Glossary for the
2019 English Language Proficiency Standards

Part I – Aspects of Language

ACADEMIC LANGUAGE: Broadly defined, includes the language students need to meaningfully engage with content within the academic context. Academic language includes the words, grammatical structures, and discourse markers needed, for example, in describing, sequencing, summarizing, and evaluating. These are language demands (skills, knowledge) that facilitate student access to and engagement with grade-level academic content.

CONTEXT: Context refers to the environment in which language is used, including content area, topic, audience, text type, and mode of communication.

DOMAIN-SPECIFIC VOCABULARY: Vocabulary that is specific to a particular discipline (field of study or domain). Domain-specific words and phrases carry content meaning (e.g., *lava, hypotenuse, chromosome, democratic, stanza*).

GENERAL ACADEMIC VOCABULARY: Vocabulary that is found across text types, particularly in written texts, that provides more nuanced or sophisticated ways of expressing meaning than everyday language (e.g., *devastation, reluctance, significantly, misfortune, specificity*).

CONVERSATIONAL VOCABULARY: The vocabulary of everyday interaction (e.g., *run, table, friend*). This is also referred to as *frequently occurring vocabulary or everyday vocabulary.*

FLUENCY: This can be described as the ease with which oral and written communication is expressed (Dutro & Moran, 2003). Oral language fluency is developed through modeling and frequent practice in a variety of contexts. Consistent and systematic practice of the language is the only way that ELs can and will move from limited English capacity to automatic processing or fluency (Dutro & Moran, 2003).

FORMS OF LANGUAGE: Language forms are linguistic tools such as specific vocabulary and grammar, that are aligned with the function. Language forms are the outward manifestation of language use (Dutro & Moran, 2003). By identifying language forms and creating language structures, (e.g., sentence stems/starters that align to the function), teachers of ELs develop procedural knowledge for students to use the English language correctly.

FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE: Function is the purpose for communication; why we use academic language. Some of the academic purposes for language include: understanding written text; asking and answering informational questions; comparing and contrasting information; identifying cause and effect relationships; conducting research; defining terms; summarizing information; explaining ideas; and justifying responses.

INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPORT: Instructional support within the Performance Indicators refers to the use of various strategies in order to assist a learner who is not ready to complete a task independently (e.g., sentence frames, graphic organizers, echo reading, cloze activities).

LANGUAGE DOMAIN: Arizona's revised 2019 English Language Proficiency (ELP) Standards are organized around Receptive Communication (listening and reading), and Productive Communication (speaking and writing). Additionally, the 2019 Standards include Reading Foundational Skills that are aligned with Foundational Skills in the state's English Language Arts (ELA) Reading Standards.

LEVELS OF SUPPORT: This calls attention to the amount of scaffolding necessary to meet the needs of an English Learner at the noted Language Proficiency level to meet the required skill. The manner of support and scaffolding is the responsibility of the teacher to us their knowledge and craft to meet the support needs of the ELs in their class.

PROFICIENCY LEVEL: The level of English language proficiency of an EL student, as determined by the AZELLA. The AZELLA proficiency levels are: (1) Pre-Emergent, (2) Emergent, (3) Basic, (4) Intermediate, and (5) Proficient. An Initial English Proficient student, whose overall AZELLA score is Proficient, does not participate in the ELD program. An EL student who receives a proficient score on the reading and writing domain scores, as well as a proficient score for the total combined score, is reclassified as a former EL.

REGISTER: Refers to variation in the vocabulary, grammar, and discourse of a language to meet the expectations of a particular context. A context can be defined by numerous elements, such as audience, task, purpose, setting, social relationship, and mode of communication (written versus spoken). Specific examples of contextual variables are the nature of the communicative activity (e.g., talking with someone about a movie, persuading someone in a debate, or writing a science report); the nature of the relationship between the language users in the activity (e.g., friend-to-friend, expert-to-learner); the subject matter and topic (e.g., photosynthesis in science, the Civil War in history); and the medium through which a message is conveyed (e.g., a text message versus an essay).

