

YEAR 5 and 6
ENGLISH OBJECTIVES

Spoken Language:

Pupils should be taught to:

- a) listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers
- b) ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge
- c) use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary
- d) articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions
- e) give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings
- f) maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments
- g) use spoken language to develop understanding
- h) speak audibly and fluently
- i) participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates
- j) gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s)
- k) consider and evaluate different viewpoints
- l) Select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

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

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

Attention should also be paid to increasing pupils' vocabulary, ranging from describing their immediate world and feelings to developing a broader, deeper and richer vocabulary to discuss abstract concepts and a wider range of topics, and to enhancing their knowledge about language as a whole.

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

Word: Reading Daily Reading – Reciprocal Reading; Accelerated Reading; Reading linked to topic/genre

Pupils should be taught to:

- a) apply their growing knowledge of root words, prefixes and suffixes (etymology and morphology) as listed in **English Appendix 1 SPELLING LIST**, both to read aloud and to understand the meaning of new words they meet
- b) read further exception words, noting the unusual correspondences between spelling and sound, and where these occur in the word

Reading Comprehension

Pupils should be taught to:

1. Maintain positive attitudes to reading and understanding of what they read by:

- continuing to read and discuss an increasingly wide range of fiction, poetry, plays, non-fiction and reference books or textbooks
- reading books that are structured in different ways and reading for a range of purposes
- increasing their familiarity with a wide range of books, including myths, legends and traditional stories, modern fiction, fiction from our literary heritage, and books from other cultures and tradition
- recommending books that they have read to their peers, giving reasons for their choices
- identifying and discussing themes and conventions in and across a wide range of writing
- making comparisons within and across books
- learning a wider range of poetry by heart
- preparing poems and plays to read aloud and to perform, showing understanding through intonation, tone and volume so that the meaning is clear to an audience

2. understand what they read by:

- checking that the book makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and exploring the meaning of words in context
 - asking questions to improve their understanding
 - drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence
 - predicting what might happen from details stated and implied
 - summarising the main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph, identifying key details that support the main ideas
 - identifying how language, structure and presentation contribute to meaning
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- discuss and evaluate how authors use language, including figurative language, considering the impact on the reader
 - distinguish between statements of fact and opinion
 - retrieve, record and present information from non-fiction
 - participate in discussions about books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, building on their own and others' ideas and challenging views courteously
 - explain and discuss their understanding of what they have read, including through formal presentations and debates, maintaining a focus on the topic and using notes where necessary
 - provide reasoned justifications for their views

Writing Transcription Spelling (see spelling list for medium term notes – English Appendix 1)

Pupils should be taught to:

- a) use further prefixes and suffixes and understand the guidance for adding them
- b) spell some words with 'silent' letters [for example, knight, psalm, solemn]
- c) continue to distinguish between homophones and other words which are often confused
- d) use knowledge of morphology and etymology in spelling and understand that the spelling of some words needs to be learnt specifically, as listed in **Appendix word/text/**
- e) use dictionaries to check the spelling and meaning of words
- f) use the first three or four letters of a word to check spelling, meaning or both of these in a dictionary
- g) use a thesaurus

Handwriting

Pupils should be taught to:

- a) write legibly, fluently and with increasing speed by:
- b) choosing which shape of a letter to use when given choices and deciding whether or not to join specific letters
- c) choosing the writing implement that is best suited for a task

Writing Composition

Pupils should be taught to:

1. **plan their writing by:**
 - a) identifying the audience for and purpose of the writing, selecting the appropriate form and using other similar writing as models for their own
 - b) noting and developing initial ideas, drawing on reading and research where necessary
 - c) in writing narratives, considering how authors have developed characters and settings in what pupils have read, listened to or seen performed
2. **draft and write by:**
 - d) selecting appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such choices can change and enhance meaning
 - e) in narratives, describing settings, characters and atmosphere and integrating dialogue to convey character and advance the action
 - f) précising longer passages
 - g) using a wide range of devices to build cohesion within and across paragraphs
 - h) using further organisational and presentational devices to structure text and to guide the reader [for example, headings, bullet points, underlining]
3. **evaluate and edit by:**
 - a) assessing the effectiveness of their own and others' writing
 - b) proposing changes to vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning
 - c) ensuring the consistent and correct use of tense throughout a piece of writing
 - d) ensuring correct subject and verb agreement when using singular and plural, distinguishing between the language of speech and writing and choosing the appropriate register
4. **proof-read for spelling and punctuation errors**
5. **perform their own compositions, using appropriate intonation, volume, and movement so that meaning is clear**

Writing – Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation**Pupils should be taught to:**

