

**GRAMMAR FOR THE WELL-TRAINED MIND:
CORE INSTRUCTOR TEXT**

Also by Susan Wise Bauer

The Writing With Ease Series
(Well-Trained Mind Press, 2008-2010)

The Writing With Skill Series
(Well-Trained Mind Press, 2012-2013)

*The Story of Western Science:
From the Writings of Aristotle to the Big Bang Theory*
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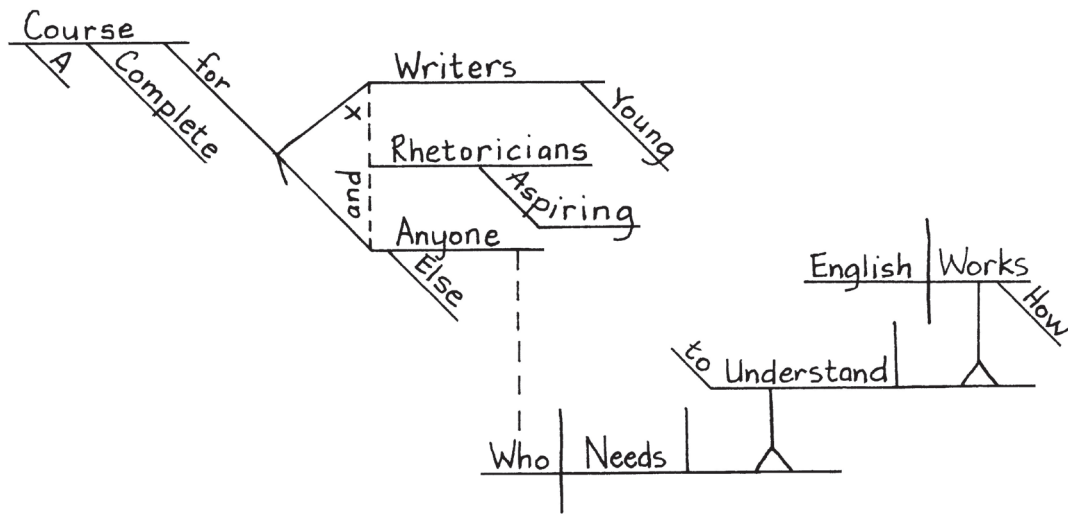
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GRAMMAR

FOR THE WELL-TRAINED MIND

CORE INSTRUCTOR TEXT



BY SUSAN WISE BAUER
AND AUDREY ANDERSON,
DIAGRAMS BY PATTY REBNE



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FOREWORD

Welcome to *Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind*!

This innovative grammar program takes students from basic definitions (“A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea”) all the way through detailed analysis of complex sentence structure. The student who completes this program will have all the skills needed for the study of advanced rhetoric—persuasive speech and sophisticated writing.

WHAT MAKES UP THE FULL PROGRAM

Each year of study in *Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind* requires three books.

The nonconsumable *Core Instructor Text* is used for each year of study. It contains scripted dialogue for the instructor, all rules and examples, and teaching notes that thoroughly explain ambiguities and difficulties.

There are four *Student Workbooks* with accompanying *Keys*. Each consumable workbook provides a full course of exercises and assignments. Each corresponding key gives complete, thoroughly explained answers. Your goal is to complete all four *Workbooks* before the student finishes high school. (See *How the Program Works*, below.)

Two optional reference books are also available. All rules and definitions, with accompanying examples, have been assembled into a handy reference book, *The Grammar Guidebook*. This handbook will serve the student for all four years of study—and will continue to be useful as the student moves through advanced high school writing, into college composition, and beyond. In addition, all diagramming rules covered in the course are summarized in *The Diagramming Dictionary: A Complete Reference Tool for Young Writers, Aspiring Rhetoricians, and Anyone Else Who Needs to Understand How to Diagram English Sentences*.

HOW THE PROGRAM WORKS

Language learning has three elements.

First: Students have to understand and memorize rules. We call this “prescriptive learning”—grasping the explicit principles that govern the English language and committing them to memory. *Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind* presents, explains, and drills all of the essential rules of the English language. Each year, the student reviews and repeats these rules.

Second: Students need examples of every rule and principle (“descriptive learning”). Without examples, rules remain abstract. When the student memorizes the rule “Subjunctive verbs express situations that are unreal, wished for, or uncertain,” she also needs to memorize the example “I would not say such things if I were you!” Each year, the student reviews and repeats the *same* examples to illustrate each rule.

Third: Students need *practice*. Although the four workbooks repeat the same rules and examples, each contains a completely new set of exercises and writing assignments, along with complete answers.

The combination of *repetition* (the same rules and examples each year) and *innovation* (brand-new practice materials in every workbook) leads the student to complete mastery of the English language.

HOW TO USE GRAMMAR FOR THE WELL-TRAINED MIND

When you first use the program, begin with the *Core Instructor Text* and any *Student Workbook/Key to Student Workbook* combination. Keep the *Grammar Guidebook* and the *Diagramming Dictionary* on hand for reference.

During this first year, you shouldn't expect the student to grasp every principle thoroughly. Simply go through the dialogue for each week's lessons (there are four lessons per week), ask the student to complete the exercises, check the answers, and discuss any mistakes.

If you're working with a high school student, you'll ideally complete the *Student Workbook* in one year. Some students will need longer—and that's absolutely fine. Feel free to take as much time as necessary to finish this workbook. When the first *Student Workbook* is completed (whether in one year, or more!), go back to the beginning of the *Core Instructor Text* and start over, this time using another *Student Workbook/Key* combination. You'll go over the same dialogue, the same rules, and the same examples—with an entirely fresh set of exercises for the student to practice on. This combination of repeated information along with new and challenging exercises will truly begin to build the student's competence in the English language. Follow this same procedure for the third and fourth years of study, using the remaining *Student Workbooks* and matching keys.

Regular reviews are built into the program. Every three weeks the student takes some extra time to do six exercises reviewing what was covered in the three weeks before. After Week 27, the reviews double in scope: twelve exercises review the material all the way back to the beginning of the course. These reviews, beginning with Review 9, become one week's work each. During review weeks, students should try to do three exercises per day, and then should go back and review the rules and principles of any exercise in which they miss two or more sentences/examples.

If you are working with a student in grades 5-8 or an older student who struggles with language work, you may find that it will take you a full year to go through the first twenty weeks of the program. The exercises increase in complexity and difficulty after Week 20. A student who needs a full year to complete Weeks 1-20 should return to the same material (Weeks 1-20) the following year, using another *Student Workbook/Key* combination. Only when the concepts in these lessons are mastered should you move on to Weeks 21 and following.

Students who begin the program in fifth or sixth grade might then spend several years working through the Weeks 1-20 lessons in all four workbooks, and then move on to the Weeks 21-36 lessons during the high school years. Your goal is simply to complete the entire series of Weeks 1-36 at least twice (and ideally, all four times) before the student graduates.

Once the Weeks 1-36 sequence has been completed four times, the student has mastered all the grammar needed for good writing!

BRINGING NEW STUDENTS INTO THE PROGRAM

Because each workbook makes use of the same rules and examples, if you are teaching more than one student (or in a classroom or co-op setting), you may bring new students in at any workbook level. If you've already completed one *Student Workbook/Key* combination with

your student or class, you may bring a new student in with the next *Student Workbook/Key* combination in any following year. The workbooks cover the same essential material.

IMPORTANT PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

As you teach, keep the following in mind.

- Language is a rich complicated tapestry. It is occasionally logical, and sometimes irrational. Mastering its complexities takes time and patience. Don't expect the student to master—or even completely understand—every principle the first time through. Do your best, but be willing to accept imperfect learning the first couple of times through the program. The repetition and practice will eventually bring clarity. Be diligent—don't abandon the curriculum because of frustration! But accept confusion as a natural part of learning the more advanced language concepts.
- Always prompt the student for answers if she becomes confused. This is not a test. It is a learning process. Give as much help as necessary.
- From Week 19 (halfway through the course) on, the student is encouraged to read sentences out loud. Reading out loud is an important part of evaluating your own writing. Do not allow the student to simply read silently—help him develop this skill by following the directions to read aloud.
- Take as long as you need to finish each lesson. As noted above, it's perfectly acceptable to take more than one year to finish a workbook (particularly the first time through). The earlier lessons are shorter and simpler; they increase in both complexity and length as the book goes on. But especially in the later lessons, don't worry if you need to divide a lesson over two days, or take more than one week to complete a week's worth of lessons. In subsequent years, the student will go much more quickly through the earlier lessons, giving you time to stop and concentrate on areas of challenge later on.
- The first time through, ask the student to complete each exercise. In subsequent repetitions, however, you adjust the student's workload in the earlier (and simpler) lessons so that you can spend more time on the later exercises. If the student remembers and understands the concept, ask her to do the first four or five sentences in the exercise. If she completes them correctly, skip the rest of the exercise and move on. This will allow you to customize the program to each student's strengths and weaknesses.
- In my previous grammar and writing programs, I have recommended that students answer all questions in complete sentences. This is essential practice for younger students. However, older students who are writing fluently AND have already had plenty of practice answering in complete sentences do not need to keep this up. As material gets more complex, complete sentence answers simply become too long and unwieldy.

If, however, you are working with a struggling writer, you may wish to ask her to answer in complete sentences rather than following the script as written. So, for example, where the instructor text reads:

Instructor: What gender do you think the word grandfather has?

→ *Student: Masculine.*

Instructor: What gender does grandmother have?

→ *Student: Feminine.*

you may instead ask the student to answer:

Instructor: What gender do you think the word grandfather has?

→ Student: “Grandfather” is masculine.

Instructor: What gender does grandmother have?

→ Student: “Grandmother” is feminine.

ABOUT DIAGRAMMING

Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind uses diagramming exercises throughout.

Diagramming is a learning process. The student should think of the diagrams as experimental projects, not tests. He should attempt the diagram, look at the answer, and then try to figure out why any differences exist. Expect these assignments—particularly in the second half of the book—to be challenging. Give all necessary help using the key, and don’t allow the student to be frustrated. Always ask the student to diagram with a pencil (or on a whiteboard or blackboard), and expect him to erase and redo constantly.

Also remember that diagramming is not an exact science! If the student can defend a diagram, accept it even if it’s different from the key. To quote a 1914 grammar text: “Many constructions are peculiar, idiomatic, and do not lend themselves readily to any arrangement of lines” (Alma Blount and Clark S. Northup, *An English Grammar for Use in High and Normal Schools and in Colleges*).

A FINAL NOTE

Whenever possible, *Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind* quotes from *real* books (novels, histories, science books, biographies, and more). This shows how grammar works in the real world.

However, just because I quote from something doesn’t mean it’s appropriate for your child to check out of the library. I quote from books that contain profanity, sex, and death. Whether or not your child is ready to read the entire thing is a family decision.



WEEK 1

Introduction to Nouns and Adjectives

— LESSON 1 —

Introduction to Nouns Concrete and Abstract Nouns

Instructor: Look around the room. Tell me the names of four things that you see.

→ *Student: [Names things in room.]*

Instructor: All of those names are **nouns**. A **noun names a person, place, thing, or idea**. You will see that rule in your book. Repeat it after me: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Note to Instructor: If the student has not previously memorized this definition, ask him to repeat it five times at the beginning of each lesson until he has committed it to memory.

Instructor: You listed four nouns for me: [Repeat names of things]. These are all things that you can see. Can you see me?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Of course you can. I am a person that you can see. Can you see a kitchen?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Can you see a supermarket?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Kitchens and supermarkets are both places that you can see. Persons, places, and things are special kinds of nouns called **concrete nouns**. We use the word *concrete* for the hard substance used to make parking lots and sidewalks. Concrete nouns are *substantial* nouns that we can see or touch—or those we can experience through our other senses. *Dog* is a concrete noun, because you can see and touch (and smell!) a dog. *Wind* is a concrete noun, because you can feel the wind, even though you can't see or touch it. *Perfume* is a concrete noun because you can smell it, even though you can't feel or see it. Is *tree* a concrete noun?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Is *poem* a concrete noun?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Yes, because you can see a poem on the page of a book or hear a poem when it is spoken out loud. Is *tune* a concrete noun?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Yes, because you can hear a tune. Is *truth* a concrete noun?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: You can't see, taste, touch, smell, or hear truth. *Truth* is an **abstract noun**. An abstraction can't be experienced through sight, taste, feel, smell, or hearing. Truth is real, but we can't observe truth with our senses. Is *justice* an abstract noun?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Is *liberty* an abstract noun?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Repeat after me: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses.

→ *Student: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses.*

Instructor: Abstract nouns cannot.

→ *Student: Abstract nouns cannot.*

Instructor: Let's repeat that definition together three times.

→ *Together: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses. Abstract nouns cannot.*

Note to Instructor: Like most grammatical definitions, this one does not cover every possible use in the English language. For example, *music* can be a concrete noun ("I hear music") or an abstract noun ("Music transports us to another world").

If the student asks about exceptions, tell him that the line between abstract and concrete nouns is not always clear, but this definition helps us to identify ideas, beliefs, opinions, and emotions as nouns.

Instructor: Do the Lesson 1 exercises in your workbook now. Read the instructions and follow them carefully.

— LESSON 2 —

Introduction to Adjectives

Descriptive Adjectives, Abstract Nouns

Formation of Abstract Nouns from Descriptive Adjectives

Instructor: What is a noun?

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: In the last lesson, we talked about abstract nouns like *peace* and *intelligence* and concrete nouns like *mud* and *earthworms*. Repeat after me: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses. Abstract nouns cannot.

→ *Student: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses. Abstract nouns cannot.*

Instructor: Look at the shirt [or dress] you're wearing. Is *shirt* a concrete or abstract noun?

→ *Student: Concrete.*

Instructor: Let's describe this concrete noun. What words can you use to tell me more details about this shirt? What color is it? Is it short-sleeved or long-sleeved? Is it soft, or rough and scratchy?

→ Student: *[Soft, short-sleeved, blue . . .]*

Instructor: The words that you used to describe the noun *shirt* are **adjectives**. Adjectives are words that tell us more about concrete and abstract nouns—as well as pronouns, which we will talk about soon. We could define an adjective as a word that describes a noun or pronoun. But some adjectives do more than simply describe nouns. They *change* or *modify* nouns as well. To *modify* a noun is to alter its meaning a little bit. We'll learn more about adjectives that alter the meaning of nouns later on, but for right now let's just prepare for those lessons by modifying (changing) our description. Repeat the definition of an adjective after me: **An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.**

→ Student: *An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: “Modifies” means “describes” or “tells more about.”

Now look at the next sentence with me: Adjectives answer four questions about nouns: What kind, which one, how many, and whose. Say that after me: **Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.**

→ Student: *Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.*

Instructor: In later lessons, we will learn about adjectives that answer the questions which one, how many, and whose. Today, let's talk about adjectives that tell *what kind*. Are you a boy or a girl?

→ Student: *I am a [boy or girl].*

Instructor: [Boy or girl] is a concrete noun. Are you hungry or full?

→ Student: *I am [hungry or full].*

Instructor: You are a [hungry or full] [boy or girl]. [Hungry or full] tells *what kind* of [boy or girl] you are. Are you quiet or loud?

→ Student: *I am [quiet or loud].*

Instructor: You are a [quiet or loud] [boy or girl]. Are you cheerful or grumpy?

→ Student: *I am [cheerful or grumpy].*

Instructor: You are a [cheerful or grumpy] [boy or girl]. These words—hungry, full, quiet, loud, cheerful, grumpy—all answer the question *what kind* of [boy or girl] you are. When an adjective answers the question *what kind*, we call it a **descriptive adjective**. Repeat after me: **Descriptive adjectives tell what kind.**

→ Student: *Descriptive adjectives tell what kind.*

Instructor: Descriptive adjectives have a special quality about them. They can be changed into abstract nouns. **A descriptive adjective becomes an abstract noun when you add -ness to it.** If you are hungry, you are experiencing *hungriness*. If you are full, you are experiencing . . .

→ Student: *Fullness.*

Instructor: If you are cheerful, you are filled with cheerfulness. If you are grumpy, you are filled with . . .

→ Student: *Grumpiness.*

Instructor: *-Ness* is a *suffix*. A suffix is added onto the end of a word in order to change its meaning. At the end of this lesson, you will do an exercise changing descriptive adjectives into abstract nouns. You will see a spelling rule at the beginning of this exercise. When you add the suffix *-ness* to a word ending in *-y*, the *y* changes to *i*. Be sure to pay attention to this rule! Repeat it after me: When you add the suffix *-ness* to a word ending in *-y* . . .

→ *Student: When you add the suffix -ness to a word ending in -y . . .*

Instructor: . . . the y changes to i.

→ *Student: . . . the y changes to i.*

Instructor: Most words need a suffix when they change from an adjective to a noun. However, there is one category of words that never needs a new form to cross the line between nouns and adjectives. These words are colors! The names for colors can be used as nouns or adjectives, without changing form. If I say to you, “I like blue,” *blue* is a noun. It is the name of the color I like. But if I say, “You are wearing your blue shirt,” *blue* is a descriptive adjective. It explains what kind of shirt you are wearing. In a sentence, tell me a color that you *don’t* like.

→ *Student: I don’t like [color].*

Instructor: In that sentence, [color] is a noun. It is the name of the color you don’t like! Now, in a sentence, tell me what color [pants or dress] you are wearing.

→ *Student: I am wearing [brown] pants.*

Instructor: What kind of [pants or dress] are you wearing? Brown [pants or dress]! Brown is a descriptive adjective that tells *what kind*.

Instructor: Complete the exercises at the end of the lesson. If you do not understand the instructions, ask me for help.

— LESSON 3 —

Common and Proper Nouns Capitalization and Punctuation of Proper Nouns

Instructor: You are a person, but we don’t just call you “Hey, [boy or girl].” (Or, “Hey, [man or woman]!”) Your name is [name]. That is the proper name for you. [Boy or girl] is a **common noun**. **A common noun is a name common to many persons, places, things, or ideas.** There are many [boys or girls] in the world. But there is only one of you! **A proper noun is the special, particular name for a person, place, thing, or idea.** *Book* is a common noun that names a thing. Give me the name of a particular book.

→ *Student: [Names book.]*

Instructor: *[Name of Book]* is a proper noun. *Mother* is a common noun that names a person. There are many mothers in the world! What is the special, particular name of your mother?

→ *Student: [First, last name.]*

Instructor: *[First, last name]* is a proper noun. *Store* is a common noun that names a place. Give me the name of a particular store that is near us.