SCAFFOLDING: Temporary guidance or assistance provided to a student by a teacher, another adult, or a more capable peer, enabling the student to perform a task he or she otherwise would not be able to do alone, with the goal of fostering the student's capacity to perform the task on his or her own later on. (Though Vygotsky himself does not use the term *scaffolding,* the educational meaning of the term relates closely to his concept of the zone of proximal development. See L. S. Vygotsky, [1978]. *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.)

Part II – ELPS Key Terms

AFFIX: Word forms added to the beginning, middle, or end of another word that creates a derivative word or inflection (e.g., un- in unhappy or –ness in sadness).

ALLITERATION: The repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of two or more consecutive words or of words near each other (e.g., a bee is buzzing behind the bush).

ALLUSION: A reference in a literary work to a person, place, or thing in history, or to another work of literature. Allusions are often indirect or brief references to well-known characters or events.

ANALOGY: A comparison between two things, often sharing similar structures or some feature, and usually for the purpose of explanation or clarification.

ARTICLE: Words such as *the, a, and an*, that are used before a noun to specify whether the noun is definite or indefinite.

ARTICULATE: To pronounce distinctly and carefully; enunciate.

BASE WORD: A word to which affixes may be added to change its meaning, tense, or part of speech. Base words can stand alone (e.g., depend is base word for dependable). (*See Root Word; Base Words and Root Words are different*)

CENTRAL IDEA: A broad idea or message conveyed over the course of informational or literary text or texts.

CLASSROOM RESOURCE: Teaching tools such as word walls, posters, grammar walls, graphic organizers, personal dictionaries, etc.

COMPARE AND CONTRAST: To note what is similar (same) and different about two or more things.

COMPLEX TEXT: The level of challenge a text provides based on quantitative features, qualitative features, and reader/text factors.

CONSONANT BLEND: A group of two or three consonants that are placed beside each other within a word, not separated by any vowels. The sound of each consonant in the blend is produced so quickly that the sounds combine and blend together in a smooth manner (e.g., fl, gr, spl).

CONTEXT CLUE: Clue(s) in a sentence to help a reader attach meaning to unknown words. The use of contextual clues is a method by which the meanings of unknown words may be obtained by examining the parts of a sentence surrounding the word for definition/explanation clues, restatement/synonym clues, contrast/antonym clues, and inference/general context clues.

DECODE: A series of strategies used selectively by readers to recognize and read written words. The reader locates cues, e.g., letter-sounding correspondences in a word, that reveal enough about the word to help in pronouncing and attaching meaning to it.

DIGRAPH: Combinations of two successive letters functioning as a unit and representing a single speech sound (e.g., ph in phone; ng in sing).

DIPHTHONG: Two vowel sounds joined in one syllable to form one speech sound (e.g., oi in oil, ou in out).

DOMAIN-SPECIFIC: Words that are specific to one particular class or subject (e.g., Acrylic is a domain-specific word in art. Isotope is a domain-specific word in science).

E.G.: The abbreviation e.g., from the Latin exempli gratia (for example). This abbreviation is used in Arizona's English Language Proficiency Standards to list a few typical examples of the skill or concept.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE: Uses figures of speech to be more effective, persuasive, and impactful. Figures of speech such as metaphors, similes, idioms, and personifications go beyond the literal meanings of the words to give readers new insights. If something happens figuratively, it feels like it is happening, but does not literally happen.

GRAMMAR: The body of rules imposed on a given language for speaking and writing.

GRAPHEME: Any of a set of written symbols, letters, or combinations of letters that represent the same sound (e.g., f in fat, ph in photo, and gh in tough).

HIGH FREQUENCY WORD: A word that appears most often in printed materials. Learning to recognize high frequency words by sight is critical to developing fluency in reading.

HOMOGRAPH: A word with the same spelling, but with different pronunciations, derivations, and meanings (e.g., wind, lead, and bow as verbs and nouns).