- develop their understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:
 - a) recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including subjunctive forms
 - b) using passive verbs to affect the presentation of information in a sentence
 - c) using the perfect form of verbs to mark relationships of time and cause
 - d) using expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely
 - e) using modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility
 - f) using relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun
 - g) learning the grammar for years 5 and 6 in English Appendix 2 **WORD TEXT PUNCTUATION GRAMMAR**
- indicate grammatical and other features by:
 - h) using commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing
 - i) using hyphens to avoid ambiguity
 - j) using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis
 - k) using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses
 - l) using a colon to introduce a list
 - m) punctuating bullet points consistently
- use and understand the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 accurately and appropriately in discussing their writing and reading

Pupils should continue to practise handwriting and be encouraged to increase the speed of it, so that problems with forming letters do not get in the way of their writing down what they want to say. They should be clear about what standard of handwriting is appropriate for a particular task, for example, quick notes or a final handwritten version. They should also be taught to use a not joined style, for example, for labelling a diagram or data, writing an email address, or for algebra and capital letters, for example, for filling in a form.

Pupils should understand, through being shown, the skills and processes essential for writing: that is, thinking aloud to generate ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check that the meaning is clear.

WORD Year 5	SENTENCE Year 5	TEXT Year 5	PUNCTUATION Year 5
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes [for example, -ate; -ise; -ify] Verb prefixes [for example, dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly] Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time [for example, later], place [for example, nearby] and number [for example, secondly] or tense choices [for example, he had seen her before] 	<p>Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis</p> <p>Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity</p> <hr/> <p>Terminology for Year 5</p> <p>(Previous years and...)</p> <p>modal verb, relative pronoun</p> <p>relative clause</p> <p>parenthesis, bracket, dash</p> <p>cohesion, ambiguity</p>
WORD Year 6	SENTENCE Year 6	TEXT Year 6	PUNCTUATION Year 6
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, find out - discover; ask for - request; go in - enter] How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, big, large, little]. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence [for example, I broke the window in the greenhouse versus The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)]. The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: He's your friend, isn't he?, or the use of subjunctive forms such as If I were or Were they to come in some very formal writing and speech] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence], and ellipsis Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text] <hr/> <p>Terminology for Year 6</p> <p>subject, object</p> <p>active, passive</p> <p>synonym, antonym</p> <p>ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses [for example, It's raining; I'm fed up] Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists Punctuation of bullet points to list information How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover]

Year	GRAMMAR Objectives	Example	Terminology	Level of Importance*
5	Use a wide range of conjunctions to create compound and complex sentences	Consolidate children's use of 'and', 'but' and 'or' to write compound sentences and their use of other conjunctions to create complex sentences with subordinate clauses.	Conjunction Complex sentence Compound sentence	High
5	Use relative clauses beginning with 'who', 'which', 'where', 'why' or 'whose'	Extend children's use and knowledge of subordinate clauses.	Relative clause Relative pronoun	Medium
5	Use commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity	Encourage children to read their work for sense and meaning, and to punctuate short pauses with commas.	Comma	High
5	Use adverbials of time, place and number to link ideas across paragraphs	Encourage children to use paragraphs to break up their writing and to link ideas using words such as 'Earlier...' or 'Nearby...' or 'Secondly...'. They can also use phrases in the same way: 'Later on...' or 'Far away...'.	Adverbial	High
5	Use brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Help children to see that brackets, dashes and commas can all be used to indicate parenthesis In the museum, the toys (always the most popular exhibit) are on display as you enter the hall. In the museum, the dinosaur - first seen from the stairs - is the largest exhibit they possess. In the museum, the fossils, never easy to display, have lights behind them.	Bracket Dash Comma Parenthesis	Medium
5	Recognise the difference between direct and indirect speech and relate to differences between informal and formal speech structures	Chn need to turn direct speech into indirect speech and recognise how the writing becomes more formal. "I'll never admit that you're better than Arsenal," Fred growled as the Man U supporter tightened the headlock. Turns into: Fred refused to admit that Arsenal was inferior to Manchester United, even though the supporter had him in a headlock.		

	GRAMMAR Objectives	Example	Terminology	Level of Importance*
5	Use apostrophes correctly	<p>Consolidate correct use of apostrophes:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To indicate possession in singular or plural nouns: The dog's tail, cats' eyes, .. 2. To indicate a contraction - taking the place of missing letter(s) I'm, don't, ... 	Apostrophe Contraction	
5	Use modal verbs to indicate degrees of possibility	<p>Show children how we can have a hierarchy of possibility using modal verbs:</p> <p>I may go to my granny's. I might go to my granny's. I should go to my granny's. I will go to my granny's. I must go to my granny's.</p>	Modal verb	
5	Y5/Y6 Use dialogue, recognise differences between spoken and written speech (contractions)	<p>Consolidate children's use of dialogue, including use of speech punctuation</p> <p>Stress differences between spoken and written speech. E.g. Contracted forms, and slang...</p> <p>"Give me a break," sneered Tom, "You can't expect me to believe that!"</p> <p>"Ger'off, you're hurting me," Sam told his younger brother.</p>	Inverted commas or speech marks Direct speech	High