→ *Student: [Names store.]*

Instructor: *[Store]* is a proper noun. **Proper nouns always begin with capital letters.** The capital letter tells us that this is a special, particular name. The rules in your workbook tell you what kinds of names should begin with capital letters. Read each rule out loud, but after each rule, stop while I explain it. Then I will read you the examples beneath each rule.

→ *Student: 1. Capitalize the proper names of persons, places, things, and animals.*

Instructor: We have already talked about proper names of persons, places, and things. Animals often have proper names too—if they're pets! Follow along as I read the examples out loud to you.

boy	Peter
store	Baskin-Robbins
book	<i>Little Women</i>
horse	Black Beauty

Instructor: Sometimes proper names of places may have two- or three-letter words in them. Normally, we do not capitalize those words unless they are at the beginning of the proper name. Follow along as I read the following examples to you.

sea	Sea of Galilee
port	Port of Los Angeles
island	Isle of Skye

→ *Student: 2. Capitalize the names of holidays.*

Instructor: Holidays are particular, special days. Follow along as I read the examples out loud to you.

Memorial Day
Christmas
Independence Day
Day of the Dead

→ *Student: 3. Capitalize the names of deities.*

Instructor: We treat the names of gods and goddesses, of all religions, the same way we would treat the names of people: We capitalize them! Follow along as I read the examples out loud to you. Remember that in Christianity and Judaism, *God* is a proper name!

Minerva (ancient Rome)
Hwanin (ancient Korea)
God (Christianity and Judaism)
Allah (Islam)
Gitche Manitou or Great Spirit (Native American—Algonquin)

→ *Student: 4. Capitalize the days of the week and the months of the year, but not the seasons.*

Instructor: The seasons are spring, summer, winter, and fall. Those are written with lowercase letters. Follow along as I read the examples out loud to you.

Monday	January	winter
Tuesday	April	spring
Friday	August	summer
Sunday	October	fall

→ *Student: 5. Capitalize the first, last, and other important words in titles of books, magazines, newspapers, movies, television series, stories, poems, and songs.*

Instructor: Titles of works are proper nouns that require special attention! First, notice that small, unimportant words in titles—like *a*, *an*, *the*, *and*, *but*, *at*, *for*, and other very short words—do not need to be capitalized in titles, unless they are the first or last word. I will read each common noun in the list that follows. Answer me by reading the proper noun that names the particular book, magazine, newspaper, and so on. As you read, notice which words in the proper nouns are not capitalized.

Note to Instructor: Begin by saying “book.” The student should answer by saying “*Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland*.” Continue on in the same pattern.

book	<i>Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland</i>
magazine	<i>National Geographic</i>
newspaper	<i>The Chicago Tribune</i>
movie	<i>A River Runs Through It</i>
television series	<i>The Waltons</i>
television show	“The Chicken Thief”
story	“The Visit of the Magi”
poem	“The Night Before Christmas”
song	“Joy to the World”
chapter in a book	“The End of the Story”

Instructor: You will notice that some of these titles are in italics. Others have quotation marks around them. Titles of longer works, such as books, movies, and television series, are put into italics. (When you write by hand, you show italics by underlining those titles.) Shorter works—stories, individual poems, single songs, chapters in books, single television shows—have quotation marks around them instead. *The Waltons* is an entire long television series. “The Chicken Thief” is one episode in one of the seasons.

→ *Student: 6. Capitalize and italicize the names of ships, trains, and planes.*

Instructor: When a ship, train, or plane has a proper name, you should capitalize it. But if the name has short words in it, you shouldn’t capitalize those. We also put those names into italics—or underline them, if we’re writing by hand. Follow along as I read the examples out loud to you.

ship	<i>Titanic</i>
train	<i>The Orient Express</i>
plane	<i>The Spirit of St. Louis</i>

Instructor: Which short word is not capitalized in those proper names?

→ *Student: Of.*

Instructor: Now complete the exercises at the end of the lesson. If you do not understand the instructions, ask me for help.

— LESSON 4 —

Proper Adjectives

Compound Adjectives (Adjective-Noun Combinations)

Instructor: In the last lesson, you looked at the difference between a common noun and a proper noun. What kinds of persons, places, things, and ideas can a common noun name?

→ *Student: Many different [or a similar answer].*

Instructor: What kind of name is a proper noun?

→ *Student: A particular, special name [or a similar answer].*

Note to Instructor: If the student cannot answer, ask her to reread the definitions at the beginning of Lesson 3 out loud.

Instructor: Review the rules for capitalizing proper nouns quickly by reading them out loud to me.

→ Student: 1. Capitalize the proper names of persons, places, things, and animals.

2. Capitalize the names of holidays.

3. Capitalize the names of deities.

4. Capitalize the days of the week and the months of the year, but not the seasons.

5. Capitalize the first, last, and other important words in titles of books, magazines, newspapers, movies, television series, stories, poems, and songs.

6. Capitalize and italicize the names of ships, trains, and planes.

Instructor: Proper nouns can often be used as adjectives. For example, what kind of tiger comes from the region of Bengal?

→ Student: A Bengal tiger.

Instructor: If someone speaks fluent Japanese, what kind of speaker is she?

→ Student: A Japanese speaker.

Instructor: A proper adjective is an adjective that is formed from a proper name. Read the definition of a proper adjective from your workbook.

→ Student: **A proper adjective is formed from a proper name. Proper adjectives are capitalized.**

Instructor: Read the examples of proper nouns and proper adjectives in your workbook.

→ Student: Aristotle, the Aristotelian philosophy; Spain, a Spanish city; Valentine's Day, some Valentine candy; March, March madness.

Instructor: Some proper nouns change their form when they are used as adjectives. Read the next two pairs of sentences in your workbook out loud.

→ Student: Shakespeare wrote a number of sonnets. I was reading some Shakespearean sonnets yesterday. Mars is the fourth planet from the sun. The Martian atmosphere is mostly carbon dioxide.

Instructor: Other times, proper names become adjectives just because they are placed in front of a noun. Read the next pair of sentences now.

→ Student: On Monday, I felt a little down. I had the Monday blues.

Instructor: In the second sentence, *Monday* answers the question, "What kind of blues?" So you know that *Monday* has become an adjective. Read the next pair of sentences now.

→ Student: The English enjoy a good cup of tea and a muffin. Gerald enjoys a good English muffin.

Instructor: What four questions do adjectives answer?

→ Student: What kind, which one, how many, whose.

Instructor: What kind of muffin does Gerald enjoy?

→ Student: An English muffin.

Instructor: Sometimes, proper adjectives are combined with other words that are *not* derived from proper names. Read the next two sentences in your workbook out loud.

→ Student: The German-speaking tourists were lost in Central Park. The archaeologist unearthed some pre-Columbian remains.

Instructor: *German* and *Columbian* are both proper adjectives. (They're derived from the place name *Germany* and the personal name *Columbus*.) But notice that *German* is connected by a hyphen to the word *speaking*, and *Columbian* is connected to the prefix *pre-*. Those words

are not capitalized just because they are combined with a proper adjective. **Words that are not usually capitalized remain lowercase even when they are attached to a proper adjective.** Repeat that rule out loud.

→ *Student: Words that are not usually capitalized remain lowercase even when they are attached to a proper adjective.*

Instructor: *Pre-Columbian* and *German-speaking* are **compound adjectives**. A compound adjective combines two words into a single adjective so that they function together. In the sentence “The German-speaking tourists were lost in Central Park,” *German-speaking* is a single word. The tourists were not “speaking tourists.” And they weren’t necessarily all “German tourists.” *German-speaking* is two words, but it has one meaning. Read me the definition of a compound adjective.

→ *Student: A compound adjective combines two words into a single adjective with a single meaning.*

Instructor: There are many different kinds of compound adjectives. *Pre-Columbian* is an adjective and a prefix. *German-speaking* is an adjective and a verb form called a participle. You’ll learn about these compound adjectives and more over the course of this year. Today, let’s look at one particular kind of compound adjective, made up of one adjective and one noun—the two parts of speech we’ve just covered. Read the next two sentences in your workbook out loud.

→ *Student: When the mine collapsed, it sent a plume of dust sky high. I just had a thirty-minute study session.*

Instructor: *Sky high* and *thirty-minute* are both compound adjectives made up of one noun and one adjective. Read the list of compound adjectives in your workbook. As you do, notice that each one is made up of one noun and one adjective. You don’t need to read the abbreviations *N* and *ADJ* out loud!

→ *Student:*

N	ADJ
<i>sky high</i>	
ADJ	N
<i>thirty minute</i>	
N	ADJ
<i>user friendly</i>	
ADJ	N
<i>high speed</i>	

Instructor: Now look back at the two sentences about the plume of dust and the thirty-minute workout. Something is different about *sky high* and *thirty-minute*. What is it?

→ *Student: Thirty-minute has a hyphen.*

Note to Instructor: If the student calls the hyphen a *dash*, agree, but then point out that *hyphen* is a better name. Technically, a dash is twice as long as a hyphen and is used to separate the parts of a sentence, rather than to connect two words. In typesetting, a dash is known as an *em dash* (—). A hyphen is half the length of an em dash. (Just for your information, there is a third mark in typesetting called an *en dash*, which is halfway between a hyphen and an em dash in length and has two major technical uses—one: it indicates range, and two: it joins words in compound adjectives if one part of the adjective is already hyphenated. Now you know. But there’s no need to go into this with the student.)

Instructor: When a compound adjective made up of one adjective and one noun comes right before the noun that it modifies, it is usually hyphenated. If it *follows* the noun, it is usually

not hyphenated. Look at the next pair of sentences. When *sky-high* comes right before *plume*, it is hyphenated, but when *thirty minutes* comes after *study session*, the hyphen disappears. Read the next two pairs of sentences out loud. Notice that the compound adjectives *user friendly* and *high speed* are only hyphenated when they come immediately before the nouns *directions* and *connections*.

→ *Student: Those directions are not user friendly! I prefer user-friendly directions. The connection was high speed. He needed a high-speed connection.*

Instructor: When an adjective comes right before the noun it modifies, as in *user-friendly directions*, we say that it is in the **attributive position**. When it follows the noun, it is in the **predicative position**. Attributive compound adjectives are hyphenated. Predicative compound adjectives aren't.

You don't necessarily have to remember those terms for this lesson. Just remember when to add the hyphen: when the compound adjective comes before the noun!

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.



WEEK 2

Introduction to Personal Pronouns and Verbs

— LESSON 5 —

Noun Gender

Introduction to Personal Pronouns

Note to Instructor: Ask the student to complete Exercise 5A before the lesson begins. Provide any answers that the student doesn't know (this exercise is for fun).

Instructor: We often use different names for male and female animals. Male and female animals have different **gender**. In English, we say that the words we use to name these animals also have *gender*. Nouns that name male animals are **masculine**. The words *bull* and *rooster* are masculine. Give me three more names from Exercise 5A that have masculine gender.

→ *Student: [Reads three names from the “male” column of Exercise 5A.]*

Instructor: Nouns that name female animals are **feminine** in gender. *Cow* and *hen* are feminine nouns. Give me three more names from Exercise 5A that have feminine gender.

→ *Student: [Reads three names from the “female” column of Exercise 5A.]*

Instructor: We also use masculine and feminine nouns to talk about other living things, including people. What is the masculine noun for a grown male person?

→ *Student: Man.*

Instructor: What is the feminine noun for a young female person?

→ *Student: Girl.*

Instructor: In English, nouns can have masculine or feminine gender. Nouns can also be **neuter** when it comes to gender. A *neuter* noun can refer to a living thing whose gender is unknown. In the list above, is a calf male or female?

→ *Student: It could be either or neither.*

Instructor: A calf can be either masculine or feminine. So can a chick. When we don't know the gender of a living thing, we say that it is *neuter*. The words *bull* and *rooster* have masculine gender, the words *cow* and *hen* have feminine gender, and the words *calf* and *chick* have neuter gender. What gender do you think the word *grandfather* has?

→ *Student: Masculine.*

Instructor: What gender does *grandmother* have?

→ *Student: Feminine.*

Instructor: What about *grandchild*?

→ *Student: Neuter.*

Instructor: We also use the word *neuter* for nouns that refer to nonliving things. Furniture, rocks, and clouds aren't either male or female. So we say that the nouns *table*, *boulder*, and *cloud* have neuter gender. Look around the room and name three things that have neuter gender.

→ Student: *[Names three things.]*

Instructor: Repeat after me: **Nouns have gender.**

→ Student: *Nouns have gender.*

Instructor: **Nouns can be masculine, feminine, or neuter.**

→ Student: *Nouns can be masculine, feminine, or neuter.*

Instructor: **We use *neuter* for nouns that have no gender, and for nouns whose gender is unknown.**

→ Student: *We use neuter for nouns that have no gender, and for nouns whose gender is unknown.*

Instructor: In some languages, the gender of a noun changes that noun's form. A masculine noun will have one kind of ending; a feminine noun, another. In English, we usually only pay attention to gender in one particular situation: when we're replacing a noun with a pronoun. Read me the next brief paragraph in your workbook.

→ Student: *Subha Datta set off for the forest, intending to come back the same evening. He began to cut down a tree, but he suddenly had a feeling that he was no longer alone. As it crashed to the ground, he looked up and saw a beautiful girl dancing around and around in a little clearing nearby. Subha Datta was astonished, and let the axe fall. The noise startled the dancer, and she stood still.*

Instructor: In the second sentence, who is *he*?

→ Student: *Subha Datta.*

Instructor: In the third sentence, what is *it*?

→ Student: *The tree.*

Instructor: In the final sentence, what is *she*?

→ Student: *The beautiful girl or the dancer.*

Instructor: *He*, *it*, and *she* are **pronouns**. **A pronoun takes the place of a noun.** Repeat that definition after me.

→ Student: *A pronoun takes the place of a noun.*

Note to Instructor: If the student is not familiar with this definition, have him memorize it by repeating it three times at the beginning of the next few lessons.

Instructor: The pronoun *he* is a masculine pronoun; it takes the place of the proper noun Subha Datta. The pronoun *it* is a neuter pronoun. Why do we call the tree *it*?

→ Student: *We don't know what gender it is.*

Instructor: *He* is a masculine pronoun. *It* is a neuter pronoun. *She* is a feminine pronoun. In the following sentence, replace the correct noun with the feminine pronoun *she*: Sarah was ready to eat lunch.

→ Student: *She was ready to eat lunch.*

Instructor: There is a special word for the noun that the pronoun replaces: the **antecedent**. *Ante-* is a Latin prefix that means "before." *Cedent* comes from a Latin word meaning "to go." So *antecedent* literally means "to go before." Usually, the antecedent noun *goes before* its pronoun. Read me the next sentence in your workbook.

→ *Student: Subha Datta thought he was dreaming.*

Instructor: *Subha Datta* is the antecedent of the pronoun *he*. Repeat after me: **The antecedent is the noun that is replaced by the pronoun.**

→ *Student: The antecedent is the noun that is replaced by the pronoun.*

Instructor: Less often, the antecedent noun follows the pronoun. Read the next sentence out loud.

→ *Student: Although she did not yet know it, the fairy had not convinced Subha Datta.*

Instructor: What is the antecedent of the pronoun *she*?

→ *Student: The fairy.*

Instructor: Let's read the list of pronouns together.

→ *Together: I, you, he, she, it, we, you (plural), they.*

Instructor: These pronouns are called **personal pronouns**. **Personal pronouns replace specific nouns**. They show who is speaking, who or what is being spoken about, and who or what is being spoken to. You will learn about other kinds of pronouns in later lessons. Just like the nouns they replace, these personal pronouns have gender. Which of these pronouns is masculine?

→ *Student: He.*

Instructor: Which pronoun is feminine?

→ *Student: She.*

Instructor: The pronoun *it* is neuter. The other pronouns—*I, you, we, and they*—can be either masculine or feminine, depending on whether their antecedent is male or female.

Complete the exercises at the end of the lesson. If you do not understand the instructions, ask for help.

— LESSON 6 —

Review Definitions

Introduction to Verbs

Action Verbs, State-of-Being Verbs

Parts of Speech

Instructor: What is your favorite kind of animal?

→ *Student: [Names animal.]*

Instructor: Is the word [*animal*] a noun or an adjective?

→ *Student: Noun.*

Instructor: What is a noun?

Note to Instructor: If the student cannot answer, direct him to the definitions in his workbook.

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: Is it a common or a proper noun?

→ *Student: Common.*

Instructor: Repeat after me: A common noun is a name common to many persons, places, things, or ideas.

→ *Student: A common noun is a name common to many persons, places, things, or ideas.*

Instructor: Is it a concrete or an abstract noun?

→ *Student: Concrete.*

Instructor: Repeat after me: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses. Abstract nouns cannot.

→ *Student: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses. Abstract nouns cannot.*

Instructor: Now think of some descriptive adjectives that apply to this animal. Remember, an adjective modifies a noun or pronoun. Repeat after me: Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.

→ *Student: Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.*

Instructor: Descriptive adjectives tell what kind. (Repeat!)

→ *Student: Descriptive adjectives tell what kind.*

Instructor: Have you thought of some descriptive adjectives for your animal? See if you can list at least three.

→ *Student: [Answers will vary: Hairy, scaly, black, white, spotted, small, huge, wrinkled, whiskered, carnivorous . . .]*

Instructor: You can turn many descriptive adjectives into abstract nouns by adding *-ness*. Can you turn any of your adjectives into abstract nouns?

→ *Student: [Answers will vary: Whiteness, hairiness, smallness, hugeness . . .]*

Instructor: Now, tell me some things this animal can do. Try to use single words; for example instead of saying *stalk and catch an antelope*, say, *Stalk, catch, eat*.

→ *Student: [Answers will vary: Bark, sleep, crawl, swim . . .]*

Instructor: These words are **verbs**. Read me the definition of a verb.

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: We have just talked about the verbs that your animal can do. When a verb is doing an action, it is called an action verb. Repeat after me: A verb shows an action.

→ *Student: A verb shows an action.*

Instructor: List five actions that you can do. Begin with, *Talk!*

→ *Student: Talk, [answers will vary: write, eat, think, sleep, clean, dress, walk, run].*

Instructor: Those are actions that you do. Now let me ask you a question. Where are you?

→ *Student: I am [in the kitchen, in Virginia, in the United States].*

Instructor: Where am I?