I.E.: The abbreviation **i.e.** is short for the Latin phrase *id est*, meaning "that is." When used in Arizona's English Language Proficiency Standards, the examples following i.e. are for further clarification, explanation, or are examples of specific skills.

IDIOM: A phrase or expression that means something different than what the words actually say. Idioms are usually understandable to a particular culture, language, or group of people (e.g., let the cat out of the bag).

INFLECTION: The modification of a word to express different grammatical categories such as tense, mood, voice, aspect, person, number, gender, and case.

INFLECTIONAL ENDING: A change in the form of a word to show a grammatical change (e.g., *-ed, -s, -ing).*

INFORMATIONAL TEXT: Provides factual information on a specific topic or event**.** Informational text is "designed primarily to explain, argue or describe rather than to entertain.**"** (Harris, et al. The Literacy Dictionary, IRA, 1995)

INTERJECTION: A word, remark, or exclamation that expresses an emotion such as pain, surprise, or admiration (e.g., ouch, oh, or wow).

INTERROGATIVE: A word used in asking questions (e.g., who, what, how).

IRREGULAR SIGHT WORD: Those words that cannot be decoded and don't follow traditional English spelling rules.

LINKING WORD: A word that shows a connection between clauses or sentences (e.g., however, so).

MESSAGE: A literary message is a theme or lesson derived from text.

METAPHOR: A figure of speech that makes a comparison between two things that are basically different but have something in common. Unlike a simile, a metaphor does not contain the words like or as.

MODAL: Expresses special meaning such as ability, necessity, and permission (e.g., can, could, would, shall, will, etc.).

MODIFIER: A word, phrase, or clause that changes the sense of another word or word group (e.g., kitchen table).

MORPHEME: The smallest meaningful part of a word (e.g., -ed, -s, -ing, pre-).

MORPHOLOGY: The study of meaningful units of language and how they are combined in forming words.

NARRATIVE: A type of fiction or nonfiction that tells a story or series of events.

ONSET: The part of the syllable that precedes the rime (vowel of the syllable) (e.g., the onset of "pill" is /p/; the onset of "spill" is /sp/).

PERSONIFICATION: The attribution of human traits (qualities, feelings, actions, or characteristics) to non-living objects (things, colors, quantities, or ideas). e.g., The sun kissed my skin.

PERSUASIVE WRITING: Persuasive is one of the four traditional forms of composition in speech and writing. Its purpose is to influence a reader by argument or entreaty to a specific belief, position, or course of action.

PHONEME: The smallest units of sound within a word that distinguish one word from another (e.g., cat = /c/ /a/ /t/).

PHONEMIC AWARENESS: The knowledge of and the ability to manipulate sounds in the spoken word.

PHONICS: A system of teaching, reading, and spelling that stresses basic symbol-sound relationships and their application in decoding words.

PHONOGRAM: A character or symbol representing a word or phoneme in speech.

PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS: The ability to hear and recognize that orally spoken words are made up of smaller pieces of sound, such as syllables, onset and rime, and phonemes, and to be able to manipulate and work with these pieces of sound in a language.

PRECISE LANGUAGE: Use of language to give more specificity and exactness in communicating. For example, the statement "She's totally gross" can be more precise by rephrasing this to say, "I don't like her because she uses vulgar language and ridicules her friends."

PREFIX: A linguistic unit added to the beginning of a word that changes its meaning (e.g., re-, mis-, un-).

PREPOSITION: A word used in close connection with and usually before a noun or pronoun to show the relation to some other part of a clause and give information about things such as time, place, and direction.

R-CONTROLLED VOWEL: When a vowel is followed by r, the sound changes, and the result is considered neither long nor short (e.g., car, fern, lark).

REGISTER: The way a speaker uses language differently in different circumstances (e.g. how one would speak or write to a parent vs. when one would speak or write to a president).

RIME: The part of a syllable (not a word) which consists of its vowel and any consonant sounds that come after it (e.g., the rime for "pill" would be /ill/; the rime for "spoil" is /oil/).