Year	Grammar Objectives	Examples	Terminology	Level of importance*
6	Use a wide range of conjunctions to create compound and complex sentences	Consolidate children's use of 'and', 'but' and 'or' to write compound sentences and their use of other conjunctions to create complex sentences with subordinate clauses.	Conjunction Complex sentence Compound sentence	High (This is essential for end of Y6)
6	Use full stops, commas, exclamation marks, speech marks and question marks to punctuate sentences correctly.	<p>Help children use punctuation correctly:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full stops, question marks for questions and exclamation marks for exclamations. • Speech marks for dialogue, with capital letters and full stops or exclamation/question marks as appropriate. • commas for pauses within sentences 	Full stop Comma Exclamation mark Question mark	High (This is essential for end of Y6)
6	Use a wide range of adjectives and adjectival phrases, adverbs, adverbials and prepositional phrases to add description and elaboration to writing.	Consolidate children's use of description to enable them to express themselves in interesting ways.	Noun Adjective Verb Adverb Phrase Preposition	High (This is essential for end of Y6)
6	Use expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely	<p>The blue and white salts left in the basin can be placed in a jar for safe-keeping.</p> <p>The herd of deer we saw earlier have returned to the hillside.</p> <p>(A good test of a noun phrase is that the whole thing can be replaced by a pronoun.)</p>	Noun Phrase	Medium
6	Use semi-colons or dashes	<p>Show children how we can use a semi-colon to indicate a pause longer than a comma and we can use a dash to indicate a further thought.</p> <p>The woolly mammoth was thought to have died out after the ice-age; the weather became too hot for them to survive.</p> <p>Simon absolutely refused to apologise - he was convinced he had done nothing wrong.</p>	Semi-colon Dash	Medium

Year	Grammar Objectives	Examples	Terminology	Level of importance*
6	Distinguish between informal and formal vocabulary and sentence structures	<p>Encourage chn to see how we can use speech structures in informal writing and appropriate structures such as the subjunctive in formal writing. E.g.</p> <p>He really gave that his best shot didn't he? [Informal speech structure] She is really not going to change her mind, is she? [Informal speech structure]</p> <p>If I were you, I would go and say sorry to Jimmy. [Subjunctive] If the planet were to warm more than 3⁰, scientists think that much of the UK would be under the sea. [Subjunctive]</p>		
6	Use bullet points and punctuate correctly	Encourage children to use bullet points in non-fiction writing.	Bullet points Semi-colon	
6	Use colons and semi-colons in punctuating bullet points	<p>New playground rules:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No running in the quiet area; • No football except on the pitch • Hoops, skipping ropes and Frisbees to be returned to the big basket; and • No food in the sitting area. 	Colon	
6	Use hyphens to avoid ambiguity	<p>Help children to see that a hyphen can change the meaning:</p> <p>'man-eating shark' is different from 'man eating shark' 'cat-hating woman' is different from 'cat hating woman' 're-cover' is different from 'recover'</p>	Hyphen	
6	Use passive voice to present information in an objective way	<p>Demonstrate to children how we can describe an incident without saying who did it! Show children how the passive voice helps us to report something without allocating responsibility.</p> <p>The window was broken by a football being kicked through it. The kittens were placed on the doorstep of the orphanage. John was punched in the chest.</p>	Passive voice	