→ *Student: You are [in the kitchen, in Virginia, in the United States].*

Instructor: Those answers don't tell anything about actions that you and I might be doing. Instead they state where you and I *are*—where we exist at this particular moment. Where is [a male friend or member of the family]?

→ *Student: He is [answers will vary].*

Instructor: Where is [a female friend or member of the family]?

→ *Student: She is [answers will vary].*

Instructor: *Am*, *are*, and *is* are state-of-being verbs. A state-of-being verb just shows that something exists. Read the list of state-of-being verbs out loud.

Note to Instructor: If the student has not previously learned the state-of-being verbs, have him repeat them five times before each grammar lesson until they are memorized.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.*

Instructor: Now you understand the first half of the definition. Go ahead and repeat the whole definition for me now.

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: We will discuss the last part of that definition in the next lesson.

Now you have learned the definitions of four **parts of speech**: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs. **Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.** Let's review those parts of speech one more time. What does a noun do?

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: What does an adjective do?

→ *Student: An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: What does a pronoun do?

→ *Student: A pronoun takes the place of a noun.*

Instructor: What does a verb do?

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: Now complete the exercises at the end of the lesson. If you do not understand the instructions, ask me for help.

— LESSON 7 —

Helping Verbs

Instructor: What is a part of speech? If you can't remember the definition, you may read it from your workbook.

→ *Student: Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.*

Instructor: What does a verb do? See if you can repeat the definition from memory.

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Note to Instructor: If the student cannot repeat the definition from memory, continue to have him repeat it five times before each grammar lesson until it is memorized.

Instructor: List three action verbs that a horse can do.

→ *Student:* [Answers will vary: *Walk, trot, gallop, neigh, eat, drink, sleep, roll, bite.*]

Instructor: List the state-of-being verbs for me. See if you can do this from memory.

→ *Student:* *Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.*

Note to Instructor: If the student cannot list the verbs from memory, continue to have him repeat them five times before each grammar lesson until they are memorized.

Instructor: We'll talk about verbs that link two words together a little later. Right now, let's discuss the last part of that definition: A verb can help another verb. Look at Exercise 7A now. In the second column of sentences, the main verbs are each *helped* by a state-of-being verb. Complete this exercise now.

Instructor: In these sentences, the helping verbs together with the action verb form the complete verb. Read the list of helping verbs out loud.

→ *Student:* *Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, could.*

Note to Instructor: If the student has not previously learned the helping verbs, have him repeat them five times before each grammar lesson until they are memorized.

Instructor: You'll notice that the first eight helping verbs are the same as the state-of-being verbs. The state-of-being verbs can either stand alone or help another verb. Repeat after me: I am.

→ *Student:* *I am.*

Instructor: I am speaking.

→ *Student:* *I am speaking.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, *am* is all alone and is a state-of-being verb. In the second sentence, *am* is helping the verb *speaking* (you can't just say, "I speaking"). Helping verbs make it possible for verbs to express different times and different sorts of action; we'll learn about these times and actions in later lessons. For now, complete Exercise 7B.

Note to Instructor: If the student has difficulty supplying the helping verbs, you may suggest answers. The purpose of this exercise is to teach the student to be aware of helping verbs when they occur.

— LESSON 8 —

Personal Pronouns

First, Second, and Third Person Capitalizing the Pronoun I

Instructor: Answer me in a complete sentence: How old are you?

→ *Student:* *I am [age].*

Instructor: What part of speech does that sentence begin with?

Note to Instructor: If necessary, tell the student to look at the first set of words in the workbook.

→ *Student: A pronoun.*

Instructor: Tell me all the personal pronouns now. Try not to look at your workbook.

→ *Student: I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they.*

	Personal Pronouns	
	Singular	Plural
First person	I	we
Second person	you	you
Third person	he, she, it	they

Instructor: Now look at the list of personal pronouns in your workbook. You might notice something different about this list: Each pronoun has a *person* and a *number*.

There are three kinds of *persons* that pronouns refer to. You can find the first kind of person by pointing to yourself.

Note to Instructor: Point to yourself and prompt the student to do the same.

Instructor: I am pointing to myself. What are you doing?

→ *Student: I am pointing to myself.*

Instructor: The first person is the one who is pointing, or speaking, or just *being*. If you're all by yourself, you use the pronoun *I* about yourself. That is the *first person singular personal pronoun*. Say that phrase after me.

→ *Student: First person singular personal pronoun.*

Note to Instructor: Move over and stand next to the student. Emphasize the word *we*.

Instructor: Now there are two of us. *We* is plural. What is the *first person plural personal pronoun*?

→ *Student: We.*

Note to Instructor: As you speak, leave the room and speak to the student through the door.

Instructor: Now *we* are both *I* again. Who is in the room?

→ *Student: I am.*

Instructor: There is only one person in the room—until now. [Step back through the door.] Now there is a second person in the room. Who is the second person?

→ *Student: You are.*

Instructor: For the second person, we use the pronoun *you*. In English, *you* can be either singular or plural. If there were two of me here, you would still say “You are.” *You* is both the *second person singular* and the *second person plural personal pronoun*. Who is the second person, again?

→ *Student: You are.*

Instructor: And what would you say if there were two of me?

→ *Student: You are.*

Instructor: Imagine that a third person has just walked into the room and you and I are talking to each other about this third person. If the third person happens to be Luke Skywalker, I would say, “He is in the room (and he has a light saber).” *He* is the *masculine third person singular pronoun*. Now imagine that Tinkerbell has followed Luke Skywalker into the room. What pronoun would you use to tell me that Tinkerbell is in the room?

→ *Student: She is in the room.*

Instructor: Now a horse has poked its head into the room. You don’t know whether the horse is male or female. What pronoun would you use for the horse?

→ *Student: It.*

Instructor: *He, she, and it* are all *third person singular personal pronouns*, with three different genders. There’s only one personal pronoun left. If the horse, Tinkerbell, and Luke Skywalker all set off on a quest together, we would say, “They have gone on a quest.” *They* is the *third person plural personal pronoun*. Say that after me.

→ *Student: They is the third person plural personal pronoun.*

Instructor: Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: Although they are not very hungry, I certainly am.*

Instructor: There are two personal pronouns in this sentence. What are they?

→ *Student: They and I.*

Instructor: What person and number is the pronoun *they*?

→ *Student: Third person plural.*

Instructor: What person and number is *I*?

→ *Student: First person singular.*

Instructor: There’s one more difference between the pronouns. Can you figure out what it is?

Note to Instructor: If necessary, prompt the student by saying, “What kind of letter is *t*? What kind of letter is *I*?”

→ *Student: I is a capital letter and they begins with a small letter.*

Instructor: The personal pronoun *I* is always capitalized. No one really knows why. In Old English, the first person singular pronoun was *ich*. Middle English uses *ich*, *ic*, and *i*. But by the end of the Middle English period, most writers were using the capital *I* all by itself. Maybe the small *i* looked lonely all by itself. We’ll never know. All you need to remember is that *I* is always capitalized.

Let’s use this sentence to quickly review a couple of other things. There are two verbs in the sentence. What are they?

→ *Student: Are and am.*

Instructor: What kinds of verbs are these?

→ *Student: State-of-being verbs.*

Instructor: What part of speech is *hungry*?

Note to Instructor: If necessary, prompt the student by saying, “*Hungry* modifies *he*. What part of speech modifies a noun or a pronoun?”

→ *Student: An adjective.*

Instructor: Read the next sentence for me.

→ *Student: As the German-built plane rose into the air, I experienced a strange loneliness.*

Instructor: What are the two verbs in that sentence?

→ *Student: Rose and experienced.*

Instructor: What kinds of verbs are those?

→ *Student: Action verbs.*

Instructor: What are the three nouns in the sentence?

→ *Student: Plane, air, loneliness.*

Instructor: One of those nouns is an *abstract* noun. Which is it?

→ *Student: Loneliness.*

Instructor: Even though loneliness can be experienced, it is an abstract noun because it is a feeling that cannot be touched, seen, smelled, or heard. What kinds of nouns are *plane* and *air*?

→ *Student: Concrete nouns.*

Instructor: You can't see air, but it is a real thing that has a physical effect on your body—so *air* is definitely concrete! What part of speech is *German-built*?

→ *Student: An adjective OR A compound adjective.*

Note to Instructor: If the student says *adjective*, ask, “What kind of adjective?”

Instructor: Why is *German* capitalized?

→ *Student: It is a proper adjective.*

Instructor: Is *German-built* in the attributive or predicative position?

→ *Student: Attributive.*

Instructor: It is hyphenated because it is in the attributive position.

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.



WEEK 3

Introduction to the Sentence

— LESSON 9 —

The Sentence

Parts of Speech and Parts of Sentences Subjects and Predicates

Note to Instructor: This lesson begins with a series of instructor questions and statements that are intended to be confusing. Say the first one and then wait for the student to look puzzled (or say “What?”) before continuing on; do the same for the next three.

Note to Instructor: Today’s lesson teaches the terms *subject* and *predicate*. The difference between simple and complete subjects and predicates will be covered in Lesson 12. If the student has already learned these terms and asks about them, you may tell her that *subject* and *predicate* in Lessons 9-11 is shorthand for *simple subject* and *simple predicate*.

Instructor: Today’s lesson.

Instructor: For a little while.

Instructor: If raining.

Instructor: Caught a ball.

Instructor: You probably didn’t understand anything I just said. That’s because I wasn’t using sentences. Read me the first definition.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate.*

Instructor: Look at the first sentence, “The cat sits on the mat.” The word *cat* is underlined. What part of speech is the word *cat*—noun, adjective, pronoun, or verb?

→ *Student: Noun.*

Instructor: The correct part of speech is written above the word. Look at the word *sits*. What part of speech is *sits*?

→ *Student: It is a verb.*

Instructor: Most sentences have two basic parts—the **subject** and the **predicate**. **The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.** Repeat that definition.

→ *Student: The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

Instructor: Who or what is the first sentence about?

→ *Student: The cat.*

Instructor: *Cat* is the subject. If I ask, “What part of speech is *cat*?” you would answer *noun*. But if I ask, “What part of the sentence is *cat*?” you would answer *subject*. Look at the definitions below the example sentence and read me the second definition found there.

→ Student: *Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.*

Instructor: Now read me the third definition.

→ Student: ***Part of the sentence is a term that explains how a word functions in a sentence.***

Instructor: Look at the second example sentence. What is the *subject* of that sentence—the main word or term that the sentence is about?

→ Student: *Tyrannosaurus rex.*

Instructor: Write *subject* on the line under *Tyrannosaurus rex*, across from the label *part of the sentence*. What *part of speech* is the subject *Tyrannosaurus rex*?

→ Student: *A noun.*

Instructor: Write *noun* above *Tyrannosaurus rex*, across from the label *part of speech*.

Now look back at the first sentence. The double-underlined word *sits* is a verb; it shows an action. *Verb*, the correct part of speech, is written on the line above it. In the second sentence, what part of speech is the double-underlined word?

→ Student: *Verb.*

Instructor: Write *verb* on the line above *crashes*. Now look back at the first sentence. Earlier, I said that each sentence has two parts—the subject and the predicate. The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about. **The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject.**

The word *predicate* comes from the Latin word *praedicare* [preh-dee-car-eh], meaning “to proclaim.” The predicate of the sentence is what is said or *proclaimed* about the subject. Read that definition out loud.

→ Student: *The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, the predicate tells us something about the subject—it tells us that the cat is *sitting*. *Sits* is the predicate of the first sentence. What is the predicate of the second sentence?

→ Student: *Crashes.*

Instructor: Write *predicate* on the *part of the sentence* line beneath *crashes*. Now let’s review. What is a part of speech? You may look back at your book for the answer.

→ Student: *Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.*

Instructor: What four parts of speech have you learned so far?

→ Student: *Noun, adjective, pronoun, verb.*

Instructor: What is a part of the sentence?

→ Student: *Part of the sentence is a term that explains how a word functions in a sentence.*

Instructor: Most sentences have two parts—a subject and a predicate. What is a subject?

→ Student: *The subject of a sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

Instructor: What is a predicate?

→ *Student: The predicate of the sentence tells us something about the subject.*

part of speech

noun

verb

The *Tyrannosaurus rex* *crashes* through the trees.

part of the sentence

subject

predicate

Instructor: Complete the Lesson 9 exercises now.

— LESSON 10 —

Subjects and Predicates

Diagramming Subjects and Predicates

Sentence Capitalization and Punctuation

Sentence Fragments

Instructor: What was the definition of a sentence that we read in the last lesson? You may read it from your workbook if you can't remember.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that contains a subject and predicate.*

Instructor: The next three groups of words in your workbook are sentences, even though each sentence is only two words long. Read them out loud now.

→ *Student: He does. They can. It is.*

Instructor: Each group of words has a subject and a predicate. The subjects are underlined once, and the predicates are underlined twice. Read me the definition of a subject.

→ *Student: The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

Instructor: Read me the definition of a predicate.

→ *Student: The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject.*

Instructor: You can usually find the subject by asking, "Who or what is the sentence about?" What is the subject of the next sentence?

→ *Student: Hurricanes.*

Instructor: Underline the word *hurricanes* once. This is the subject. What do hurricanes do?

→ *Student: Form.*

Instructor: Underline the word *form* twice. This is the predicate.

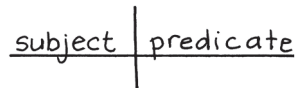
Note to Instructor: If the student answers, "Form over warm tropical waters," ask him to answer with a single word.

Instructor: You've marked the subject and predicate by underlining them, but there's a better way to show how the parts of a sentence work together. When you diagram a sentence, you draw a picture of the logical relationships between the different parts of a sentence. The first step in diagramming any sentence is to diagram the subject and predicate. Look at the diagram of *Hurricanes form*.

Instructor: Which comes first on the diagram—the subject or the predicate?

→ *Student: The subject.*

Instructor: When you diagram a simple sentence like this one, you begin by drawing a straight horizontal line and dividing it in half with a vertical line. Make sure that the vertical line goes straight through the horizontal line. Write the subject on the left side of the vertical line and the predicate on the right side. Before we go on, write *subject* on the left side of the blank diagram in your book and *predicate* on the right side.



Instructor: A sentence is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate—but that's only the first part of the definition. Look at each one of the sentences in your workbook. What kind of letter does each sentence begin with?

→ *Student: A capital letter.*

Instructor: What is at the end of each sentence?

→ *Student: A period.*

Instructor: This is the second part of the definition. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. Read me the two-part definition of a sentence.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark.*

Instructor: Sometimes, a group of words begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark—but doesn't have a subject and a predicate. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: No running in the kitchen.*

Instructor: Do you understand that sentence?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: *No running in the kitchen* and *Caught a ball* are both groups of words without a subject and predicate. But *No running in the kitchen* makes sense, and *Caught a ball* doesn't. Sometimes a group of words can function as a sentence even though it's missing a subject or predicate. Read me the next paragraph.

→ *Student: Can we measure intelligence without understanding it? Possibly so; physicists measured gravity and magnetism long before they understood them theoretically. Maybe psychologists can do the same with intelligence. Or maybe not.*

Instructor: The group of bolded words makes complete sense, but there's no subject *or* predicate in them. On the other hand, the next two groups of words have subjects *and* predicates, but *don't* make complete sense. Read them out loud.

→ *Student: Because he couldn't go. Since I thought so.*

Instructor: Any time a group of words begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, it should make sense on its own. So we need to add one word and one more line to our definition. Read the new definition out loud.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that usually contains a subject and a predicate. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. A sentence contains a complete thought.*

Instructor: What word did we add to that definition? (It's in the first line.)

→ *Student: Usually.*

Instructor: What line did we add?

→ *Student: A sentence contains a complete thought.*

Instructor: If a group of words is capitalized and ends with a punctuation mark, but doesn't contain a complete thought, we call it a sentence fragment. When you're writing, avoid sentence fragments. Not every sentence *has* to have a subject and a predicate. But every sentence has to make sense when you read it on its own. Now finish the exercises at the end of the lesson.

— LESSON 11 —

Types of Sentences

Instructor: Let's begin by reviewing the definition of a sentence. Read that definition out loud.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that usually contains a subject and a predicate. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. A sentence contains a complete thought.*

Instructor: Read me the next sentence. Notice that it is written with a capital letter and a punctuation mark.

→ *Student: A purple penguin is playing ping-pong.*

Instructor: Read the sentence again, but this time read it with great excitement.

→ *Student: (with great excitement) A purple penguin is playing ping-pong!*

Instructor: Now read the sentence as though you were asking a question.

→ *Student: (in a questioning tone) A purple penguin is playing ping-pong?*

Instructor: When we are speaking, we can use expression in our voices and faces to convey feelings about what we are saying. When we are writing, however, we do not have expression, so we use punctuation as a tool to show the reader our feelings about a sentence. Read the definition of the first sentence type out loud.

→ *Student: A statement gives information. A statement always ends with a period.*

Instructor: A statement simply explains a fact. Statements declare that something is so. Make a statement about your shoes.

→ *Student: My shoes are [Answers will vary: blue, on my feet, dirty].*

Instructor: You will sometimes see statements called **declarative sentences**. *Declarative sentence* is another way to refer to a *statement*. What kind of sentences are statements?

→ *Student: Statements are declarative sentences.*

Instructor: Read the definition of the second type of sentence.

→ *Student: An exclamation shows sudden or strong feeling. An exclamation always ends with an exclamation point.*

Instructor: When we want to convey particularly strong emotion behind our statements, we can use an exclamation point. If we are surprised or excited about the purple penguin, we can write that sentence as an exclamation, and convey our surprise or excitement with an exclamation point. *A purple penguin is playing ping-pong!* Make an exclamation about your shoes!

→ *Student: My shoes are [Answers will vary: blue, on my feet, dirty]!*

Instructor: You will sometimes see exclamations called **exclamatory sentences**. “Exclamatory sentence” is another word for an exclamation. What kinds of sentences are exclamations?

→ *Student: Exclamations are exclamatory sentences.*

Instructor: Sometimes exclamations begin with question words like *how* or *what*, and do not have complete subjects and predicates. Examples of this type of exclamations are *What a strange bug!* or *How nice to see you!* What would you say if you wanted to make an exclamation about how fun this grammar lesson is?

→ *Student: What fun this grammar lesson is!*

Instructor: Read the definition of the third sentence type.

→ *Student: A command gives an order or makes a request. A command ends with either a period or an exclamation point.*

Instructor: When you tell someone to do something, you are giving a command. When you say, *Please pass the butter*, you are making a request; that is a command. If you say *Be quiet!* you are giving an order. That is also a command. Make a request of me, beginning with *please*.