ROOT WORD: The basic part of a word that usually carries meaning but cannot stand alone. To become meaningful, it must add affixes (e.g., bio is the root word for biography).

SHARED LANGUAGE ACTIVITY: Shared language refers to people developing understanding amongst themselves based on language (e.g., spoken, text) to help them communicate more effectively.

SIGHT WORD: Written words that are so common that when these words appear in text, readers comprehend them without having to decode or use another strategy to read them. Sight words are words that students are unable to decode (e.g., was, the).

SIMILE: A figure of speech comparing two things that are unlike. Similes use the words like and *as* (e.g., strong as an ox; flies like an eagle).

SPATIAL WORD: Spatial words and phrases tell where something is or where something happened. Common spatial words include *above, below, beside, around, over, beyond,* and *across*.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD: Allows speakers to form sentences that express commands, requests, suggestions, wishes, hypotheses, purposes, doubts, and suppositions that are contrary to fact at the time of the utterance (e.g., If I were you, I would ask for a discount.).

SUFFIX: A linguistic unit added to the end of a base word which changes the word's meaning or grammatical function (e.g., *-ed, -ly, -ness*).

SYLLABLE: A part of a word that contains a single vowel sound and is pronounced as a unit.

TEMPORAL WORD: A word that generally refers to time-related transitions. Temporal words can be singular words, such as tomorrow; prepositions, such as *for*; or phrases, such as *before long*.

TEXT STRUCTURE: How the information within a written text is organized. Some text structures could include chronological, cause and effect, problem and solution, compare and contrast, etc.

TEXT TYPE: Writing is done for a number of different purposes and for different audiences. These different forms of writing are often known as text types. Textual types refer to the following four basic aspects of writing: descriptive, narrative, expository, and argumentative.

THEME: An underlying topic of a discussion or a recurring idea that may be stated or implied in a text.

TRANSITIONAL WORD: A word that connects phrases or sentences (e.g., therefore, furthermore, moreover, in addition, also).

VISUAL AID: This is designed to supplement written or spoken information so that it can be understood and remembered more easily. Visual aids could be but are not limited to a chart, map, film, picture, or model.

Part III – Grammar: Parts of Speech

ADJECTIVE: Adjectives modify a noun or pronoun by describing, identifying, or quantifying words. An adjective usually precedes the noun or the pronoun that it modifies.

Demonstrative Adjective: Adjectives such as this, that, these, those, which point out particular persons or things and tell which one(s).

Indefinite Adjective: Non-descriptive adjectives such as some, a, few, any.

Possessive Adjective: An adjective (my, your, his, her, its, our, their) that is similar or identical to a possessive pronoun; however, it is used as an adjective and modifies a noun.

Proper Adjective: A word, derived from a proper noun that describes a noun or pronoun and is always capitalized (e.g., Canadian bacon, Irish setter).

ADVERB: Adverbs modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

Comparative Adverb: An adverb that compares two actions and is formed by adding *-er* to the end, or more/less to the beginning, of a regular adverb.

Conjunctive Adverb: An adverb that connects two clauses and show cause and effect, sequence, contrast, comparison, or other relationships.

Degree Adverb: An adverb that specifies the degree to which an adjective or another adverb applies. (e.g., almost, rarely, entirely, highly, quite, slightly, totally, utterly)

How Adverb: An adverb that tells us how an action is or should be performed. Often these adverbs are formed adding *-ly* to the end of an adjective. (e.g., careful – carefully: lucky – luckily)

Intensifier Adverb: An adverb that has little meaning by itself, but provides force, intensity, or emphasis to another word.

Superlative Adverb: An adverb that compares three or more actions and is formed by adding *-est* to the end or more/least to the beginning of a regular adverb.

CLAUSE: A clause is an expression that does not constitute a complete sentence.

Adverb Clause: An adverb clause provides information about what is going on in the main clause and that explains where, when, or why.

Adjective Clause: An adjective clause works like a multi-word adjective. (e.g., My brother, who is a plumber, figured it out for me.)