SPELLINGS Year 5 and Year 6

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes
Endings which sound like /ʃəs/ spelt -cious or -tious	Not many common words end like this. If the root word ends in -ce, the /ʃ/ sound is usually spelt as c - e.g. vice - vicious, grace - gracious, space - spacious, malice - malicious. Exception: anxious.	vicious, precious, conscious, delicious, malicious, suspicious, ambitious, cautious, fictitious, infectious, nutritious	
Endings which sound like /ʃəl/	-cial is common after a vowel letter and -tial after a consonant letter, but there are some exceptions. Exceptions: initial, financial, commercial, provincial (the spelling of the last three is clearly related to finance, commerce and province).	http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf	
Words ending in -ant, -ance/-ancy, -ent, -ence/-ency	Use -ant and -ance/-ancy if there is a related word with a /æ/ or /eɪ/ sound in the right position; -ation endings are often a clue. Use -ent and -ence/-ency after soft c (/s/ sound), soft g (/dʒ/ sound) and qu, or if there is a related word with a clear /ɛ/ sound in the right position. There are many words, however, where the above guidance does not help. These words just have to be learnt.	observant, observance, (observation), expectant (expectation), hesitant, hesitancy (hesitation), tolerant, tolerance (toleration), substance (substantial) innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confidential) assistant, assistance, obedient, obedience, independent, independence http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes
<p>Words ending in -able and -ible</p> <p>Words ending in -ably and -ibly</p>	<p>The -able/-ably endings are far more common than the -ible/-ibly endings. As with -ant and -ance/-ancy, the -able ending is used if there is a related word ending in -ation.</p> <p>If the -able ending is added to a word ending in -ce or -ge, the e after the c or g must be kept as those letters would otherwise have their 'hard' sounds (as in cap and gap) before the a of the -able ending. The -able ending is usually but not always used if a complete root word can be heard before it, even if there is no related word ending in -ation. The first five examples opposite are obvious; in reliable, the complete word rely is heard, but the y changes to i in accordance with the rule.</p> <p>The -ible ending is common if a complete root word can't be heard before it but it also sometimes occurs when a complete word can be heard (e.g. sensible).</p>	<p>adorable/adorably (adoration), applicable/applicably (application), considerable/considerably (consideration), tolerable/tolerably (toleration)</p> <p>changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible</p> <p>dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable</p> <p>possible/possibly, horrible/horribly, terrible/terribly, visible/visibly, incredible/incredibly, sensible/sensibly</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes
Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words ending in -fer	<p>The r is doubled if the -fer is still stressed when the ending is added.</p> <p>The r is not doubled if the -fer is no longer stressed.</p>	<p>referring, referred, referral, preferring, preferred, transferring, transferred</p> <p>reference, referee, preference, transference</p>	
Use of the hyphen	Hyphens can be used to join a prefix to a root word, especially if the prefix ends in a vowel letter and the root word also begins with one.	co-ordinate, re-enter, co-operate, co-own	
Words with the /i:/ sound spelt ei after c	<p>The 'i before e except after c' rule applies to words where the sound spelt by ei is /i:/.</p> <p>Exceptions: protein, caffeine, seize (and either and neither if pronounced with an initial /i:/ sound).</p>	<p>deceive, conceive, receive, perceive, ceiling</p> <p>http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf Pg. 55</p>	
Words containing the letter-string ough	ough is one of the trickiest spellings in English - it can be used to spell a number of different sounds.	<p>ought, bought, thought, nought, brought, fought</p> <p>rough, tough, enough</p> <p>cough</p> <p>though, although, dough</p> <p>through</p> <p>thorough, borough</p> <p>plough, bough</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes
Words with 'silent' letters (i.e. letters whose presence cannot be predicted from the pronunciation of the word)	Some letters which are no longer sounded used to be sounded hundreds of years ago: e.g. in knight, there was a /k/ sound before the /n/, and the gh used to represent the sound that 'ch' now represents in the Scottish word loch.	doubt, island, lamb, solemn, thistle, knight http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf f Page 11	
Homophones and other words that are often confused	In the pairs of words opposite, nouns end -ce and verbs end -se. Advice and advise provide a useful clue as the word advise (verb) is pronounced with a /z/ sound - which could not be spelt c.	advice/advise device/devise licence/license practice/practise prophecy/prophecy <u>More examples:</u> aisle: a gangway between seats (in a church, train, plane). isle: an island. aloud: out loud. allowed: permitted. affect: usually a verb (e.g. The weather may affect our plans). effect: usually a noun (e.g. It may have an effect on our plans). If a verb, it means 'bring about' (e.g. He will effect changes in the running of the business). altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church. alter: to change. ascent: the act of ascending (going up). assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun). bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding. bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse. cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal). serial: adjective from the noun series - a succession of things one after the other. compliment: to make nice remarks about someone (verb) or the remark that is made (noun). complement: related to the word complete - to make something complete or more complete (e.g. her scarf complemented her outfit).	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	
<p>Homophones and other words that are often confused (continued)</p> <p>Examples from year 3 / year 4 accept/except, affect/effect, ball/bawl, berry/bury, brake/break, fair/fare, grate/great, groan/grown, here/hear, heel/heal/he'll, knot/not, mail/male, main/mane, meat/meet, medal/meddle, missed/mist, peace/piece, plain/plane, rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether,</p>	<p>descent: the act of descending (going down). dissent: to disagree/disagreement (verb and noun).</p> <p>desert: as a noun - a barren place (stress on first syllable); as a verb - to abandon (stress on second syllable) dessert: (stress on second syllable) a sweet course after the main course of a meal.</p> <p>draft: noun - a first attempt at writing something; verb - to make the first attempt; also, to draw in someone (e.g. to draft in extra help) draught: a current of air.</p>	<p>principal: adjective - most important (e.g. principal ballerina) noun - important person (e.g. principal of a college) principle: basic truth or belief</p> <p>profit: money that is made in selling things</p> <p>prophet: someone who foretells the future</p> <p>stationary: not moving stationery: paper, envelopes etc.</p> <p>steal: take something that does not belong to you steel: metal</p> <p>wary: cautious weary: tired</p> <p>who's: contraction who's: contraction of who is or who has whose: belonging to someone (e.g. Whose jacket is that?)</p>	