→ *Student: Please [Answers will vary: sit down, walk to the door, stop giving me a grammar lesson].*

Instructor: That is a command. But I’m not going to follow it. Now give me an order.

→ *Student: Sit down [Answers will vary: walk to the door].*

Instructor: I’m not going to follow that command either. But you’re doing a good job. Depending on the emotion behind the command, you can use a period or an exclamation point. Stand up.

→ *Student [Stands up.]*

Instructor: That command ended with a period. Now sit down!

Note to Instructor: Use a strong tone of voice for the second command.

→ *Student: [Sits down.]*

Instructor: That command ended with an exclamation point. When you give someone a command, you are acting in an **imperative** manner—like a king or an emperor. “Imperative” comes from the Latin word for “emperor”: *imperator*. What kind of sentences are commands?

→ *Student: Commands are imperative sentences.*

Instructor: Look at the three commands in your workbook. Those commands are actually complete sentences—but they’re missing one of the basic sentence parts. What’s missing—the subject or the predicate?

→ *Student: The subject.*

Note to Instructor: If the student has difficulty answering this question, ask whether the commands are verbs or nouns. When the student answers “verbs,” point out that predicates contain verbs.

Instructor: The subject of a command is almost always *you*. If I say, “Sit!” what I really mean is, “You sit!” We say that the subject of a command is *understood to be you*, because the *you* is not spoken or written. Repeat after me: **The subject of a command is understood to be you.**

→ *Student: The subject of a command is understood to be you.*

Instructor: When we diagram a command, we write the word *you* in parentheses in place of the subject. Look at the diagram in your workbook. Notice that *you* is in parentheses and that *Sit* is capitalized in the diagram because it is capitalized in the sentence. Is the exclamation point on the diagram?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: Read the definition of the fourth type of sentence.

→ *Student: A question asks something. A question always ends with a question mark.*

Instructor: Ask me a question about my shoes.

→ *Student: Are your shoes [Answers will vary: blue]?*

Instructor: Stop interrogating me! To *interrogate* someone means to ask them questions. What are questions also known as?

→ *Student: Questions are known as interrogative sentences.*

Instructor: When you diagram a question, remember that English often forms a question by reversing the subject and the predicate. Read me the statement and the question in your workbook.

→ *Student: He is late. Is he late?*

Instructor: Look at the two diagrams of these two sentences. What is the difference between them?

→ *Student: The word He is capitalized in the first diagram, and the word Is is capitalized in the second.*

Instructor: When you diagram a question, you may want to turn it into a statement first. This will remind you that the subject still comes first on the diagram and the predicate comes second. Now complete the exercises at the end of the lesson. If you do not understand the instructions, ask me for help.

— LESSON 12 —

Subjects and Predicates

Helping Verbs

Simple and Complete Subjects and Predicates

Instructor: I'm going to begin a sentence and I want you to finish it. If you don't know what to say, look down at your workbook for a hint. Mary . . .

→ *Student: . . . had a little lamb.*

Instructor: Its fleece . . .

→ *Student: . . . was white as snow.*

Instructor: And everywhere that Mary went, the lamb . . .

→ *Student: . . . was sure to go.*

Instructor: All three of those sentences have a *subject* and a *predicate*. The subject of "Mary had a little lamb" is *Mary*. What did Mary do?

→ *Student: Had [a little lamb].*

Instructor: *Had* is the predicate. But there are actually more precise names for *Mary* and *had*.

Mary is the **simple subject** and *had* is the **simple predicate**. First, let's talk about the simple subject. The simple subject is *just* the main word or term that the sentence is about. Read the next two sentences in your workbook out loud.

→ Student: *The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

The simple subject of the sentence is just the main word or term that the sentence is about.

Instructor: In the next sentence, *fleece* is the *simple subject*. Underline *fleece* one time and then circle the phrase *its fleece*. *Its fleece* is the *complete subject*. The **complete subject** of the sentence is the simple subject and all the words that belong to it. Read the definition of complete subject out loud now.

→ Student: ***The complete subject of the sentence is the simple subject and all the words that belong to it.***

Instructor: You can probably guess what the complete predicate is. It's the simple predicate (the verb of the sentence) and all the words that belong to it. Read the next three sentences out loud.

→ Student: *The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject. The simple predicate of the sentence is the main verb along with any helping verbs. The complete predicate of the sentence is the simple predicate and all the words that belong to it.*

Instructor: In the sentence in your workbook, *was white as snow* is the complete predicate, and *was* is the simple predicate. Underline *was* twice and circle *was white as snow*.

Now, look at the next two sentences. Each one has been divided into the complete subject and the complete predicate. In each, the simple subject is underlined once and the simple predicate is underlined twice. Notice that the simple predicate is made up of both the main verb and the helping verb. Recite the helping verbs for me now.

→ Student: *Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, could.*

Instructor: Here's a summary of this whole lesson: You can divide any sentence into two parts: the simple subject and the words that belong to it, and the simple predicate and the words that belong to it.

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.

— REVIEW 1 —

The review exercises and answers are found in the Student Workbook and accompanying Key.



WEEK 4

Verb Tenses

— LESSON 13 —

Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs Sentences

Simple Present, Simple Past, and Simple Future Tenses

Instructor: Let's do a quick review of some of your definitions. What does a noun do?

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: What does a pronoun do?

→ *Student: A pronoun takes the place of a noun.*

Instructor: What does a verb do?

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: List the state-of-being verbs for me.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.*

Instructor: List the helping verbs for me.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, have, has, had, do, does, did, shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, could.*

Instructor: Read me the definition of a sentence.

→ *Student: A sentence is a group of words that usually contains a subject and a predicate. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. A sentence contains a complete thought.*

Instructor: Repeat these sentences after me: I sing.

→ *Student: I sing.*

Instructor: I eat.

→ *Student: I eat.*

Instructor: I learn.

→ *Student: I learn.*

Instructor: Each one of those sentences tells about something I am doing in the present—right now. Give me some other two-word sentences explaining what you are doing right now, in the present.

→ *Student: I* [Answers will vary: *sit, study, look, read, breathe*].

Note to Instructor: If the student uses *I am sitting, I am studying*, or a similar form, remind her that she can only use two words.

Instructor: You have learned that verbs do four things—show action, show state of being, link two words together, or help other verbs. But while verbs are doing these four things, they also give us information about *when* these things are happening. In your sentences, everything is happening right now—in the present. A verb can show present time, past time, or future time.

In grammar, we call the time a verb is showing its **tense**. *Tense* means “time.” Repeat after me: **A verb in the present tense tells about something that happens in the present.**

→ *Student: A verb in the present tense tells about something that happens in the present.*

Instructor: I might sing today, but yesterday, I sang. Repeat these sentences after me:
Yesterday, I ate.

→ *Student: Yesterday, I ate.*

Instructor: Yesterday, I learned.

→ *Student: Yesterday, I learned.*

Instructor: Each one of those sentences tells about something I did on a day that has passed—yesterday. Give me some other two-word sentences explaining what you did yesterday.

→ *Student: I* [Answers will vary: *sat, studied, looked, read, breathed*].

Note to Instructor: If the student uses *I was sitting, I was studying*, or a similar form, remind her that she can only use two words.

Instructor: Repeat after me: **A verb in the past tense tells about something that happened in the past.**

→ *Student: A verb in the past tense tells about something that happened in the past.*

Instructor: I might sing again tomorrow. Repeat these sentences after me: Tomorrow, I will sing.

→ *Student: Tomorrow, I will sing.*

Instructor: Tomorrow, I will eat.

→ *Student: Tomorrow, I will eat.*

Instructor: Tomorrow, I will learn.

→ *Student: Tomorrow, I will learn.*

Instructor: Each one of those sentences tells about something I will do in the future. Give me some other three-word sentences explaining what you will do tomorrow.

→ *Student: I* [Answers will vary: *will sit, will study, will look, will read, will breathe*.]

Note to Instructor: If the student uses *I will be sitting, I will be studying*, or a similar form, remind her that she can only use three words in her sentence.

Instructor: Repeat after me: **A verb in the future tense tells about something that will happen in the future.**

→ *Student: A verb in the future tense tells about something that will happen in the future.*

Instructor: In English, we have three tenses—past, present, and future. The verbs we’ve been using are in the **simple past**, **simple present**, and **simple future**. There are more complicated forms of past, present, and future, but we will talk about those another time. Right now, look at Exercise 13A. Fill in the missing tenses of each verb.

Note to Instructor: Give the student all necessary help in filling out this chart. The student may find it helpful to say the subject out loud with each form of the verb: *I will grab. I grab. I grabbed.*

Instructor: Look at the verbs in the *simple future* column. What did you add to each one?

→ *Student: Will.*

Instructor: We **form the simple future by adding the helping verb *will* in front of the simple present**. Now look at the verbs in the *simple past* column. What two letters did you add to each one?

→ *Student: -Ed.*

Instructor: **-Ed is a suffix. A suffix is one or more letters added to the end of a word to change its meaning.** Repeat that definition now.

→ *Student: A suffix is one or more letters added to the end of a word to change its meaning.*

Instructor: When you add the suffix *-ed* to the end of a verb, it changes the verb from simple present to simple past tense. That changes the meaning of the verb. Now read me the rules for forming the simple past of regular verbs. (Some verbs are *irregular* and don’t follow these rules. You’ll study the most common irregular verbs later.)

→ *Student: To form the past tense, add -ed to the basic verb.*

sharpen–sharpened
utter–uttered

If the basic verb ends in -e already, only add -d.

rumble–rumbled
shade–shaded

If the verb ends in a short vowel sound and a consonant, double the consonant and add -ed.

scam–scammed
thud–thudded

If the verb ends in -y following a consonant, change the y to i and add -ed.

cry–cried
try–tried

Instructor: Complete the remaining exercises in your workbook now.

— LESSON 14 —

Simple Present, Simple Past, and Simple Future Tenses Progressive Present, Progressive Past, and Progressive Future Tenses

Instructor: In the last lesson, you learned about simple tenses—ways a verb changes to show you whether it is happening in the past, present, or future. Repeat after me: I study, I studied, I will study.

→ *Student: I study, I studied, I will study.*

Instructor: Is the verb *study* past, present, or future?

→ *Student: Present.*

Instructor: A verb in the present tense tells about something that happens in the present. Is the verb *will study* in the past, present, or future?

→ *Student: Future.*

Instructor: A verb in the future tense tells about something that will happen in the future. Is the verb *studied* in the past, present, or future?

→ *Student: Past.*

Instructor: A verb in the past tense tells about something that happened in the past. Look at the verb *study* in your workbook. What did we add to it to make it future?

→ *Student: Will.*

Instructor: What did we add to it to make it past?

→ *Student: The suffix -ed.*

Instructor: Read me the rules for forming the simple past.

→ *Student: To form the past tense, add -ed to the basic verb. If the basic verb ends in -e already, only add -d. If the verb ends in a short vowel sound and a consonant, double the consonant and add -ed. If the verb ends in -y following a consonant, change the y to i and add -ed.*

Instructor: Complete Exercise 14A now.

Instructor: Verbs in the simple past, simple present, and simple future simply tell you when something happened. But these simple tenses are *so* simple that they don't give you any more information. If I say, *I cried*, I might mean that I shed a single tear. Or I might mean that I wept and wept and wept for hours. Today we're going to learn about three more tenses. They are called the **progressive past**, **progressive present**, and **progressive future**. Read me the next two sentences.

→ *Student: Yesterday, I cried. I was crying for a long time.*

Instructor: The verb *was crying* is progressive past. It tells you that the crying went on for a while in the past. Read me the next two sentences.

→ *Student: Today, I learn. I am learning my grammar.*

Instructor: The verb *am learning* is progressive present. It tells you that the learning is progressing on for some time today. Read me the next two sentences.

→ *Student: Tomorrow, I will celebrate. I will be celebrating all afternoon.*

Instructor: The verb *will be celebrating* is progressive future. It tells you that the celebration will go on for more than just a minute. Now read me the definition of a progressive verb.

→ *Student: A **progressive verb describes an ongoing or continuous action.***

Instructor: Look at the list of progressive verbs in Exercise 14B. Each one of those progressive verbs has the same suffix, or ending. What is it?

→ *Student: The ending -ing.*

Instructor: Circle the ending of each verb. Then, underline the helping verbs that come in front of each verb.

Instructor: To form a progressive tense, you add helping verbs and the suffix *-ing*. Repeat after me:

The progressive past tense uses the helping verbs *was* and *were*.

→ Student: *The progressive past tense uses the helping verbs was and were.*

Instructor: **The progressive present tense uses the helping verbs *am*, *is*, and *are*.**

→ Student: *The progressive present tense uses the helping verbs am, is, and are.*

Instructor: **The progressive future tense uses the helping verb *will be*.**

→ Student: *The progressive future tense uses the helping verb will be.*

Instructor: There are two spelling rules you should keep in mind when you add *-ing* to a verb. Read them out loud, along with the examples.

→ Student: ***If the verb ends in a short vowel sound and a consonant, double the consonant and add -ing.***

skip-skipping

drum-drumming

If the verb ends in a long vowel sound plus a consonant and an -e, drop the e and add -ing.

smile-smiling

trade-trading

Instructor: Complete the remaining exercises now.

— LESSON 15 —

Simple Present, Simple Past, and Simple Future Tenses

Progressive Present, Progressive Past, and Progressive Future Tenses

Perfect Present, Perfect Past, and Perfect Future Tenses

Instructor: This week, we have learned about tenses—verb forms that tell us when actions take place. We have also learned about two different kinds of tenses—simple and progressive. A simple tense *simply* tells us when an action takes place. But a progressive tense tells us when an action takes place—and that the action lasted for a while. Read me the first definition in your workbook.

→ Student: *A progressive verb describes an ongoing or continuous action.*

Instructor: Read me the next sentence.

→ Student: *Yesterday, I was studying tenses.*

Instructor: The verb *was studying* is progressive past. It tells you that the studying went on for a while in the past. Read me the second sentence.

→ Student: *Today, I am studying tenses.*

Instructor: The verb *am studying* is progressive present. It tells you that the studying is still progressing for some time today. Read me the third sentence.

→ Student: *Tomorrow, I will be studying something else!*

Instructor: The verb *will be studying* is progressive future. It tells you that the studying will still be progressing for some time tomorrow. But will you be studying about tenses?

→ *Student: No!*

Instructor: You've learned about simple and progressive tenses. Today, we will be studying the third kind of tense. Read me the imaginary news bulletin in your workbook.

→ *Student: NEWS BULLETIN! A diamond theft occurred at the National Museum yesterday. The thief had already fled the scene when a security guard discovered that the diamond was missing.*

Instructor: When did the theft occur?

→ *Student: Yesterday.*

Instructor: The verb *occurred* is simple past. It just tells that sometime yesterday, the theft occurred. What did the security guard do?

→ *Student: He discovered that the diamond was missing.*

Instructor: What tense is the verb *discovered* in?

→ *Student: Simple past.*

Instructor: What happened *before* the security guard discovered the missing diamond?

→ *Student: The thief fled.*

Instructor: By the time the security guard discovered the theft, the thief was finished fleeing. But was the diamond still missing?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: *Discovered* is the simple past. *Was missing* is the progressive past—the missing was going on yesterday, and it is still going on today. But *had fled* is the third kind of tense: the **perfect tense**. Repeat after me: **A perfect verb describes an action which has been completed before another action takes place.**

→ *Student: A perfect verb describes an action which has been completed before another action takes place.*

Instructor: The thief had completed his fleeing before the security guard discovered the theft. Read me the next three sentences.

→ *Student: I practiced my piano. I was practicing my piano all day yesterday. I had practiced my piano before I went to bed.*

Instructor: The first sentence is in the simple past. You simply practiced. The second sentence is in the progressive past. The practicing went on for some time. The third sentence is in the perfect past. You finished practicing the piano—and *then* you went to bed. There are three perfect tenses—just like there are three simple tenses and three progressive tenses. They are perfect present, perfect past, and perfect future. Look at the chart in your workbook and read me the three sentences underneath *perfect past*.

→ *Student: I had practiced yesterday. I had eaten before bed. I had seen the movie a week ago.*

Instructor: Each one of those actions was finished in the past before something else happened. Repeat after me: **Perfect past verbs describe an action that was finished in the past before another action began.**

→ *Student: Perfect past verbs describe an action that was finished in the past before another action began.*

Instructor: You usually form the perfect past with the helping verb *had*. Now read me the three sentences underneath *perfect present*.

→ *Student: I have practiced. I have eaten already. I have seen the movie once.*

Instructor: Each one of those actions was finished in the past, but we don't know exactly when—just that they're finished *now*. Repeat after me: **Perfect present verbs describe an action that was completed before the present moment.**

→ *Student: Perfect present verbs describe an action that was completed before the present moment.*

Instructor: You usually form the perfect present with the helping verbs *have* and *has*. Read me the three sentences underneath *perfect future*.

→ *Student: I will have practiced tomorrow. I will have eaten by bedtime tomorrow. I will have seen the movie before it leaves the theater.*

Instructor: Those actions haven't even happened yet—but they will be finished, in the future, before something else happens. Repeat after me: **Perfect future verbs describe an action that will be finished in the future before another action begins.**

→ *Student: Perfect future verbs describe an action that will be finished in the future before another action begins.*

Instructor: You should use the helping verbs *will have* for the perfect future. Complete your exercises now.

— LESSON 16 —

Simple Present, Simple Past, and Simple Future Tenses Progressive Present, Progressive Past, and Progressive Future Tenses Perfect Present, Perfect Past, and Perfect Future Tenses Irregular Verbs

Instructor: Read the first line of verbs in your workbook now.

→ *Student: Go, run, are, know, make.*

Instructor: These are some of the most common and frequently used verbs in English. And because English speakers have used them *so* often, something weird has happened to them. Read the second list of verbs, making each word two syllables.

→ *Student: Go-ed, run-ned, ar-ed, know-ed, mak-ed.*

Instructor: That should sound very strange to you. But that's what these verbs would sound like if they formed the simple past by adding *-ed*, like most other verbs. The suffix would make each word two syllables long—and for common verbs, that's too long! Here's what you should remember about people: We're lazy and in a hurry at the same time. It takes more time and effort to say two syllables than to say one. That's why names like Robert and Michael and Christopher usually get shrunk down to Bob, Mike, and Chris—and that's why each one of these common verbs has gotten reduced down to a quick one-syllable version of itself. Read those one-syllable versions now.