Conditional Clause: A type of adverbial clause that states a hypothesis or condition, real or imagined. A conditional clause may be introduced by the subordinating conjunction *if,* or another conjunction, such as *unless* or *in case of*.

Independent/Main Clause: A word group that includes a subject and a verb and can act as a complete sentence. (e.g., I had many appointments last Friday.)

Non-Restrictive Clause: A subordinate clause that does not limit or restrict the meaning of the noun phrase it modifies.

Noun Clause: A clause which does the work of a noun in a sentence. It is a group of words containing a finite verb of its own. Usually noun clauses begin with a noun clause marker: how, that, what, when, whether, which, whichever, who, whom, whose, why.

Restrictive Clause: A subordinate clause that limits or restricts the meaning of the noun phrase it modifies.

Subordinate/Dependent Clause: A subordinate/dependent clause begins with a subordinating word such as *if, although,* or *that* which prevents the clause from acting like a sentence. It cannot stand on its own as a sentence.

CONJUNCTION: A conjunction links words, phrases, clauses, and word groups signaling their relationship.

Coordinating Conjunction: A conjunction that joins individual words, phrases, and independent clauses (e.g., and, but, or, nor, for, so, or, you).

Correlative Conjunction: A conjunction that joins sentence elements that are grammatically equal (e.g., not, only, but, also, either/or, and similar combinations).

Subordinating Conjunction: Allows a writer to show which idea is more and which is less important. The idea in the main clause is the more important, while the idea in the subordinate clause is less important. The subordinate clause supplies a time (after, before), reason (because since), condition (if, unless), place (where), concession (although, while), and manner (as if, how).

Cause and Effect Conjunction: e.g., since, because, consequently, therefore

Condition Conjunction: e.g., unless, since, if Contrasting Conjunction: e.g., although, whereas, while

Sequence Conjunction: e.g., therefore, so, consequently

GERUND: A gerund/gerund phrase is the participle (based on a verb that ends in -ing) that functions as a noun. Since a gerund functions as a noun, it occupies some positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would.

Gerund as subject: Traveling is enjoyable.

Gerund as direct object: I enjoy traveling.

Gerund as subject complement: His favorite activity is speeding.

Gerund as object of preposition: The police arrested him for speeding.

NOUN: Words describing a person, thing, place, or idea.

Collective Noun: A noun that denotes a collection of persons or things regarded as a unit (e.g., team, class).

Common Noun: A word given to name any one of a class of persons, places, or things, and are general items (e.g., boy, car, book, etc.).

Compound Noun: A noun formed by two or more words that may or may not be hyphenated. Grammatically, compound nouns are treated as a single word (e.g., high school, roller coaster, kidney beans, federal court).

Count Noun: A noun that forms plurals (e.g., books/books).

Gerunds: The *–ing* form of a verb (present participle) used as a noun in a subject, object, or subject complement.

Irregular Noun: Referring to words changing from their singular form to become plural that require a spelling change, different from 'regular' plural words which are made plural by adding *–s* or *–es.*

Non-Count Noun: A noun that does not form plurals (e.g., water, money).

Plural Noun: A noun that identifies more than one person, place, animal, or thing. The plural form of most nouns is created simply by adding the letter *s/es*.

Proper Noun: A noun that refers to a particular person, place, thing, or idea and always begins with a capital letter.

Singular Noun: A noun that identifies only one person, place, animal, or thing.

PASSIVE VOICE: Passive voice is one of the two voices of verbs (see also active voice). A verb is in the passive voice when the subject of the sentence is acted on by the verb.

e.g., Passive Voice: The ball was thrown by the pitcher. The ball, the subject, receives the action of the verb.

e.g., Active Voice: The pitcher threw the ball.

PHRASE: A phrase is a group of related words that does not contain a subject-verb relationship (e.g., in the morning).

Adverbial Phrase: A group of words, not containing a subject and verb, collectively modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, or a prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases frequently have adverbial functions by telling place and time or modifying the verb). (e.g., Sarah ran as quickly as she could down the street.)