Writing Progression

Note: In the Punctuation & Terminology columns any terms in bold are a statutory requirement of the National Curriculum

Year 5

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word Structure / Language	Punctuation	Terminology
Consolidate Year 4 list Introduce: Secure independent use of planning tools Story mountain /grids/flow diagrams (Refer to Story Types grids) Plan opening using: Description /action/dialogue Paragraphs: Vary connectives within paragraphs to build cohesion into a paragraph Use change of place, time and action to link ideas across paragraphs. Use 5 part story structure Writing could start at any of the 5 points. This may include flashbacks Introduction –should include action	Consolidate Year 4 list Introduce: Relative clauses beginning with <i>who, which, that, where, when, whose</i> or an omitted relative pronoun. Secure use of simple / embellished simple sentences Secure use of compound sentences Develop complex sentences: (Subordination) Main and subordinate clauses with full range of conjunctions: (See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.) Expanded –ed clauses as starters e.g.	Consolidate Year 4 list Introduce: Metaphor Personification Onomatopoeia Empty words e.g. <i>someone, somewhere was out to get him</i> Developed use of technical language Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (e.g. –	Consolidate Year 4 list Introduce: Rhetorical question Dashes Brackets/dashes/commas for parenthesis Colons Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity	<u>Consolidate:</u> Punctuation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Letter/ Word • Sentence • Statement question exclamation Command • Full stops/ Capitals • Question mark • Exclamation mark • ‘Speech marks’ • Direct speech • Inverted commas • Bullet points • Apostrophe contractions/ possession • Commas for sentence of 3 – description, action

<p>/ description -character or setting / dialogue</p> <p>Build-up –develop suspense techniques</p> <p>Problem / Dilemma –may be more than one problem to be resolved</p> <p>Resolution –clear links with dilemma</p> <p>Ending –character could reflect on events, any changes or lessons, look forward to the future ask a question.</p> <p>Non-Fiction (Refer to Connectives and Sentence Signposts document for Introduction and Endings)</p> <p>Introduce: Independent planning across all genres and application</p> <p>Secure use of range of layouts suitable to text.</p> <p>Structure: Introduction / Middle / Ending</p> <p>Secure use of paragraphs: Use a variety of ways to open texts and draw reader in and make the purpose clear</p>	<p><i>Encouraged by the bright weather, Jane set out for a long walk.</i></p> <p><i>Terrified by the dragon, George fell to his knees.</i></p> <p>Elaboration of starters using adverbial phrases e.g. <i>Beyond the dark gloom of the cave, Zach saw the wizard move.</i> <i>Throughout the night, the wind howled like an injured creature.</i></p> <p>Drop in –‘ed’ clause e.g. <i>Poor Tim, exhausted by so much effort, ran home.</i> <i>The lesser known Bristol dragon, recognised by purple spots, is rarely seen.</i></p> <p>Sentence reshaping techniques e.g. lengthening or shortening sentence for meaning and /or effect</p> <p>Moving sentence chunks (how, when, where) around for different effects e.g. <i>The siren echoed loudlythrough the lonely streetsat</i></p>	<p><i>ate; –ise; –ify)</i></p> <p>Verb prefixes (e.g. <i>dis–, de–, mis–, over– and re–</i>)</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Colon – instructions Parenthesis / bracket / dash <p>Singular/ plural Suffix/ Prefix Word family Consonant/Vowel</p> <p>Adjective / noun / noun phrase Verb / Adverb Bossy verbs - imperative Tense (past, present, future) Conjunction / Connective Preposition Determiner/ generaliser Pronoun – relative/ possessive Clause Subordinate/ relative clause Adverbial Fronted adverbial</p> <p>Alliteration Simile – ‘as’/ ‘like’ Synonyms</p> <p><u>Introduce:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relative clause/ pronoun
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Link ideas within and across paragraphs using a full range of connectives and signposts Use rhetorical questions to draw reader in Express own opinions clearly Consistently maintain viewpoint Summary clear at the end to appeal directly to the reader	<i>midnight</i> Use of rhetorical questions Stage directions in speech (speech + verb + action) e.g. <i>"Stop!" he shouted, picking up the stick and running after the thief.</i> Indicating degrees of possibility using modal verbs (e.g. might, should, will, must) or adverbs (perhaps, surely)			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modal verb • Parenthesis • Bracket- dash • Determiner • Cohesion • Ambiguity • Metaphor • Personification • Onomatopoeia • Rhetorical question
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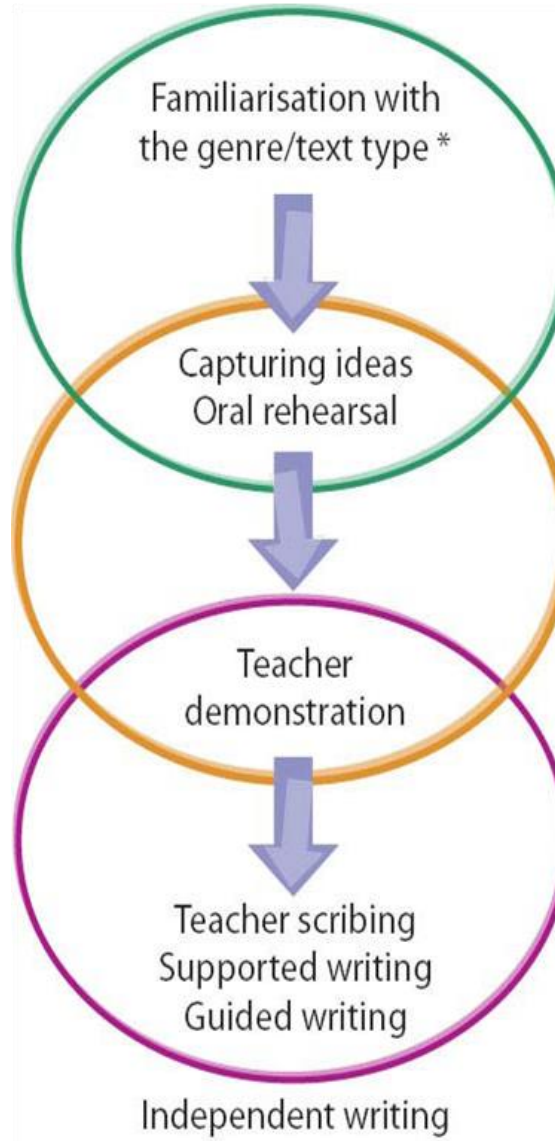
Year 6