→ *Student: Went, ran, were, knew, made.*

Instructor: We call these **irregular verbs** because they don't follow the rule for the simple past. You probably know all of these irregular forms already, because you've been using them in speech since you learned how to talk. Your first exercise is a chart of irregular verbs. Fill out the Exercise 16A chart now.

Instructor: Once you know the simple past and simple present of an irregular verb, you can usually form the progressive tenses without any problem. But the perfect tenses are often irregular too. Read all nine forms of the irregular verb "go" from the chart in your workbook.

→ *Student: Went, go, will go; was going, am going, will be going; had gone, have gone, will have gone.*

Instructor: Notice that the progressive tenses add the suffix *-ing* to the simple present and use helping verbs—just like a regular verb. But what does the verb *go* change to, in the perfect tenses?

→ *Student: It becomes gone.*

Instructor: That's an irregular perfect. If it were regular, you would say *had went, have went, will have went*. Sometimes you'll hear people who don't know their grammar use this form: *I had went to the store*. But you're learning the correct forms now, so *you* will always say, *I had gone to the store*. Now look at the verb *eat*. What irregular form does *eat* take in the perfect tenses?

→ *Student: Eaten*

Instructor: Would you ever say, *I will have ate my dinner*?

→ *Student: No!*

Instructor: We'll study more irregular verbs in later lessons. But the rest of this lesson is simple: fill out the chart in Exercise 16B with the correct forms. You have been given the simple present of each verb; use the 16A chart for reference if necessary. If you're not sure about the irregular perfects, just ask me.



WEEK 5

More About Verbs

— LESSON 17 —

Simple, Progressive, and Perfect Tenses Subjects and Predicates Parts of Speech and Parts of Sentences Verb Phrases

Note to Instructor: The student will probably begin yawning as soon as you mention the word. Make a joke out of it; this verb was used on purpose to break up the tedium of review!

Instructor: In the last lesson, I promised you that you'd study something other than verb tenses.

You will—but first we have to do a quick review! Read the first line in your workbook out loud.

→ *Student: I yawn today. Yesterday, I yawned. Tomorrow I will yawn.*

Instructor: Those three sentences are in the simple present, the simple past, and the simple future.

The verbs *yawn*, *yawned*, and *will yawn* don't tell you how long the yawning goes on—or when it ends. Read the second line out loud.

→ *Student: I am yawning today. Yesterday, I was yawning. Tomorrow, I will be yawning.*

Instructor: Those three sentences are in the progressive present, the progressive past, and the progressive future. Read me the definition of progressive tense.

→ *Student: A progressive verb describes an ongoing or continuous action.*

Instructor: If you say, *Yesterday, I was yawning*, that tells me that the yawning went on for at least a little while. Now read me the next three sentences.

→ *Student: I have yawned today already. Yesterday, I had yawned before I had my dinner. Tomorrow, I will have yawned by the time the sun goes down.*

Instructor: Those three sentences are in the perfect present, the perfect past, and the perfect future. Read me the definition of perfect tense.

→ *Student: A perfect verb describes an action which has been completed before another action takes place.*

Instructor: I think that we should complete our yawning before we go on with our lesson! Hop up and do five jumping jacks, and then we'll go on.

Note to Instructor: Jumping jacks are optional, but the student will probably need to do something physical to stop the yawning.

Instructor: Look at Exercise 17A and follow the directions.

Instructor: Read me the next two sets of words in your workbook.

→ Student: *Had rejoiced, will have rejoiced.*

Instructor: *Had rejoiced* is a perfect past verb. *Will have rejoiced* is a perfect future verb. In each of these examples, the helping verb and the main action verb act together as a single verb. We call these **verb phrases**. Read me the definition of a phrase.

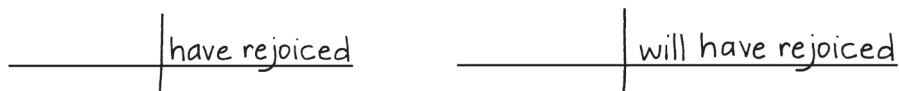
→ Student: **A phrase is a group of words serving a single grammatical function.**

Instructor: In a verb phrase, a group of words serves a single grammatical function by acting as a verb. Read me the next two sets of words.

→ Student: *Have greatly rejoiced, they will have all rejoiced.*

Instructor: A word comes between the helping verb and the main verb in each of those verb phrases. *Greatly* and *all* are not part of the verb phrases! Only helping verbs and main verbs belong in a verb phrase.

When you diagram a verb phrase, all of the verbs in the verb phrase go on the predicate space of the diagram. You can see this illustrated in your workbook.



Instructor: Before you complete Exercise 17B, let's review both predicates and subjects. Repeat after me: The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.

→ Student: *The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

Instructor: The simple subject of the sentence is *just* the main word or term that the sentence is about.

→ Student: *The simple subject of the sentence is just the main word or term that the sentence is about.*

Instructor: The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject. Repeat that after me.

→ Student: *The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject.*

Instructor: The simple predicate of the sentence is the main verb along with any helping verbs.

→ Student: *The simple predicate of the sentence is the main verb along with any helping verbs.*

Instructor: When we studied subjects and predicates, we also talked about the difference between parts of speech and parts of a sentence. Repeat after me: Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.

→ Student: *Part of speech is a term that explains what a word does.*

Instructor: Noun and pronoun are both parts of speech. Main verb and helping verb are both parts of speech. Tell me what a noun does.

→ Student: *A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: Tell me what a pronoun does.

→ Student: *A pronoun takes the place of a noun.*

Instructor: These parts of speech can also function, in sentences, as subjects. *Subject* refers to the *part of the sentence* that the noun or pronoun is in. Read me the definition of *part of the sentence*.

→ Student: *Part of the sentence is a term that explains how a word functions in a sentence.*

Instructor: A main verb does an action, shows a state of being, or links two words together. A helping verb helps the main verb. Read me the definition of a verb.

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: A verb is a part of speech. In a sentence, a main verb and its helping verbs form the predicate. A predicate is a part of the sentence. When you underline a main verb and its helping verbs, you are locating a part of speech. When you put the entire verb phrase on the diagram, you are showing that the verb and its helping verbs function, in the sentence, as a predicate. They tell more about the subject. Now for the last part of the review: Find the subject of a sentence by asking, *Who or what is the sentence about?* Find the predicate by asking, *Subject what?*

Try that now as you complete Exercise 17B.

— LESSON 18 —

Verb Phrases Person of the Verb Conjugations

Instructor: Several lessons ago you completed a chart showing the progressive tenses. Look over these verbs from that chart now.

	Progressive Past	Progressive Present	Progressive Future
I run	I was running	I am running	I will be running
You call	You were calling	You are calling	You will be calling
He jogs	He was jogging	He is jogging	He will be jogging
We fix	We were fixing	We are fixing	We will be fixing
They call	They were calling	They are calling	They will be calling

Instructor: In the progressive future column, all of the helping verbs are the same. But in the middle column, what three helping verbs are used to help form the progressive present?

→ *Student: Am, are, is.*

Instructor: In the progressive past column, two different helping verbs are used. What are they?

→ *Student: Was and were.*

Instructor: Because the helping verbs change, the entire verb phrases change. Verbs and verb phrases change their form because of the person or thing that does the verb. When verbs change for this reason, we say that they are in the first, second, or third person. Look at the next chart.

PERSONS OF THE VERB

	Singular	Plural
First person	I	we
Second person	you	you
Third person	he, she, it	they

Instructor: We talked about the first-, second-, and third person pronouns in Lesson 8. Let's review now—and connect those pronouns to verbs.

Note to Instructor: Point to the student in a dramatic fashion.

Instructor: Say after me, *I understand!*

→ *Student: I understand!*

Instructor: The first person is the one who is speaking. If you're all by yourself, you would use the pronoun *I*. If someone is with you, you use the pronoun *we*.

Note to Instructor: Move over and stand next to the student.

Instructor: Say with me, *We understand!*

→ *Together: We understand!*

Instructor: The second person is the one who's in the room, but who isn't . . . [Point to the student again.] Who is the second person in this room?

→ *Student: You.*

Instructor: For the second person, we use the pronoun *you*. In English, *you* can be either singular or plural. If there were two of you here, I would still use the pronoun *you*. Say with me, and point to me, *You understand!*

→ *Together [Pointing at each other]: You understand!*

Instructor: The third person who might be doing an action is the person who isn't you, and isn't me. We use four different pronouns to refer to *that* person—the third person. If that person is male, we say, *He understands*. What do we say if that person is female?

→ *Student: She understands.*

Instructor: Imagine that my dog is sitting here, listening and looking very intelligent, but you don't know whether my dog is a he or a she. What pronoun would you use to point out that the dog also understands?

→ *Student: It understands.*

Instructor: What if there were a whole crowd of third persons in the room, all understanding? What pronoun would you use for them?

→ *Student: They understand.*

Instructor: Together, let's team up the first, second, and third person with the action verb *pretend*. When we say the first person, we'll point to ourselves. When we say the second person, we'll point to each other. When we say the third person, we'll point to an imaginary person in the room. Follow along as I read. I'll start with the first person:

→ *Together: I pretend. [Point to self.]*

You pretend. [Point to student as student points to you.]

He, she, it pretends. [Point to imaginary person.]

We pretend. [Point to self and student at the same time.]

You pretend. [Point to student and also to another imaginary person.]

They pretend. [Point to imaginary group of persons with both hands.]

Instructor: Look at all six forms of the verb *pretend*. Which one is different?

→ *Student: The third person singular.*

Instructor: In the simple present, most verbs keep the same form except for in the third person singular. We change the third person singular by adding an *-s*. Let's do the same for the verb *wander*.

→ *Together: I wander. [Point to self.]*

You wander [Point to student as student points to you.]

He, she, it wanders. [Point to imaginary person.]

We wander. [Point to self and student at the same time.]

You wander. [Point to student and also to another imaginary person.]

They wander. [Point to imaginary group of persons with both hands.]

Instructor: When we go through the different forms of a verb like this, we say that we are **conjugating** the verbs. The chart in your workbook shows the simple present conjugation of the verbs *pretend* and *wander*. Now read through the simple past and simple future of the verb *wander*.

Note to Instructor: Give the student a moment to look at the simple past and simple future charts.

Instructor: Did the verbs change for any of the persons?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: Regular verbs don't change in the simple past and simple future—so you'll never have to conjugate them again! They only change in the simple present. Now read through the perfect present conjugation of the verb *wander*. In this tense, the main verb stays the same, but the helping verb changes once. For what person does it change?

→ *Student: The third person singular.*

Instructor: So in the present and in the perfect present, the verb only changes form in the third person singular form. In the present, the verb adds an *-s*. In the perfect present, the helping verb changes from *have* to *has*. Now read through the perfect past and perfect future of the verb.

Note to Instructor: Give the student a moment to look at the perfect past and perfect future charts.

Instructor: Did the verbs change for any of the persons?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: Regular verbs don't change in the perfect past and perfect future either—so you'll never have to conjugate *them* again! Do you see a pattern? In the simple and perfect tenses, the form of the verb only changes in one person—the third person singular form. And it only changes in the present tense.

Complete your exercises now.

— LESSON 19 —

Person of the Verb Conjugations State-of-Being Verbs

Instructor: What two pronouns refer to the first person?

Note to Instructor: If the student needs a hint, point to yourself, and then go stand next to the student and point to both of you. For second person, point to the student; for third person, point to imaginary people in the room (or to siblings).

→ *Student: I and we.*

Instructor: What pronoun refers to the second person?

→ *Student: You.*

Instructor: What four pronouns refer to the third person?

→ *Student: He, she, it, they.*

Instructor: In the last lesson, you learned that when you team up a verb to each of the persons and change its form when necessary, you are *conjugating* it. The Latin word *conjugare* [con-jugar-eh] means “to join together.” When you conjugate a verb, you are joining the verb to each person in turn. *Conjugare* itself is made by joining two words together; *con* means “with,” and *jugare* means “to yoke.” Have you ever heard the word *conjugal*? It means “having to do with marriage” and it too comes from the Latin word *conjugare*. Marriage also joins two things together—in this case, two people.

In the last lesson, you learned that regular verbs don’t change form very often when you conjugate them. Look at the simple present of the verb *conjugate*. Which form changes?

→ *Student: The third person singular form.*

Instructor: Regular verbs don’t change form in the simple past or simple future, so you only have one example of the verb under each. Look at the perfect present of the verb *conjugate*. Which form changes? HINT: The verb itself doesn’t change, but the helping verb does.

→ *Student: The third person singular form.*

Instructor: Regular verbs also don’t change form in the perfect past or perfect future—just in the perfect present. We haven’t talked about progressive tenses yet. Look at the progressive present. What helping verb does the progressive present use?

→ *Student: Am.*

Instructor: Conjugating *am* is a whole different story. Remember, *am* is a state-of-being verb. What does a state-of-being verb show?

→ *Student: That something just exists.*

Note to Instructor: If the student can’t remember, tell him to turn back to Lesson 6 and look at the state-of-being verbs. Tell him, “A state-of-being verb shows that something just exists,” and then ask him to recite the state-of-being verbs out loud.

Instructor: Let’s read the simple present conjugation together, pointing to the correct person.

→ *Together:*

I am. [Point to self.]

You are. [Point to student/instructor.]

He, she, it is. [Point to imaginary person.]

We are. [Point to self.]

You are. [Point to student/instructor.]

They are. [Point to imaginary persons.]

Instructor: This is an irregular verb, because it doesn't change form like most other verbs. You probably use these forms properly when you speak, without even thinking about it. Repeat after me: We is hungry.

→ *Student: We is hungry.*

Instructor: That sounds strange, doesn't it? So for the most part, you won't need to memorize these forms; you just need to understand why they change. They change because the person of the verb changes. Now look at the progressive present chart. In the progressive present, the state-of-being verbs become helping verbs, showing that action is continuing on for a time.

Complete Exercise 19A by filling in the blanks with the correct helping verbs.

Instructor: When you conjugate a progressive form, you don't really conjugate the main verb. It stays the same! The helping verb is the one that changes. Let's review all the tenses of the state-of-being verb *am* now.

Note to Instructor: Follow the pattern below for each conjugation. Reciting these out loud will give the student a sense of the patterns of the conjugations. Pointing as you recite will reinforce the student's grasp of the first, second, and third person.

→ *Together:*

REGULAR VERB, SIMPLE PRESENT

I am. [Point to self.]

You are. [Point to student/instructor.]

He, she, it is. [Point to imaginary person.]

We are. [Point to both self and student/instructor.]

You are. [Point to student/instructor.]

They are. [Point to imaginary persons.]

[etc.]

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, SIMPLE PAST

	Singular	Plural
First person	I was	we were
Second person	you were	you were
Third person	he, she, it was	they were

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, SIMPLE FUTURE

	Singular	Plural
First person	I will be	we will be
Second person	you will be	you will be

Third person	he, she, it will be	they will be
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STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PERFECT PRESENT

	Singular	Plural
First person	I have been	we have been
Second person	you have been	you have been
Third person	he, she, it has been	they have been

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PERFECT PAST

	Singular	Plural
First person	I had been	we had been
Second person	you had been	you had been
Third person	he, she, it had been	they had been

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PERFECT FUTURE

	Singular	Plural
First person	I will have been	we will have been
Second person	you will have been	you will have been
Third person	he, she, it will have been	they will have been

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PROGRESSIVE PRESENT

	Singular	Plural
First person	I am being	we are being
Second person	you are being	you are being
Third person	he, she, it is being	they are being

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PROGRESSIVE PAST

	Singular	Plural
First person	I was being	we were being
Second person	you were being	you were being
Third person	he, she, it was being	they were being

STATE-OF-BEING VERB, PROGRESSIVE FUTURE

	Singular	Plural
First person	I will be being	we will be being
Second person	you will be being	you will be being
Third person	he, she, it will be being	they will be being

Instructor: In Exercise 19A, you filled in the correct helping verbs for the progressive present; now do the same thing in 19B for the past and future.

— LESSON 20 —

Irregular State-of-Being Verbs Helping Verbs

Instructor: I'll ask you a question, and I'd like you to answer with the first person singular pronoun and the state-of-being verb in the correct tense. The question will tell you which tense to use. Here's the first question: Are you learning grammar today?

→ *Student: I am.*

Instructor: Were you learning grammar at some unspecified point in the past week?

→ *Student: I was.*

Note to Instructor: If the student answers with another tense, say, "At some unspecified *simple* point in the *past*?"

Instructor: Will you be learning grammar at some unspecified point *next* week?

→ *Student: I will be.*

Note to Instructor: If the student says, *I will*, point out that *I will* is not a state-of-being verb. *Will* is a helping verb that still needs a state-of-being verb to complete it. If necessary, send the student back to review the lists of state-of-being verbs (your student can find lists in Lessons 6 and 7).

Instructor: Are you being progressively happier and happier today? If so, tell me with the first person pronoun, the correct verb, and the adjective *happy*.

Note to Instructor: Give the student any necessary help to bring out the correct answers.

→ *Student: I am being happy.*

Instructor: How about all day yesterday?

→ *Student: I was being happy.*

Instructor: How about all day tomorrow?

→ *Student: I will be being happy.*

Instructor: Have you been hungry at all today, before eating?

→ *Student: I have been hungry.*

Instructor: Were you hungry yesterday before breakfast?

→ *Student: I had been hungry.*

Instructor: Will you be hungry before dinner tomorrow?

→ *Student: I will have been hungry.*

Instructor: In the last lesson, you learned that state-of-being verbs are often irregular when you conjugate them. *Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, and been* are all past, present, and future forms of the irregular state-of-being verb *am*. (When you think about it, there's actually only one verb for *simply existing*.) Knowing the forms of this verb is important, so even though it's tedious, we're going to review one more time. Read me the simple present, simple past, and simple future forms of the verb *am*, first singular and then plural for each. Begin with "I am, you are, he, she, it . . ."

→ *Student: I am; you are; he, she, it is; we are; you are; they are. I was; you were; he, she, it was; we were; you were; they were. I will be; you will be; he, she, it will be; we will be; you will be; they will be.*

Instructor: Read me the perfect present, past, and future tenses in the same way.

→ *Student: I have been; you have been; he, she, it has been; we have been; you have been; they have been; I had been; you had been; he, she, it had been; we had been; you had been; they had been; I will have been; you will have been; he, she, it will have been; we will have been; you will have been; they will have been.*

Instructor: Now read the progressive present, past, and future tenses.

