + -s *waits gets tastes*
 /th/ + s (rare) *births*

The suffix –es follows a sibilant sound, which is often referred to as a hissing or shushing sound. The sibilant spellings that are followed by –es in English are *ch*, *s*, *sh*, *x* and *z*.

ch + es *catches punches fetches*
 s + es *loses chooses kisses*
 sh + es *wishes washes clashes*
 x + es *fixes relaxes moxes*
 z + es (rare) *quizzes*

Simple past tense verbs using –ed suffix

Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: understand verb as a *doing* word

Key Idea: verbs can describe what happened in the past.

Key Vocabulary: *verb*

Build on: doing word

Past tense verbs describe actions that have happened in the past. The past tense is most commonly used for narrative writing. It also used for most forms of recount: diaries, newspaper reports, biographies, personal recounts.

Past tense verbs typically take the suffix –ed, but many verbs have irregular forms in the past tense: for example, *bought*, *swam*, *woke*, *began*, *wore*.

Jim visited Aunt Hilary in Bognor Regis.

past tense verb = *visited*

Aunt Hilary baked a delicious cake.

past tense verb = *baked*

In Year 1 children are only expected to spell past tense verbs correctly when the addition of the suffix does not alter the spelling of the base word.

wait > *waited* the suffix *does not* alter the spelling of *wait*.

play > *played* the suffix does not alter the spelling of *play*.

love > *loved* the suffix *does* alter the spelling of *love*.

stop > *stopped* the suffix *does* alter the spelling of *stop*.

Deepening Understanding

In Year 4 children study irregular verb forms (see *Year 4 W&P: common irregular verb forms*). However, children should be taught common irregular forms that frequently occur both in their reading, writing and, most importantly, in their spoken language. If left, these non-standard forms will be embedded and be more difficult to address in later years.

The most common irregular verb forms in the past tense include:

broke, brought, bought, came, drank, drew, drove, fell, felt, found, gave, got, went, grew, heard, hid, knew, left, let, made, put, ran, said, sang, sat, saw, sent, spoke, thought, told, took, wore, wrote

Understand to be and to have as verbs
Recap & build upon:

- Year R **W&P**: understand verb as a *doing* word

Key Idea: the verbs *to be* and *to have* are verbs.

Key Vocabulary: *verb*
Build on: doing word

Although most verbs describe physical actions (*jump, cry, play*) or mental actions (*think, hope, worry*), a small number of verbs do not describe actions but rather describe states of being (as such they are often termed *stative verbs*). The most common of these are the verbs *to be* and *to have*. These verbs can be understood to be *linking verbs* (grammarians use the fancier term *copulae*) as they link information in the predicate to the subject.

1. The verb to be

The verb *to be* is difficult to define. It most often means *having the quality, state or role of*, but the definition is too difficult for Year 1 children to grasp. It is sufficient that they understand it as a verb and that it links the ideas before and after it.

The verb *to be* has irregular forms in both past and present.

	Past		Present	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I was	We were	I am	We are
2nd Person	You were	You were	You are	You are
3rd Person	He was She was It was	They were	He is She is It is	They are

My cuddly toy is pink.

The verb *is* links the subject *my cuddly toy* and the adjective *pink*.

My cuddly toy is a furry crocodile.

The verb *is* links the subject *my cuddly toy* and the noun phrase *a furry crocodile*.

My cuddly toy is in the bedroom.

The verb *is* links the subject *my cuddly toy* and the adverbial phrase (where) *in the bedroom*.

1. The verb to have

The verb *to have* most often means *possess, own or hold*. As with the verb *to be*, it links the ideas before and after it, although *to have* is usually followed by a noun phrase (the thing possessed, owned or held). It has irregular forms in both past and present.

	Past		Present	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I had	We had	I have	We have
2nd Person	You had	You had	You have	You have
3rd Person	He had She had It had	They had	He has She has It has	They have

I have a cuddly toy.

The verb *have* links the subject *I* and the noun phrase *a cuddly toy*.

My cuddly toy has pink fur.

The verb *has* links the subject *my cuddly toy* and the noun phrase *pink fur*.

3. *to be* and *to have* as auxiliary verbs

The verbs *to be* and *to have* also function as auxiliary (helper verbs) and can come before other main verbs.

is marching was singing has danced had walked

These forms are studied in Year 2 (see Year 2 **W&P**: *progressive tense to form actions in progress using the auxiliary verb to be*) and Year 3 (see Year 3 **W&P**: *auxiliary verb to have to form the perfect tense*).

Deepening Understanding

There are a small number of other verbs that do not express actions but function as linking verbs. Besides *to be* and *to have*, common linking verbs that children in Year 1 might meet in their speaking, reading and writing include:

feel, hate, know, like, look, love, need, seem, smell, sound, taste, want

Jim likes turnip cake.

The verb *likes* links the subject *Jim* and the noun phrase *turnip cake*.

I feel happy.

The verb *felt* links the subject *I* and the adjective *happy*.

Mary's hotpot tasted awful.

The verb *tasted* links the subject *Mary's hotpot* and the adjective *awful*.