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word Structure / Language	Punctuation	Terminology
Consolidate Year 5 list Secure independent planning across story types using 5 part story structure. Include suspense, cliff hangers, flashbacks/forwards, time slips Start story at any point of the 5 part structure	Consolidate Year 5 list Secure use of simple / embellished simple sentences Secure use of compound sentences Secure use of complex	Consolidate Year 5 list Build in literary feature to create effects e.g. alliteration, onomatopoeia, similes, metaphors The difference between vocabulary typical of	Consolidate Year 5 list Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to indicate a stronger subdivision of a sentence than a comma. Use of colon to introduce a list and semi-colons within lists.	<u>Consolidate:</u> Punctuation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Letter/ Word • Sentence • Statement question exclamation Command • Full stops/ Capitals

<p>Maintain plot consistently working from plan</p> <p>Paragraphs -Secure use of linking ideas within and across paragraphs</p> <p>Secure development of characterisation</p> <p>Non-fiction:</p> <p>Secure planning across non-fiction genres and application</p> <p>Use a variety of text layouts appropriate to purpose</p> <p>Use range of techniques to involve the reader –comments, questions, observations, rhetorical questions</p> <p>Express balanced coverage of a topic</p> <p>Use different techniques to conclude texts</p>	<p>sentences: (Subordination) Main and subordinate clauses with full range of conjunctions: (See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.)</p> <p>Active and passive verbs to create effect and to affect presentation of information e.g. Active: <i>Tom accidentally dropped the glass.</i> Passive: <i>The glass was accidentally dropped by Tom.</i> Active: <i>The class heated the water.</i> Passive: <i>The water was heated.</i></p> <p>Developed use of rhetorical questions for persuasion</p> <p>Expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely (e.g. <i>the boy that jumped over the fence is over there, or the fact</i></p>	<p>informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing (e.g. <i>said versus reported, alleged, or claimed in formal speech or writing</i>)</p> <p>How words are related as synonyms and antonyms e.g. <i>big/ large / little</i></p>	<p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information.</p> <p>How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (e.g. <i>man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover</i>)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Question mark • Exclamation mark • ‘Speech marks’ • Direct speech • Inverted commas • Bullet points • Apostrophe contractions/ possession • Commas for sentence of 3 – description, action, views/opinions, facts • Colon – instructions • Parenthesis • Bracket- dash <p>Singular/ plural Suffix/ Prefix Word family Consonant/Vowel</p> <p>Adjective / noun / noun phrase Verb / Adverb Bossy verbs - imperative Tense (past, present, future) modal verb Conjunction / Connective Preposition Determiner/ generaliser Pronoun – relative/ possessive Clause</p>
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<p>Use appropriate formal and informal styles of writing</p> <p>Choose or create publishing format to enhance text type and engage the reader</p> <p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence), and elision</p> <p>Layout devices, such as headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text</p>	<p><i>that it was raining meant the end of sports day)</i></p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (such as the use of question tags, e.g. <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i>, or the use of the subjunctive in some very formal writing and speech) as in <i>If I were you</i>.</p>			<p>Subordinate / relative clause Adverbial Fronted adverbial Rhetorical question</p> <p>Cohesion Ambiguity Alliteration Simile – 'as' / 'like' Synonyms Metaphor Personification Onomatopoeia</p> <p><u>Introduce:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active and passive voice • Subject and object • Hyphen • Synonym, antonym • Colon/ semi-colon • Bullet points • Ellipsis
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The Writing Teaching Sequence