→ *Student: I am being; you are being; he, she, it is being; we are being; you are being; they are being; I was being; you were being; he, she, it was being; we were being; you were being; they were being; I will be being; you will be being; he, she, it will be being; we will be being; you will be being; they will be being.*

Instructor: We'll talk more about irregular verbs in the lessons to come, but today we're just going to talk about state-of-being verbs and helping verbs. Now that you've been through that whole long conjugation of the verb *am*, you've covered all of the state-of-being verbs. Tell me the full list of helping verbs now.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been; have, has, had; do, does, did; shall, will, should, would, may, might, must, can, could.*

Instructor: Since the first eight verbs are forms of one verb, *am*, it won't surprise you that *have*, *has*, and *had* are all simple forms of the single verb *have*. Take the time now to fill out the missing forms of *have* in Exercise 20A. Ask me for help if you need it.

Note to Instructor: Throughout this lesson, if this is the first time the student has encountered these forms, give all necessary help. Most students will be able to hear the correct form if they recite the conjugation out loud.

Instructor: Would you like to guess what verb *do*, *does*, and *did* are the simple forms of?

→ *Student: Do.*

Instructor: Fill out the missing forms in Exercise 20B.

Instructor: Now we only need to discuss *shall*, *will*, *should*, *would*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *can* and *could*. You've already run across *will*; it is the helping verb that helps form the simple future tense of many other verbs. Read the left-hand column in your workbook now.

→ *Student: I will be; you will run; he, she, it will sing; we will eat; you will shout; they will cavort.*

Instructor: In American English, *shall* is simply an alternative version of *will*, but Americans only use *shall* in the first person—and not very often. Read the middle column in your workbook now.

→ *Student: I shall be; you will run; he, she, it will sing; we shall eat; you will shout; they will cavort.*

Instructor: If you're an American, you'll probably only hear *shall* in the form of a question. A waiter might ask *Shall I take your order?* or your ballroom dance partner might say *Shall we dance?* But you're more likely to hear *May I take your order?* or *Would you like to dance?* It is never incorrect to substitute *shall* for *will*, but if you're American, you'll sound odd; *shall* is dying in American usage. In British usage, though, *shall* implies some sort of resolve on the part of the speaker. In British English, *I will go home* is just a statement of fact. *I shall go home*

implies that you intend to get home, no matter how many obstacles stand in your way. Read the final column now, and put determination into your voice!

→ *Student: I shall be! You shall run! He, she, it shall sing! We shall eat! You shall shout! They shall cavort!*

Instructor: *Should* and *would* are odd words. Technically, *should* is the past tense of *shall*, and *would* is the past tense of *will*. Read me the next two phrases in your workbook.

→ *Student: I will go to bed early. When I was young, I would always go to bed early.*

Instructor: You can see how *would* indicates the past, and *will* shows the future. But we don't usually use either *would* or *should* as a past tense any more. Read the next two phrases now.

→ *Student: I would like to go to bed early. I should probably go to bed now.*

Instructor: *Would* and *should* generally express your intention to do something. We'll discuss this in a few weeks when we talk about *mode*; so for right now, don't worry about the conjugations of *would* and *should*. Instead, put them side-by-side with *may*, *might*, *must*, *can*, and *could*, and read the next seven sentences out loud.

→ *Student: I would eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I should eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I may eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I might eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I must eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I can eat the chocolate caramel truffle. I could eat the chocolate caramel truffle.*

Instructor: All of these sentences concern hypothetical situations. You haven't eaten the truffle yet, but in the future you will eat it—depending on various conditions. We will discuss these hypothetical situations when we get to the lessons on subjunctive and modal verbs. For right now, you just need to remember the statements in your workbook. Read them out loud for me now.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, and been are forms of the verb am. Have, has, and had are forms of the verb has. Do, does, and did are forms of the verb do. Shall and will are different forms of the same verb. Should, would, may, might, must, can, and could express hypothetical situations.*



WEEK 6

Nouns and Verbs in Sentences

— LESSON 21 —

Person of the Verb Conjugations

Noun-Verb/Subject-Predicate Agreement

Instructor: Let's review a few conjugations. We'll start with a simple one—the simple present of *enjoy*. That, of course, is a word you would use when you talk about your grammar lessons. Read through the simple present with me, pointing to each person as we say it.

→ *Together: I enjoy. [Point to self.]*

You enjoy. [Point to student as student points to you.]

He, she, it enjoys. [Point to imaginary person.]

We enjoy. [Point to self and student at the same time.]

You enjoy. [Point to student and also to another imaginary person.]

They enjoy. [Point to imaginary group of persons with both hands.]

Instructor: Which of these are first person pronouns?

→ *Student: I, we.*

Instructor: Second person pronouns?

→ *Student: You.*

Instructor: Third person pronouns?

→ *Student: He, she, it, they.*

Instructor: Now let's review the perfect past of the state-of-being verb *I am*.

→ *Together: I had been. [Point to self.]*

You had been. [Point to student as student points to you.]

He, she, it had been. [Point to imaginary person.]

We had been. [Point to self and student at the same time.]

You had been. [Point to student and also to another imaginary person.]

They had been. [Point to imaginary group of persons with both hands.]

Instructor: Finally, let's review the progressive future of the verb *run*.

→ *Together: I will be running. [Point to self.]*

You will be running. [Point to student as student points to you.]

He, she, it will be running. [Point to imaginary person.]

We will be running. [Point to self and student at the same time.]

You will be running. [Point to student and also to another imaginary person.]

They will be running. [Point to imaginary group of persons with both hands.]

Instructor: When you looked at conjugations in the last lesson, you noticed that regular verbs sometimes change form when the person of the verb changes. Look at the conjugation of the regular verb *grab* now. You'll see that some of the tenses simply list the first person and then say, "etc." That's because in those tenses, the verb doesn't change form at all. *I grabbed* and *they grabbed* use the same form of the verb.

Note to Instructor: If the student is not familiar with the abbreviation "etc.," explain that this is short for *et cetera*, Latin for *and the rest*. It is used to show that whatever comes next is the same as what came before.

Instructor: In this complete conjugation of the regular verb *grab*, the verb forms that change are underlined. Which person and number changes in the simple present?

→ *Student: Third person singular.*

Instructor: Which person and number changes in the perfect present?

→ *Student: Third person singular.*

Instructor: Look at the progressive present. The plural forms are all the same. The singular forms are all different! What three helping verbs are used for these forms?

→ *Student: Am, are, is.*

Instructor: Because we use the irregular state-of-being verb *am* to form the progressive present, the forms keep changing. The same thing happens in the progressive past. What two helping verbs are used?

→ *Student: Was and were.*

Instructor: When a pronoun is put together with the proper form of a verb, we say that the pronoun and the verb *agree* in *person* and *number*. If I say, *I am grabbing*, I have paired the first person singular pronoun *I* with the first person singular form *am grabbing*. The pronoun and the verb *agree*. If I say, *I is grabbing*, I've paired the first person singular pronoun with the third person singular verb form. Those forms don't agree.

Complete Exercise 21A now.

Instructor: All of the sentences in Exercise 21A team up pronouns with verbs. But when you put nouns and verbs together to form the subject and predicate of a sentence, those nouns and verbs should also agree. Look at the next section in your workbook. Singular nouns take the same verb forms as third person singular pronouns. Plural nouns take the same verb forms as third person plural pronouns. This is called *noun-verb agreement* or *subject-predicate agreement*. Now, read with me straight across each line of the simple present chart, beginning with *He, she, it grabs* and *They grab*.

→ <i>Together: He, she, it grabs</i>	<i>They grab</i>
<i>The man grabs</i>	<i>The men grab</i>
<i>The woman grabs</i>	<i>The women grab</i>
<i>The eagle grabs</i>	<i>The eagles grab</i>

Instructor: Now read through the perfect present, progressive present, and progressive past charts out loud, in the same way. It's important to be able to *hear* if the subject and predicate agree with each other.

→ *Student: He, she, it has grabbed; they have grabbed. The boy has grabbed; the boys have grabbed . . . [etc.]*

Instructor: Sometimes the subject of a sentence will be followed by phrases that describe it.

These phrases do not affect the number of the subject. However, they can sometimes be confusing. Listen to the following sentence: *The wolves howl*. *Wolves* is a plural subject that takes the plural verb *howl*. I'm going to add a phrase to this sentence so it reads *The wolves in their den howl*. Our verb is still *howl*. Who or what howls?

→ *Student: Wolves.*

Instructor: *Wolves* is still our subject. However, we now have the singular word *den* right before our verb. We have to be careful to make the verbs agree with the subjects, and not with any sneaky words in between. I can add many phrases to describe my subjects, and it will not affect the verb. For example, I can say: *The moon, shimmery and bright in the dark sky, rises*. The phrases *shimmery and bright in the dark sky* do not affect the number of my subject. Always ask *Who or what* before the verb to find the real subject, and make your verb agree with the true subject, instead of any words in between.

Complete Exercises 21B and 21C now.

— LESSON 22 —

Formation of Plural Nouns

Collective Nouns

Instructor: Several lessons ago, just for fun, we talked about the names for animals and groups of animals. Let's try a few out. What do you call a group of chickens?

→ *Student: Brood.*

Note to Instructor: *Flock* is acceptable, but tell the student that *brood* is actually more correct.

Instructor: How about a group of deer?

→ *Student: Herd.*

Instructor: A group of owls?

→ *Student: Parliament.*

Instructor: The words *brood*, *herd*, and *parliament* are special words that describe groups of animals as one unit. These words are called **collective nouns**. Read me the definition of a collective noun.

→ *Student: A collective noun names a group of people, animals, or things.*

Instructor: Even though collective nouns refer to more than one thing, they are usually considered singular nouns. Repeat this after me: Collective nouns are usually singular.

→ *Student: Collective nouns are usually singular.*

Instructor: Complete Exercise 22A now.

Instructor: Even though collective nouns like *brood* are singular, the word *chickens* is plural, describing more than one chicken. We say *a brood of chickens* because there's only one brood, but there are many chickens. We say *a gaggle of geese* because there's only one gaggle, but many geese. We say *a herd of deer* because there's only one . . .

Note to Instructor: Pause to let the student complete your sentence. Provide the answers to this and the following questions if necessary.

→ *Student: Herd.*

Instructor: . . . but there are many . . .

→ *Student: Deer.*

Instructor: The nouns *chickens*, *geese*, and *deer* are all plural nouns. The singular of *chickens* is *chicken*. What is the singular of *geese*?

→ *Student: Goose.*

Instructor: What is the singular of deer?

→ *Student: Deer.*

Instructor: Singular nouns usually become plural nouns when you add an -s to the end—but not always! *Goose* and *deer* have irregular plurals; *goose* changes spelling instead of adding -s, and *deer* doesn't change at all.

Exercise 22B explains the rules for making words plural, and Exercise 22C gives you a chance to practice. Complete both exercises now.

— LESSON 23 —

Plural Nouns Descriptive Adjectives Possessive Adjectives Contractions

Instructor: Hold up your workbook for me. That book belongs to you; it is [student's name]'s book. This book that I am holding belongs to me. It is [instructor's name]'s book. We can turn common and proper nouns into special words called **possessives** to show ownership. *To possess* something means to own it. The punctuation mark called the apostrophe makes a word possessive. Read the definition of an apostrophe out loud.

→ *Student: An apostrophe is a punctuation mark that shows possession. It turns a noun into an adjective that tells whose.*

Instructor: **Possessive adjectives tell whose.** Read that rule out loud.

→ *Student: Possessive adjectives tell whose.*

Note to Instructor: Some grammarians classify these as possessive nouns rather than adjectives. Since the focus of this book is on teaching students to use language properly, and the possessive noun is *used* as an adjective, we will continue to call these possessive adjectives.

Instructor: What is the definition of an adjective?

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student as needed by saying, *An adjective modifies . . .*

→ *Student: An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: What questions do adjectives answer?

→ *Student: What kind, which one, how many, whose.*

Instructor: You have already learned about adjectives that tell *what kind*. Read the next line out loud, to remind yourself.

→ *Student: Descriptive adjectives tell what kind.*

Instructor: You have now learned about two different kinds of adjectives—descriptive and possessive. Do you remember how to turn a descriptive adjective into an abstract noun?

→ *Student: Add the suffix -ness.*

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student with the correct answer if necessary.

Instructor: Turn the descriptive adjective *happy* into an abstract noun.

→ *Student: Happiness.*

Instructor: Turn the descriptive adjective *slow* into an abstract noun.

→ *Student: Slowness.*

Instructor: When you form a possessive adjective from a noun, you're doing the opposite. Instead of turning an adjective into a noun, you're taking a noun and making it into an adjective. For singular nouns, you do this by adding an apostrophe and an *-s*. Read me the rule out loud, and look at the examples.

→ *Student: **Form the possessive of a singular noun by adding an apostrophe and the letter -s.***

Instructor: Practice this now by completing Exercise 23A.

Instructor: Read me the next rule, and look at the example.

→ *Student: **Form the possessive of a plural noun ending in -s by adding an apostrophe only.***

Instructor: Since plural nouns usually end in *-s*, we do not need to add another *-s* to plural nouns to make them possessive; we simply add an apostrophe. *Puppies* and *the Wilsons* are both plural nouns, so we only need to add an apostrophe to each to make them possessive. Now read me the last rule about forming a possessive.

→ *Student: **Form the possessive of a plural noun that does not end in -s as if it were a singular noun.***

Instructor: The nouns *man*, *woman*, and *goose* have irregular plurals that don't end in *-s*. So you would simply add an apostrophe and an *-s* to turn them into possessive adjectives. Practice these three rules now by completing Exercise 23B.

Instructor: You can turn a noun into a possessive adjective—but you can also turn a pronoun into a possessive adjective. Look at the chart in your workbook. As you can see, you don't turn a pronoun into a possessive adjective by adding an apostrophe and *-s* the way you do with a noun. Instead, each personal pronoun changes its form to become a possessive adjective. Go down to the next chart now. Read the *Incorrect* column out loud, and see how strange the pronouns would sound with an apostrophe and *-s* ending.

→ *Student: I's book, you's candy, he's hat, she's necklace, it's nest, we's lesson, they's problem.*

Instructor: Instead, each pronoun changes its form to become a possessive adjective. Read down the *Correct* column now.

Note to Instructor: These possessive adjectives are also sometimes classified as possessive pronouns; we will continue to call them possessive adjectives until Week Thirteen, Lesson 49.

→ *Student: My book, your candy, his hat, her necklace, its nest, our lesson, their problem.*

Instructor: A noun turned into a possessive adjective *always* has an apostrophe. A pronoun turned into a possessive adjective *never* has an apostrophe! You should remember that, because pronouns are sometimes combined with other words to form contractions that might look like possessives. Look at the first line of your next chart. What does *he's* stand for?

→ *Student: He is.*

Instructor: What does *she's* stand for?

→ *Student: She is.*

Instructor: What does *it's* stand for?

→ *Student: It is.*

Instructor: What does *you're* stand for?

→ *Student: You are.*

Instructor: What does *they're* stand for?

→ *Student: They are.*

Instructor: *He's, she's, it's, you're, and they're* are all **contractions**. A **contraction is a combination of two words with some of the letters dropped out**. The word *contraction* comes from two Latin words: *con*, meaning “together,” and *tractio* [trak-she-oh], meaning “drag.” In a contraction, two words are *dragged together*. The apostrophe in the contraction tells us where the letters were dropped.

In Exercise 23C, you will see a list of words that are often contracted. The letters which are usually dropped are in grey print. Complete that exercise now.

In the next lesson we will talk about how to avoid confusing these contractions with possessive forms.

— LESSON 24 —

Possessive Adjectives Contractions Compound Nouns

Instructor: What is a contraction?

→ *Student: A contraction is a combination of two words with some of the letters dropped out.*

Instructor: Two of the contractions that you studied in the last lesson are occasionally misused—and three more are *often* misused! Look at the chart in your workbook. As you can see, *he's* means “he is,” not “his.” And *she's* means “she is,” not “her.” You probably won't misuse those two, but almost every student trips up on the next one! What does *i-t-apostrophe-s* mean?

→ *Student: It is.*

Instructor: That is not the same as the possessive adjective *its*! Never, never, never, use *i-t-apostrophe-s* as a possessive adjective. *I-t-s* is a possessive adjective. *It's* is a contraction. Read me the first set of three sentences below the chart.

→ *Student: It's hard for a hippopotamus to see its feet. It is hard for a hippopotamus to see its feet. It's hard for a hippopotamus to see it is feet.*

Instructor: If you're not sure whether to use *its* or *it's*, substitute *it is* for the confusing pronoun and see what happens. If it makes sense, use *it's* with the apostrophe. If not, use *its* with no apostrophe. What does *you-apostrophe-r-e* mean?

→ *Student: You are.*

Instructor: That is not the same as the possessive adjective *your*. Read me the next set of three sentences.

→ *Student: You're fond of your giraffe. You are fond of your giraffe. You're fond of you are giraffe.*

Instructor: If you can substitute *you are*, use *you're* with the apostrophe. If not, use *your* with no apostrophe. What does the contraction *they-apostrophe-r-e* mean?

→ *Student: They are.*

Instructor: That is not the same as the possessive adjective *their*! Read the next set of sentences out loud.

→ *Student: They're searching for their zebra. They are searching for their zebra. They're searching for they are zebra.*

Instructor: If you can substitute *they are*, use *they're* with the apostrophe. If not, use *their* with no apostrophe.

Complete Exercise 24A before we move on.

Instructor: Let's finish out this week of nouns and verbs with a look at one more kind of noun.

Contractions aren't the only words formed by combining two other words. **Compound nouns** are also formed by bringing two words together—in this case, two other nouns that work together to form a single meaning. Read me the definition of a compound noun.

→ *Student: A **compound noun** is a single noun composed of two or more words.*

Instructor: Compound nouns can be written as one word, more than one word, or a hyphenated word. Let's talk about each kind of compound noun. Did you just hear me use the contraction *let's*? What does that contraction stand for?

→ *Student: Let us.*

Instructor: Let us move on. The first kind of compound noun is the simplest—if you put *ship* and *wreck* together, you have a new word. What new word do you get if you join the words *wall* and *paper*?

→ *Student: Wallpaper.*

Instructor: The word *wallpaper* has a different meaning from either *wall* or *paper*. It's a new word. *Haircut* and *chalkboard* are also compound nouns formed by putting two words together.