Noun Phrase: A noun phrase is formed by a noun or pronoun and any modifiers, complements, or determiners (e.g., a bird).

Joined Noun Phrase: A noun phrase with two nouns joined by a conjunction (e.g., young boys and girls).

Prepositional Phrase: A prepositional phrase is made up of a preposition, its object, and any of the object's modifiers. (e.g., beneath the green chair)

Verb Phrase: A verb phrase is the main verb plus the complement, object, and/or adverb. (e.g., Read the book quickly.)

PRONOUN: A word that takes the place of a noun, noun phrase, and noun clause.

Antecedent Pronoun: A word or phrase to which a subsequent word refers. (e.g., Mary is the antecedent of *her* in the sentence, I'll give this to Mary if I see her.)

Demonstrative Pronoun: Pronouns that refer to a particular person or thing (e.g., this, that, these, and those).

Indefinite Pronoun: Pronouns that refer to imprecise numbers of persons or things (e.g., all, any, everyone, many, some several).

Intensive/Reflexive Pronoun: Pronouns that refer to the same person or thing as another noun or pronoun in the same sentence that emphasized or re-emphasizes that person or thing. English uses the same forms as for the reflexive pronouns. For example, *I did it myself,* to the contrast reflexive use: *I did it to myself*.

Interrogative Pronoun: Pronouns that ask which person or thing is meant (e.g., Who did that?).

Object Pronoun (Objective Pronoun): Pronouns that are the object of a verb (e.g., me, you, him, her).

Personal Possessive Pronoun: Pronouns that indicate grammatical ownership (e.g., mine, yours, his).

Relative Pronoun: Pronouns that introduce relative clauses referring to some antecedent (e.g., that, which, who).

Subject Pronoun (Subjective Pronoun): Pronouns that replace the nouns acting as the subject (e.g., I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they).

SENTENCE TYPES

Imperative Sentence: A sentence that expresses a request or command. (e.g., Check it again.)

Declarative Sentence: A sentence that makes a statement. (e.g., I like grammar.)

Exclamatory Sentence: A sentence that shows emotion. (e.g., I did it!)

Interrogative Sentence: A sentence that asks a question. (e.g., Who wrote this paper?)

SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION TYPES

Simple Sentence: A simple sentence that describes something. (e.g., The cat is black.)

Compound Sentence: A compound sentence has two or more main (independent) clauses and no subordinate (independent) clauses. (e.g., Most people praised the plans [first independent clause], yet some found them dull (second independent clause.)

Complex Sentence: A sentence that has one main (independent) clause, and one or more subordinate (dependent) clauses. (e.g., When times were bad, [dependent clause] John emailed his father for help (independent clause.)

Compound-Complex Sentence: A compound-complex sentence has at least two coordinate independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. (e.g., When the students came to their English class [dependent clause], they gave the teacher their homework [first independent clause], and she gave them their new assignment [second independent clause].

SENTENCE PATTERN: The order of the elements in the sentence.

S-V: Subject + Verb

S-V-C: Subject + Verb + Compliment

S-V-O: Subject + Verb + Object

USED TO AND USE TO:

Used as an Adjective: Use to be + used to. This means to be accustomed to. (e.g., I can study with the TV on. I am used to it. It means I am accustomed, adjusted, or don't mind having the TV play while I'm studying.)

Used as a Verb: Use to + verb is a regular verb and means something that happened but doesn't happen anymore. It uses *-ed* to show past tense. But since it always means something that happened in the past, it should always use past tense. (e.g., When Joshua was a child, he used to climb trees. Now he doesn't climb trees.

VERB TENSE: The form of the verb that indicates time. The verb tenses are in the order in which OELAS suggests they be taught:

Infinitive Tense: A compound verb made up of the preposition *to* and the basic form of the verb (e.g., to walk).

Simple Present Tense: The present tense of a verb suggests actions of the situation at the time of speaking or writing. (e.g., I live in Tucson. I am happy.