English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active verb has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
adjective	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]</p> <p><i>Their work was <u>good</u>.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives:</p> <p><i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]</p>
adverb	<p>The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even a whole clause.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as adverbials, such as preposition phrases, noun phrases and subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, adverbs can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses .	<i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>] <i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i> , according to the intended meaning] <i>She worked until she had finished.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<i>hot - cold</i> <i>light - dark</i> <i>light - heavy</i>
apostrophe	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) marking possessives (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>). 	<i><u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters] <i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [marking possessives]
article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner .	<i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i>
auxiliary verb	The auxiliary verbs are: <i>be</i> , <i>have</i> , <i>do</i> and the modal verbs . They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>be</i> is used in the progressive and passive <i>have</i> is used in the perfect <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present 	<i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the progressive] <i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect] <i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present] <i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
clause	A clause is a special type of phrase whose head is a verb . Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be main or subordinate . Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb , but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	<i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence] <i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses] <i><u>If you are coming to the party</u>, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
		<i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]
cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive devices can help to do this.</p> <p>In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	A visit has been arranged for <u>Year 6</u> , to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u> , leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit . <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i> . During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow <i>the trail</i> .
cohesive device	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear ▪ ellipsis of expected words. 	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [<u> </u>] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
complement	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>They seem very <u>competent</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>they</i>]</p> <p><i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>
compound, compounding	<p>A compound word contains at least two root words in its morphology; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i>, <i>superman</i>. Compounding is very important in English.</p>	<i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow</i>
conjunction	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an 	<p><i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>equal pair</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
consonant	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowel sounds.</p>	<p>/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]</p> <p>/t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released]</p> <p>/f/ [flow of air obstructed by the bottom lip touching the top teeth]</p> <p>/s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]</p>
continuous	See progressive	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (i.e. <i>and, but, or</i>).</p> <p>In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in bold, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><i>Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>They talked <u>and</u> drank tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
determiner	<p>A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> articles (<i>the, a</i> or <i>an</i>) demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>) possessives (e.g. <i>my, your</i>) quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>). 	<p><i><u>the</u> home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><i><u>a</u> good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><i><u>that</u> pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><i><u>Julia's</u> parents</i> [possessive, known]</p> <p><i><u>some</u> big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
digraph	A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme . Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.	The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>each</u> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>shed</u> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>line</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<i>Frankie waved to Ivana and she watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to do it.</i>
etymology	A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholē</i>) meaning 'leisure'. The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i> , meaning 'word'. The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
finite verb	Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite. Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	<i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense] <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense] <i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative] Not finite verbs: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>] <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>] <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]
fronting, fronted	A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb. When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.	<i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i> [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>] <i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.</i> [Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]
future	Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb .	<i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	See also tense . Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.	<i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>] <i>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	The grapheme <i>t</i> in the words <i>te<u>n</u></i> , <i>be<u>t</u></i> and <i>a<u>t</u>e</i> corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <i>ph</i> in the word <i>do<u>lphin</u></i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <i><u>s</u>ee</i> , but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <i>ea<u>s</u>y</i> .
head	See phrase .	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes - he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i> <i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk</i> , <i>be</i>). Infinitives are often used: ▪ after <i>to</i> ▪ after modal verbs .	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of morphology produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. past tense or plural). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same word family . Inflection is sometimes thought	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> .