Now look at the next kind of compound noun. Some compound nouns are formed by joining two nouns with a hyphen. Read me the three examples from your workbook.

→ *Student: Self-confidence, check-in, pinch-hitter.*

Instructor: And, finally, some compound nouns consist of two or more words that aren't joined at all. They have a space between them, but together they still form a new meaning. Read me the three examples from your workbook.

→ *Student: Air conditioning, North Dakota, The Prince and the Pauper.*

Instructor: When a compound noun is the subject of a sentence, *all* of the words that make up the noun are included in the simple subject.

Complete Exercise 24B now.

Instructor: Now imagine that you have a handful of snow in your left hand and a handful of snow in your right hand. In that case, you would have two . . .

→ *Student: Handfuls of snow.*

Note to Instructor: If student says “handful,” say, “No, you would have two handfuls of snow” and ask him to repeat “handfuls of snow” after you.

Instructor: Sometimes it’s difficult to know exactly how to make a compound noun plural. If one person walking by your house is a passerby, what are two people walking past your house—passerbys, or passersby? If you’re unsure about how to form the plural of a compound noun, you can always look it up. But here are four simple rules that will work for most compound nouns.

First: **If a compound noun is made up of one noun along with another word or words, pluralize the noun.**

In the word *passerby*, *passer* is more central than *by* because *passer* is a noun referring to the actual walking person, while *by* simply tells you where that person is walking. Circle the word *passersby*, and cross out the word *passerbys*.

passerby passersby ~~passerbys~~

Instructor: Now read me the second rule.

→ *Student: If a compound noun ends in -ful, pluralize by putting an -s at the end of the entire word.*

Instructor: For common nouns ending in *-ful*, it used to be common to pluralize the noun, so that *truckful* became *trucksful*. But that’s hard to say, so it is now much more widely accepted to simply add an *-s* to the end of the word: *truckfuls*. Either is correct, but when you write, you should be consistent. For the purposes of your exercises in this book, add the pluralizing *-s* to the end of the word. Circle the word *truckfuls* to remind yourself that you’ll be using this form.

truckful trucksful truckfuls

Instructor: Read me the third rule.

→ *Student: If neither element of the compound noun is a noun, pluralize the entire word.*

Instructor: In the word *grown-up*, *grown* is an adjective and *up* is an adverb describing the adjective. So which of the forms is correct?

→ *Student: Grown-ups.*

Instructor: Cross out the form *grows-up* and circle *grown-ups*.

grown-up ~~grows-up~~ grown-ups

Instructor: The final rule is: **If the compound noun includes more than one noun, choose the most important to pluralize.** In the noun *attorney at law*, *attorney* and *law* are both nouns, but *attorney* is more important because it describes the actual person practicing law. Cross out the incorrect plural form and circle the correct choice.

attorney at law attorneys at law ~~attorney at laws~~

Instructor: Complete Exercise 24C now. Ask for help if you need it; some of the words are tricky!

— REVIEW 2 —

The review exercises and answers are found in the Student Workbook and accompanying Key.



WEEK 7

Compounds and Conjunctions

— LESSON 25 —

Contractions

Compound Nouns

Diagramming Compound Nouns

Compound Adjectives

Diagramming Adjectives

Articles

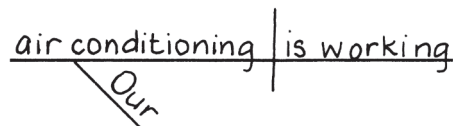
Instructor: In the last lesson you learned about contractions. Read me the definition of a contraction.

→ *Student: A contraction is a combination of two words with some of the letters dropped out.*

Instructor: To make a contraction, you usually combine a helping verb with another word.

Complete Exercise 25A before we go on.

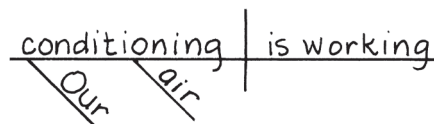
Instructor: Look at the sentence in your workbook, and examine the two diagrams beneath it.



Instructor: The first diagram is done correctly. *Air conditioning* forms a single meaning. It is a compound noun that acts as the subject of the sentence, so both of the nouns are placed together on the subject line of the diagram. What word is written on the slanted line beneath the subject?

→ *Student: Our.*

Instructor: *Our* is a possessive adjective that describes air conditioning. It answers the question, *Whose air conditioning?* When you diagram a sentence, you write adjectives on a slanted line below the nouns they modify. Look at the second diagram.



Instructor: What other word is now written on an adjective line?

→ *Student: Air.*

Instructor: This is incorrect because *air* is a noun. It names a thing. It doesn't go on an adjective line. And *conditioning* is different from *air conditioning*. If you split up the words *air* and *conditioning*, you don't have the same noun any more. When you're diagramming, compound nouns go together on the same line, even if there is a space between them. Adjectives go on the slanted line beneath the nouns they modify.

Complete Exercise 25B before we go on.

Instructor: Read the next sentence out loud.

→ Student: *The large-headed monster had twenty-seven teeth.*

Instructor: What punctuation mark do you see in the words *large-headed* and *twenty-seven*?

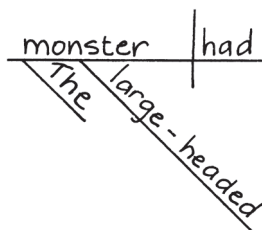
→ Student: A hyphen.

Instructor: You have already learned about compound adjectives. Do you remember why *large-headed* and *twenty-seven* are both hyphenated? HINT: It has to do with their position in the sentence.

Note to Instructor: Provide the correct answer if necessary.

→ Student: *They are in the attributive position.*

Instructor: Look at the diagram beneath the sentence. It shows the subject, the predicate, and the adjectives modifying the subject.



Instructor: Notice that a compound adjective, like a compound noun, goes on a single line. Also notice that the word *The* is written on an adjective line. The words *the*, *a*, and *an* are adjectives, but they have a special name. They are called **articles**. Read me the next definition.

→ Student: **The articles are a, an, and the.**

Instructor: Like other adjectives, articles are diagrammed on slanted lines beneath the nouns they describe.

Complete the remaining exercises now.

— LESSON 26 —

Compound Subjects

The Conjunction *And*

Compound Predicates

Compound Subject-Predicate Agreement

Instructor: You've learned that compound nouns and adjectives are composed of two or more words. Think about the compound noun *backstroke*. How many words compose this noun?

→ *Student: Two.*

Instructor: What two words compose the compound noun *backstroke*?

→ *Student: Back and stroke.*

Instructor: Think about the compound adjective *old-fashioned*. What two words compose this adjective?

→ *Student: Old and fashioned.*

Instructor: The word *compound* means “made up of two or more parts.” Nouns and adjectives are parts of speech that can be compound. But there are also parts of sentences that can be compound. Read the first sentence.

→ *Student: The fireman hurries.*

Instructor: What is the predicate (the verb) in this sentence?

→ *Student: Hurries.*

Instructor: What is the subject? Who or what hurries?

→ *Student: Fireman.*

Instructor: What is *the*?

→ *Student: An article.*

Instructor: This sentence has only one subject and one predicate. Read the second sentence out loud.

→ *Student: The policeman hurries.*

Instructor: What is the predicate in this sentence?

→ *Student: Hurries.*

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ *Student: Policeman.*

Instructor: This is also a sentence with a single subject and a single verb. These two sentences have the same predicate, so we can combine these two sentences to make one sentence: *The fireman and the policeman hurry*. We still have a single verb: *hurry*. What is the subject in this sentence? Who or what hurry?

→ *Student: The fireman and the policeman.*

Instructor: *Fireman* and *policeman* are the subjects in this sentence. Because there is more than one subject, this sentence has a **compound subject**. Now look at the predicate. Is the verb *hurries* singular or plural? If you're not sure, look at the simple present conjugation of *hurry*.

→ *Student: Singular.*

Note to Instructor: If the student isn't sure, ask, “Is the fireman an *I*, a *you*, or a *he*?” If necessary, review Lesson 21, where the student learned the rule *Singular nouns take the same verb forms as third person singular pronouns*.

Instructor: How many firemen are hurrying?

→ *Student: One.*

Instructor: How many policemen are hurrying?

→ *Student: One.*

Instructor: When the fireman and the policeman are both hurrying, how many men are hurrying?

→ *Student: Two.*

Instructor: The compound subject is plural, so we change the verb from the third person singular form to the third person plural form. Read me the next rule.

→ *Student: **Compound subjects joined by and are plural in number and take plural verbs.***

Instructor: When we join sentences together to create a compound subject or predicate, we use the word *and*. *And* is a part of speech called a **conjunction**. *Conjunction* means “joined together.” Read the definition of a conjunction out loud.

→ *Student: **A conjunction joins words or groups of words together.***

Instructor: You can use the conjunction *and* to join compound subjects. You can also use it to join compound predicates. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: The farmer plants.*

Instructor: What is the predicate in this sentence?

→ *Student: Plants.*

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ *Student: Farmer.*

Instructor: The next sentence has the same subject, but a different predicate. What is it?

→ *Student: Harvests.*

Instructor: These two sentences have the same subject, so we can combine them to make one sentence with two predicates—a compound predicate. *The farmer plants and harvests*. What is the compound predicate in this sentence?

→ *Student: Plants and harvests.*

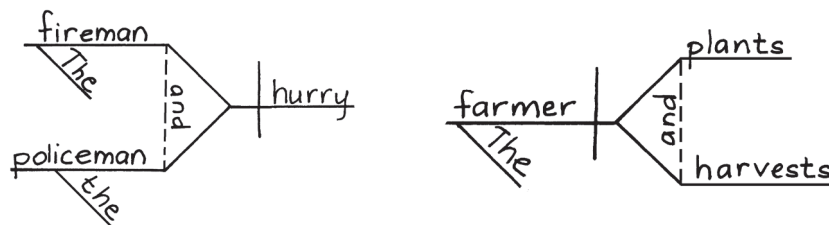
Instructor: What word connects them?

→ *Student: And.*

Instructor: What part of speech is *and*?

→ *Student: A conjunction.*

Instructor: Now study the diagrams of compound subjects and compound predicates.



Instructor: Notice that the conjunction *and* is written sideways on a dotted line connecting the compound parts of the sentence. Follow this pattern as you complete the exercises.

— LESSON 27 —

Coordinating Conjunctions Complications in Subject-Predicate Agreement

Instructor: What is a conjunction? You may look in your book if you can't remember the definition.

→ *Student: A conjunction joins words or groups of words together.*

Instructor: There are several different kinds of conjunctions, and each kind works in a different way. The first conjunction you've learned, *and*, is a **coordinating conjunction**. Read the definition of a coordinating conjunction out loud.

→ *Student: A **coordinating conjunction** joins similar or equal words or groups of words together.*

Instructor: You've learned that *and* can join two subjects, or two predicates. These are similar parts of the sentence. Read the full list of coordinating conjunctions out loud.

→ *Student: And, or, nor, for, so, but, yet.*

Instructor: *And*, *or*, and *nor* can be used to join single subjects or single words together. Each has a slightly different meaning. Read the first sentence.

→ *Student: Indonesia and Greater Antilles are groups of islands.*

Instructor: When you use *and*, you are adding two nouns, or two verbs, or two of something else together. *Indonesia* and *Greater Antilles* are both proper nouns serving as subjects. When you use *or*, you are suggesting alternatives—one *or* the other. Read the next sentence in your workbook.

→ *Student: I will nap or go running.*

Instructor: You're only going to choose one of those verbs to do, not both (and certainly not at the same time). *Nor* is an interesting word. It's like *and*, but you usually use it only in a negative sense. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: They will not help me, nor you.*

Instructor: Using *nor* as a coordinating conjunction is a little bit old-fashioned; today, we usually use *nor* with *neither*, which is a different kind of conjunction. You'll be learning more about that combination in a later lesson.

And, *or*, and *nor* can join single words, but *for*, *so*, *but*, and *yet* usually join longer groups of words. *For* has the sense of *since* or *because*. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: I ran after them, for I needed help.*

Instructor: *For* connects the sentence *I ran after them* with the sentence *I needed help*. *So* implies *with the result that*. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: I stubbed my toe, so now my foot hurts.*

Instructor: Use *but* and *yet* to show contrast. Read the next two sentences.

→ *Student: I was exhausted, but my sister was still full of energy. He was laughing, yet he seemed sad.*

Instructor: You'll revisit these last four conjunctions in a few weeks. For right now, practice using all of these by completing Exercise 27A.

Instructor: Read me the next rule.

→ Student: **Compound subjects joined by and are plural in number and take plural verbs.**

Instructor: Look at the examples below. Does the pronoun *I* take a singular or plural verb?

→ Student: *Singular.*

Instructor: Does the compound subject *George and I* take a singular or plural verb?

→ Student: *Plural.*

Instructor: Because there is more than one subject acting together, the verb is *plural*. But not all compound subjects take plural verbs. Another common conjunction that we can use to combine single subjects into a compound subject is the word *or*. We can say, *The fireman or the policeman hurries*. In this case, we use a singular verb, because either the fireman or the policeman hurries. Only one person hurries—not both. I'll give you another example: *The dog and the cat are sleeping on the sofa*. What is the verb in this sentence?

→ Student: *Are sleeping.*

Instructor: What is the compound subject?

→ Student: *Dog and cat.*

Instructor: In this sentence, we use the plural verb *are*, because the compound subject is joined by the conjunction *and*. The dog and cat are *both* sleeping. Two animals are sleeping, so they take a plural verb.

Now let's join the compound subject with the conjunction *or*: *The dog or the cat is sleeping on the sofa*. We use the singular verb *is* because the compound subject is joined by *or*. Only one of those animals is sleeping on the sofa—not both of them. The single sleeping animal takes the singular verb.

Read me the next sentence out loud.

→ Student: *The dogs or the cat is sleeping on the sofa.*

Instructor: Is the verb *is sleeping* singular or plural?

→ Student: *Singular.*

Instructor: Read the rule about compound subjects joined by *or*.

→ Student: **When compound subjects are joined by or, the verb agrees with the number of the nearest subject.**

Instructor: In the sentence *The dogs or the cat is sleeping on the sofa*, we use the singular verb *is sleeping*, even though *dogs* is plural—because the closest subject to the verb, *cat*, is singular.

As you can see, subject-predicate agreement is not always simple! For the rest of this lesson (and most of the next), we'll look at some cases in which it might not be so easy to figure out whether the subject takes a singular or plural verb. Let's start with an easy one. Read me the next sentence.

→ Student: *The pies were scrumptious.*

Instructor: What is the verb?

→ Student: *Were.*

Instructor: Is *were* a singular or plural verb?

→ Student: *Plural.*

Instructor: Is *pies* singular or plural?

→ Student: *Plural.*

Instructor: We have a plural subject and a plural verb. Good—the predicate and the subject agree!

Now let's add a phrase to describe the subject, so that our sentence says: *The pies on the table were scrumptious.* Does the phrase *on the table* change the fact that *pies* is plural?

→ Student: *No.*

Instructor: Most of the descriptive phrases do not change the number of the subject. When choosing a verb to agree with the subject, you should usually ignore any phrases between subject and verb. Read me the next sentence.

→ Student: *The box of pencils is on the top shelf.*

Instructor: Underline *box* one time. This is the subject, and it is singular. Underline the verb *is* twice. The verb agrees with the subject, so it is also singular. *Pencils* is plural, but this does not change the number of the verb. In the next two sentences, underline the subject once and the predicate twice. Ignore the phrases that come between the subject and verb. Follow along as I read these sentences:

A can of red beans sits on the table.

The young man at all of the meetings was bored.

Instructor: Each one of the subjects is singular. The phrases *of red beans* and *at all of the meetings* do not change the verb.

However, there is *one* case in which we must look in the phrases after the subject in order to determine the number of the subject. Read the next two rules about fractions.

→ Student: ***Fractions are singular if used to indicate a single thing. Fractions are plural if used to indicate more than one thing.***

Instructor: A fraction can describe just one thing, or more than one thing. Read the two examples out loud, and pay special attention to the verbs.

→ Student: *Three-fourths of the pie was missing. Three-fourths of the socks were missing.*

Instructor: These two sentences have the same subject. What is the subject in these sentences?

→ Student: *Three-fourths.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, *three-fourths* describes a single part of a pie so we use the singular verb *was*. In the second sentence, *three-fourths* describes more than one sock (probably a whole heap of socks!), so we use the plural verb *were*. When fractions are used as the subject, you must look at the descriptive phrase following the fraction to determine the number of the subject. In other words, you have to think about the *meaning* of the sentence, not just the grammatical form!

The same is true when you're talking about amounts of money, segments of time, or measures of weight or distance. Read the next rule.

→ Student: ***Expressions of money, time, and quantity (weight, units, and distance) are singular when used as a whole, but plural when used as numerous single units.***

Instructor: Read the next two sentences.

→ Student: *Thirty dollars is too much to pay for that shirt. Thirty dollars are spread across the table.*

Instructor: Both of these sentences have the same subject. HINT: It's modified by the adjective *thirty*. What is the subject?

→ Student: *Dollars.*

Instructor: We use a singular verb when referring to the single price of something, but we use a plural verb when referring to the money itself as actual plural things. Read the next two sentences.

→ *Student: Seven years is a long time to wait. The minutes tick by.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, *Seven years* is a single unit, but in the second sentence, the minutes are passing one by one—and there are many of them. *They tick by* (not *It ticks by*). Read the third set of sentences now.

→ *Student: A thousand pounds is far too heavy for that truck. Fifty gallons of water are divided among the refugees. Four miles is too far to walk.*

Instructor: In the first and third sentences, *thousand pounds* and *four miles* are both single units—one weight, one distance. In the second sentence, the fifty gallons are portioned out—one gallon here, another gallon there, a third gallon somewhere else.

There are some rules in English grammar that seem to have nothing to do with common sense! But when you're talking about subject-predicate agreement, use your brain. Is the subject a single *thing*, or plural *things*?

Use this same common sense for collective nouns. Read the next rule in your workbook.

→ *Student: **Collective nouns are usually singular. Collective nouns can be plural if the members of the group are acting as independent individuals.***

Instructor: This is a complicated rule. You must think about the entire meaning of the sentence before deciding which rule to use. Read the two examples out loud, and pay attention to the verbs used.