Present Progressive Tense: Describes an ongoing action that is happening at the same time the statement is written. This tense is formed by using am/is/are with the verb form ending in *-ing*. (e.g., I am walking.)

Simple Past Tense: A past verb tense that expresses something that happened or was completed in the past. (e.g., I felt so proud of them.)

Simple Future Tense: The form of a verb used to refer to events that are going to happen or have not yet happened. (e.g., I will see you next Tuesday for lunch.)

Past Progressive Tense: A past progressive verb form is used for actions that were happening at a certain time. (e.g., I was eating when you called.)

Future Progressive Tense: The future progressive form of the verb is used for stating what will be happening at a certain time in the future. (e.g., At 10:30 tomorrow, he will be working.)

Present Perfect Tense: A present perfect form of a verb is used for the unfinished past, or the action that started in the past and continues in the present. It is an action that started in the past and continues into the present by preceding the verb with *have* or *has*. (e.g., I have lived in Sedona since 1964. He has been in class for two months.)

Past Perfect Tense: A past perfect verb tense is formed with *had* and expresses an action that happened before another past action. (e.g., When I arrived, they already had eaten. The fire had burned for an hour before the brigade arrived.)

Future Perfect Tense: The future perfect form of the verb is used to express a completed action in the future. (e.g., I will have finished my homework by tomorrow.)

Present Perfect Progressive Tense: A present perfect progressive verb form is used to state the duration of an action that began in the past and continues to the present. (e.g., I have been sitting here since 7:00 p.m. I have been thinking of you all day long.)

Past Perfect Progressive Tense: A past perfect progressive verb tense shows action in progress and is used to say how long something had been happening before something else. (e.g., They had been playing for 30 minutes when the storm hit.)

Future Perfect Progressive Tense: The future perfect progressive form of the verb is used to state the duration of an action that will be in progress before another in the future. (e.g., I will have been sleeping for two hours by the time he gets home. This time next month, I'll have been living here for three years.)

Present Real Conditional Tense: A present real conditional verb tense is used to discuss a hypothetical event in the present that is likely. (e.g., If it rains, I will go home early.)

Present Future Conditional Tense: A present future conditional verb tense is used to discuss a hypothetical event in the future that is likely. (e.g., If it rains, I will go home early. If you were able to play, would you be happy?)

Present Unreal Conditional Tense: A present unreal conditional verb tense is used to discuss a hypothetical event in the present. (e.g., If we finish early, I would be home at 1:00 p.m.)

Past Unreal Conditional Tense: A past unreal conditional verb tense is used to discuss a hypothetical event in the past. (e.g., If it had rained, I would have gone home early.)

VERBS: A verb denotes action, occurrence, or state of existence.

Action Verb: Action verbs show action or activity.

Auxiliary Verb: The verb used to help the main verb create the negative structure, a question or to show tense. In English 'to do', 'to be', and 'to have' are the auxiliary verbs.

Infinitive Verb: The infinitive is the simple or dictionary form of a verb: walk, think, fly, exist. Often the word *to* marks a verb as infinitive: to walk, to think, to fly, to exist.

Intransitive Verb: An intransitive verb does not need a direct object to complete its meaning. Run, sleep, travel, wonder, and die are all intransitive verbs.

Irregular Verb: an irregular verb is a verb in which the past tense is not formed by adding the usual *-ed* ending. Examples of irregular verbs are sing (past tense sang), feel (past tense felt), and go (past tense went).

Modal/Auxiliary Verb: A modal/auxiliary verb is used with other verbs to express such ideas as permission, possibility, and necessity, e.g., can, may, would like, should, must, ought to, had better, and have to.

Non-action/Stative Verb: A non-action/stative verb expresses existence or a state rather than an action (e.g., be, own).

Phrasal Verb: A two- or three-part phrasal verb is a verb followed by an adverb, a preposition, or both, used with a meaning that is idiomatic and is quite different from the literal meaning of the individual words (e.g., drop off, get out of, look up to).

Transitive Verb: A transitive verb needs a direct object to complete its meaning. (e.g., bring, enjoy, and prefer).