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' transitive verb '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
main clause	A sentence contains at least one clause which is not a subordinate clause ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i><u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.</i> [two main clauses] <i><u>The man who wrote it</u> told me <u>that it was true</u>.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] <i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs . They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i> . A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing - he sings</i> , but not <i>I must - he musts</i>).	<i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i> <i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i> <i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i> <i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i> , where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]
modify, modifier	One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a phrase , the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.	In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i> . <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes , as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> . Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. <i>boy - boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy - boyish</i>) belonging to the same word family . A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).	<i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog + s</i> . <i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>unhelpful + ness</i> where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un + helpful</i> and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help + ful</i>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after determiners such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The ___ matters/matter."</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called 'naming words' because they name people, places and 'things'; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name 'things' such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or non-countable (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p> <p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p><i><u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>He's <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] <i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] <p>common, countable: <i>a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u></i></p> <p>common, non-countable: <i><u>money</u>, some <u>chocolate</u>, less <u>imagination</u></i></p> <p>proper, countable: <i><u>Marilyn</u>, <u>London</u>, <u>Wednesday</u></i></p>
noun phrase	<p>A noun phrase is a phrase with a noun as its head, e.g. <i>some foxes, foxes with bushy tails</i>. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes</i> are <i>multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i>.</p>	<p><i><u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i><u>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area</u> can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
object	<p>An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.</i> [noun acting as object]</p> <p><i>I like <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun acting as object]</p> <p>Some people suggested <i>a <u>pretty display</u></i>. [noun phrase acting as object]</p> <p>Contrast:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>A display was suggested.</i> [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
participle	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and 'past participle' (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p>	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a progressive]</p> <p><i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a perfect]</p>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time although past participles are used as perfects (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as passives (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>). 	<i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a passive]
passive	<p>The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the past participle form <i>eaten</i> the normal object (<i>it</i>) turned into the subject the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional preposition phrase with <i>by</i> as its head the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. <p>Contrast active.</p> <p>A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p><i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.</i></p> <p><i>Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.</i></p> <p>Active versions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> <i>A bus ran over our cat.</i> <p>Not passive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>] <i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]
past tense	<p>Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> talk about the past talk about imagined situations make a request sound more polite. <p>Most verbs take a suffix <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>
perfect	<p>The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, <i>he has gone to lunch</i> implies that he is still away, in contrast with <i>he went to lunch</i>. 'Had gone to lunch' takes a past time point (i.e. when we arrived) as its reference point and is another way of establishing time relations in a text. The perfect tense is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> turning the verb into its past participle inflection 	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now she has some songs]</p> <p><i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]</p>

English Glossary of Terms

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

English Glossary of Terms

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

English Glossary of Terms

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

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
sentence	<p>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence.</p> <p>The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.</p> <p>A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms 'single-clause sentence' and 'multi-clause sentence' may be more helpful.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</u></p> <p>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time. [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p>You are my friend. [statement] Are you my friend? [question] Be my friend! [command] What a good friend you are! [exclamation]</p> <p>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets. [single-clause sentence]</p> <p>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it. [multi-clause sentence]</p>
split digraph	See digraph .	
Standard English	<p>Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i>, <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most registers. The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.</p>	<p><i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]</p> <p><i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]</p> <p><i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>
stress	<p>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><u>about</u></p> <p><u>visit</u></p>
subject	<p>The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is:</p>	<p><u>Rula's mother</u> went out.</p>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> just before the verb in a statement just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <u>I</u> am, <u>you</u> are).</p>	<p><u>That</u> is uncertain.</p> <p><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</p> <p>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</p>
subjunctive	<p>In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.</p>	<p>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</p> <p>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</p> <p>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</p>
subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p> <p>See also subordinate clause.</p>	<p><u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]</p> <p><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</p> <p>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>. [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]</p>
subordinate clause	<p>A clause which is subordinate to some other part of the same sentence is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The apple that I ate was sour</i>, the clause <i>that I ate</i> is subordinate to <i>apple</i> (which it modifies). Subordinate clauses contrast with co-ordinate clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i>. (Contrast: main clause)</p> <p>However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.</p>	<p>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>. [relative clause; modifies street]</p> <p>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>. [adverbial; modifies watched]</p> <p><u>What you said</u> was very nice. [acts as subject of was]</p> <p>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>. [acts as object of noticed]</p> <p>Not subordinate: He shouted, "<u>Look out!</u>"</p>
suffix	<p>A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike root words, suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word.</p> <p>Contrast prefix.</p>	<p>call - <u>called</u></p> <p>teach - <u>teacher</u> [turns a verb into a noun]</p> <p>terror - <u>terrorise</u> [turns a noun into a verb]</p> <p>green - <u>greenish</u> [leaves word class unchanged]</p>

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
syllable	A syllable sounds like a beat in a word . Syllables consist of at least one vowel , and possibly one or more consonants .	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable. <i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
synonym	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast antonym .	<i>talk</i> - <i>speak</i> <i>old</i> - <i>elderly</i>
tense	In English, tense is the choice between present and past verbs , which is special because it is signalled by inflections and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including a future tense. (See also: future .) The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive .	<i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense - present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense - past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense - future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive - future time] <i>He <u>plans</u> to <u>study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive - future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense - imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb , which does not.	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
unstressed	See stressed .	
verb	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense , either present or past (see also future). Verbs are sometimes called 'doing words' because many verbs name an action that	<i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense]

English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn't distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.</p> <p>Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.</p>	<p><i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action]</p> <p><i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]</p> <p>Not verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina's house will take an hour.</i> [noun] <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]
vowel	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
word	<p>A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.</p> <p>Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built, he's</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u></i> [can be written with or without a space]</p> <p><i><u>I'm</u> going out.</i></p> <p><i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
word class	<p>Every word belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, determiner, pronoun, conjunction. Word classes are sometimes called 'parts of speech'.</p>	
word family	<p>The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of morphology, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><i>teach - teacher</i></p> <p><i>extend - extent - extensive</i></p> <p><i>grammar - grammatical - grammarian</i></p>