→ *Student: The herd of cattle was grazing quietly. The herd of cattle were scattered throughout the plains.*

Instructor: When the herd grazes together as a single unit doing one thing, the singular verb *was* can be used. When the herd acts as many different independent individual cows, the plural verb *were* should be used.

When in doubt, use a singular verb with collective nouns.

Try using your brain on the rest of the exercises now.

— LESSON 28 —

Further Complications in Subject-Predicate Agreement

Instructor: We're not done with complicated subject-predicate relationships yet! You'll have to continue using your common sense as we go through the rules in the lesson. Read the next rule out loud.

→ *Student: **Many nouns can be plural in form but singular in use: measles, mumps, rickets, politics, mathematics, economics, news.***

Instructor: These nouns look like they are plural but are actually singular in their use and meaning. This category of nouns includes the names of diseases, like measles, or words ending in *-ics*, like politics. Read the example out loud. Pay attention to the verb used.

→ *Student: Mathematics is my favorite subject.*

Instructor: Read the next rule.

→ **Student:** *Singular literary works, works of art, newspapers, countries, and organizations can be plural in form but are still singular in use.*

Instructor: This rule is very similar to the last one. These categories of nouns often look plural in form, but they are singular in use and take singular verbs. Read the two example sentences, and pay attention to the verb.

→ **Student:** *Little Women was written by Louisa May Alcott. The United States is south of Canada.*

Instructor: By themselves, the words *women* and *states* are plural nouns, but when they are the title of one book or a single country, they are singular and take singular verbs. Read the next rule out loud.

→ **Student:** *Many nouns are plural in form and use but singular in meaning: pants, scissors, pliers, glasses.*

Instructor: These nouns each describe a single thing, but they are plural in form and take a plural verb. Usually nouns in this category are single objects composed of two parts. Read the example sentence, and pay attention to the verb.

→ **Student:** *Pants are too hot in the summertime.*

Instructor: *Pants* is just one thing—a pair of pants. But you would not say *Pants is too hot* because *pants* takes a plural verb. You might also say, “My scissors are missing” with a plural verb—not “My scissors is missing!” with a singular verb.

Read the next rule out loud.

→ **Student:** *In sentences beginning with There is or There are, the subject is found after the verb.*

Instructor: These sentences are tricky! Because the word *there* comes at the beginning of the sentence, it looks like the subject. In these special sentences, however, the true subject is found after the verb. We must find the true subject and make our verb agree with it. Read the two examples, and pay attention to the verbs.

→ **Student:** *There is a skunk in the brush. There are three skunks in the brush.*

Instructor: In order to find the true subject, sometimes it is helpful to change the sentence around to read *A skunk is there in the brush* or *Three skunks are there in the brush*. What is the true subject in the first sentence?

→ **Student:** *Skunk.*

Instructor: Because *skunk* is singular, we use the singular verb *is*. What is the subject in the second sentence?

→ **Student:** *Skunks.*

Instructor: Because *skunks* is plural, we use the plural verb *are*. Four more rules to go!
Read the next.

→ **Student:** *Each and every always indicate a singular subject.*

Instructor: These two words can be either adjectives or pronouns. Read the next three sentences in your workbook.

→ **Student:** *In Masai villages, each woman cares for her own cattle. In Masai villages, each of the women cares for her own cattle. In Masai villages, each cares for her own cattle.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, *each* is a descriptive adjective that tells more about *woman*. In the second and third sentences, *each* is a pronoun that stands for the noun *woman*. The sentences all refer to single, individual women, so the verb is singular. You can compare it to the plural subject and predicate in the sentence below.

Now, read the two sentences making use of *every*.

→ *Student: Every man needs friends. Men need friends.*

Instructor: The first sentence refers to all men, but the adjective *every* implies that you are considering them one at a time, so the verb is singular. The second sentence simply uses the plural form *men*, so it takes the plural form of the verb.

Read the next rule and the sentence that follows it.

→ *Student: **Compound nouns that are plural in form but singular in meaning take a singular verb.** Fish and chips is my favorite British dish.*

Instructor: *Fish and chips* looks like two nouns linked by the coordinating conjunction *and*, but actually it's one dish—a compound noun that stands for *one* thing. It is plural in form, but single in meaning. Your next rule (and sentence) illustrates a similar situation.

→ *Student: **Compound subjects joined by and take a singular verb when they name the same thing.** The owner and manager of the ice cream shop is also working behind the counter.*

Instructor: Since the owner is the same person as the manager, the subject of this sentence is only one person—and takes a singular noun. Read the last rule and example now.

→ *Student: **Nouns with Latin and Greek origins take the singular verb when singular in form and the plural verb when plural in form.** The data suggest otherwise.*

Instructor: *Data* is the plural form of the Latin word *datum*, so it is correct to say *data suggest* rather than *data suggests*—even if this sounds odd to your ears. Read through the chart of the most commonly used Greek and Latin words so that you become a little more familiar with their singular and plural forms.

→ *Student: Medium, media; datum, data; criterion, criteria; phenomenon, phenomena; focus, foci; appendix, appendices.*

Instructor: Practice all of these rules now by completing the exercises. You may look back at the rules if necessary.



WEEK 8

Introduction to Objects

— LESSON 29 —

Action Verbs Direct Objects

Note to Instructor: You will need a ball for this lesson.

Instructor: This is a ball. I can throw this ball up into the air. I can catch this ball. If I am not careful, I could lose this ball. Tell me three more things that I could do with this ball.

→ *Student:* [Answers will vary. *Bounce, kick, drop . . .*]

Instructor: *Throw, catch, lose, bounce, kick, and drop* are all action verbs. What is the definition of a verb?

→ *Student:* *A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: All of these verbs belong to the first part of the definition—they show actions. And all of those actions directly affect another object—the ball. We have a name for an object that is directly affected by an action verb: **direct object**. Read the definition of a direct object.

→ *Student:* **A direct object receives the action of the verb.**

Instructor: You can find the direct object in a sentence by asking the questions *whom* or *what* after reading the subject and verb together. Listen to this sentence: *Cara built a bonfire*. What is the verb?

→ *Student:* *Built.*

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ *Student:* *Cara.*

Instructor: Now let's find the object by asking *whom* or *what* after the subject and verb. *Cara built what*?

→ *Student:* *A bonfire.*

Instructor: *Bonfire* is the direct object. It receives the action of the verb *built*. Let's try another sentence. *We roasted marshmallows over the bonfire*. What is the verb?

→ *Student:* *Roasted.*

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ *Student:* *We.*

Instructor: What is the object? We roasted what?

→ *Student: Marshmallows.*

Instructor: *Marshmallows* is the direct object. *Bonfire* isn't, because if you put it together with the subject and verb you would have "We roasted the bonfire." Sometimes there will be confusing phrases after the verb like *over the bonfire*. Remember that a direct object is always a single noun, never a phrase. In the next sentence, what are the subject and the verb?

→ *Student: Tom ate.*

Instructor: What is the direct object?

→ *Student: Cookie.*

Instructor: In the next sentence, name the subject, verb, and direct object.

→ *Student: Julia, drank, lemonade.*

Instructor: Direct objects are not always objects that we can see and touch. They can be people or abstract nouns as well. For example, in the sentence *She visited her grandfather*, the word *grandfather* is the direct object. What is the direct object in the sentence *He had forgotten her name*?

→ *Student: Name.*

Instructor: What is the direct object in the sentence *She found peace*?

→ *Student: Peace.*

Instructor: Now let's diagram direct objects. Look carefully at the frame in your workbook. Direct objects are diagrammed to the right of the verb, separated by a short, straight line. Let's try the sentence *We roasted marshmallows*. First, write your verb to the right of the center line.

Next, write your subject to the left of the center line. Remember to use the same capitalization as the sentence.

Finally, write your direct object to the right of the short vertical line. The line that separates the verb from the direct object should never go through the horizontal line.

We | roasted | marshmallows

Instructor: A verb can have a compound direct object. For example: *We roasted soft marshmallows and beefy hot dogs*. What two things did we roast?

→ *Student: Marshmallows and hot dogs.*

Instructor: There are two direct objects—marshmallows and hot dogs. Put the subject, predicate, and compound direct object on the frame provided. Write *and* on the vertical line connecting the direct objects. Notice that *hot dogs* is a compound noun written with a space between the words—if you just put *dogs* on the direct object line, you'd have a whole different sentence! Write the adjectives on the adjective lines provided.

We | roasted |
 and
 marshmallows
 soft
 hot dogs
 beefy

Instructor: A sentence can have compound subjects, compound predicates, *and* compound direct objects. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: My friend and I rode roller coasters and ate popcorn and cotton candy.*

Instructor: This sentence has a compound subject. What are the two subjects?

→ *Student: Friend and I.*

Instructor: Write those onto the subject lines of the diagram. Write *and* on the correct line. What part of speech is *my*?

→ *Student: Adjective.*

Instructor: Write it onto the correct line. This sentence has a compound predicate. What are the two things that my friend and I did?

→ *Student: Rode [roller coasters] and ate [popcorn and cotton candy].*

Note to Instructor: If the student includes the bracketed phrases, say, “What two single verbs show the actions that my friend and I took?”

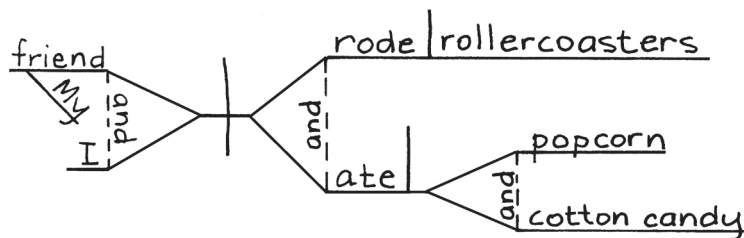
Instructor: Write those action verbs onto the predicate lines in the diagram. Write *and* on the correct line. Now ask “Whom or what?” after the first verb to find the direct object: My friend and I rode what?

→ *Student: Roller coasters.*

Instructor: Write that on the direct object line after the verb *rode*. Notice that *roller coasters* is a compound noun—both words should go on the line. Now ask “Whom or what?” after the second verb: My friend and I ate what?

→ *Student: Popcorn and cotton candy.*

Instructor: This is a compound direct object. Both words receive the action of the verb *ate*. Write them on the object lines that follow the verb *ate*. Write *and* on the correct line. Notice that both *popcorn* and *cotton candy* are compound nouns! Now you have diagrammed a sentence with compound subjects, compound verbs, compound direct objects, *and* compound nouns.



Instructor: Complete the next exercises now.

— LESSON 30 —

Direct Objects Prepositions

Instructor: Read me the first sentence in your workbook.

→ *Student: I broke my breakfast plate!*

Instructor: What is the subject and predicate of that sentence?

→ *Student: I and broke.*

Instructor: What did you break?

→ *Student: My plate.*

Instructor: *Plate* is the direct object of the action verb *broke*. Now read me the second sentence.

→ *Student: The pottery plate broke into pieces.*

Instructor: What is the subject and predicate?

→ *Student: Plate, broke.*

Instructor: This sentence has the same action verb as the first sentence. But instead of a direct object, this sentence ends with something else—a prepositional phrase. Let's take a minute to talk about prepositions. Place your hands on your workbook.

→ *(Student places hands on book.)*

Instructor: Place your hands under your workbook.

→ *(Student places hands under book.)*

Instructor: Place your hands beside your workbook.

→ *(Student places hands beside book.)*

Instructor: Place your hands above your workbook.

→ *(Student places hands above book.)*

Instructor: Place your hands near your workbook.

→ *(Student places hands near book.)*

Instructor: By changing just one word in each of these commands, I changed the relationship between your hands and the book. These words—*on*, *under*, *beside*, *above*, *near*—are called **prepositions**. Read me the definition of a preposition.

→ *Student: A preposition shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence.*

Instructor: If you can recognize a preposition when you see one, you'll find it much easier to recognize the parts of a sentence. We're going to practice the chart of prepositions three times. The first time, I want you to turn around in a circle after each section. Stand up and begin now.

Note to Instructor: The directions in this lesson are intended to keep the student active so that he will stay alert. You may choose to skip them. However, it is important that the student memorize the list of prepositions. If he has not already memorized them in a previous year of study, have him chant the chart out loud three times a day until all of the prepositions have been learned.

→ Student: *Aboard, about, above, across.*

After, against, along, among, around, at. [Turns around.]

Before, behind, below, beneath.

Beside, between, beyond, by. [Turns around.]

Down, during, except, for, from.

In, inside, into, like. [Turns around.]

Near, of, off, on, over.

Past, since, through, throughout. [Turns around.]

To, toward, under, underneath.

Until, up, upon.

With, within, without. [Turns around.]

Instructor: For the second time, try to say each section only taking one breath per section. For example: (Take one breath) Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at. Whew! Now I can take another breath for the next section. Ready? Go!

→ Student: *[Breathes.] Aboard, about, above, across.*

After, against, along, among, around, at.

[Breathes.] Before, behind, below, beneath.

Beside, between, beyond, by.

[Breathes.] Down, during, except, for, from.

In, inside, into, like.

[Breathes.] Near, of, off, on, over.

Past, since, through, throughout.

[Breathes.] To, toward, under, underneath.

Until, up, upon.

With, within, without.

Instructor: For the third and final time, alternate walking and jogging around the room while you say each section. Walk as you say the prepositions that begin with A, jog as you say the prepositions beginning with B, and so on.

→ Student: *[Walks.] Aboard, about, above, across.*

After, against, along, among, around, at.

[Jogs.] Before, behind, below, beneath.

Beside, between, beyond, by.

[Walks.] Down, during, except, for, from.

In, inside, into, like.

[Jogs.] Near, of, off, on, over.

Past, since, through, throughout.

[Walks.] To, toward, under, underneath.

Until, up, upon.

With, within, without.

Instructor: Now that you've learned the prepositions, complete the next three exercises. Check them with me when you've finished.

— LESSON 31 —

Definitions Review Prepositional Phrases Object of the Preposition

Instructor: In the last lesson, you learned the definition of a new part of speech. Let's review the definitions of the six parts of speech we've covered so far. If you can't remember the definitions, you may look in your book. What is a noun?

→ *Student: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.*

Instructor: What is an adjective?

→ *Student: An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: What is a pronoun?

→ *Student: A pronoun takes the place of a noun.*

Instructor: What is a verb?

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: What is a conjunction?

→ *Student: A conjunction joins words or groups of words together.*

Instructor: What is a coordinating conjunction?

→ *Student: A coordinating conjunction joins similar or equal words or groups of words together.*

Instructor: What is a phrase?

→ *Student: A phrase is a group of words serving a single grammatical function.*

Instructor: What is a preposition?

→ *Student: A preposition shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence.*

Instructor: List as many prepositions as you can. If you get stuck, you may look at the list in your workbook.

Note to Instructor: If the student does not know the list of prepositions, have him repeat it three times every day until it is learned.

Instructor: In the last lesson, you practiced circling prepositions. In your workbook, you will see three sentences with the prepositions circled. Take your pencil and underline the preposition and all the words after it, in each sentence.

A brook sluggishly flows through low ground.

Dark draperies hung upon the walls.

The tunnel wound into the green hill.

Instructor: In each sentence, those three words contain a preposition, and a noun that comes after the preposition. What is the noun that follows the preposition in the first sentence?

→ *Student: Ground.*

Instructor: In the second sentence?

→ *Student: Walls.*

Instructor: In the third?

→ *Student: Hill.*

Instructor: Each one of these nouns is modified. What adjective modifies *ground*?

→ *Student: Low.*

Instructor: What adjective modifies *walls*?

→ *Student: The.*

Instructor: What adjectives modify *hill*?

→ *Student: The and green.*

Instructor: Each set of preposition, noun, and adjectives belonging to the noun is called a **prepositional phrase**. Prepositions are always found in prepositional phrases. Read the definition of a prepositional phrase.

→ *Student: A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: You've learned that a direct object receives the action of the verb. In a prepositional phrase, the noun that follows the preposition is also an object. We call it the object of the preposition. Read the next rule in your workbook.

→ *Student: That noun or pronoun is the object of the preposition.*

Instructor: A prepositional phrase contains the preposition, the object of the preposition, and any words that describe the object. In the three sentences in your workbook, you have already underlined the prepositional phrases. To find the whole prepositional phrase, you can ask *whom* or *what* after the preposition. Look at the next sentence. What is the preposition?

→ *Student: Beneath.*

Instructor: Circle the preposition. Beneath what?

→ *Student: Your workbook.*

Instructor: Write *OP* for *object of the preposition* above the noun *workbook*. Underline the prepositional phrase *beneath your workbook*. Now you have found the preposition, the object of the preposition, and the prepositional phrase.

Put your hand ^{OP}
beneath your workbook.

Instructor: What is the preposition in the next sentence?

→ *Student: Across.*

Instructor: Circle the preposition. Across what?

→ *Student: The floor.*

Instructor: Write *OP* above the noun *floor*. Underline the prepositional phrase *across the floor*.

Calvin ran ^{OP}
across the floor.

Instructor: Look at the last sentence. What is the preposition?

→ *Student: For.*

Instructor: Circle the preposition. For whom?

→ *Student: My mother.*

Instructor: Write *OP* above the noun *mother*. Underline the prepositional phrase *for my mother*.

I baked a pie ^{OP}
(for) my mother.

Instructor: Now that you have learned how to identify prepositional phrases, complete your exercises.

— LESSON 32 —

Subjects, Predicates, and Direct Objects

Prepositions

Object of the Preposition

Prepositional Phrases

Instructor: In the last lesson, you learned about prepositions and prepositional phrases. If you can identify the prepositional phrases in any sentence, you'll find that it's much, much easier to locate the other parts of the sentence—the subject, predicate, and direct object. Let's do one more quick review of those sentence parts. Read the next three definitions in your workbook now.

→ *Student: The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about. The simple subject of the sentence is just the main word or term that the sentence is about. The complete subject of the sentence is the simple subject and all the words that belong to it.*

Instructor: Look at the next sentence in in your workbook. Who or what is the sentence about?

→ *Student: The warrior.*

Note to Instructor: If the student gives another answer, say, "Who or what is seeing?"

Instructor: *Warrior* is the simple subject. Underline it once. *The warrior* is the complete subject. Circle it now.

(The warrior) saw on the opposite mountain two great globes of glowing fire.

Instructor: Now read the next three definitions.

→ *Student: The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject. The simple predicate of the sentence is the main verb along with any helping verbs. The complete predicate of the sentence is the simple predicate and all the words that belong to it.*

Instructor: Everything that doesn't belong to the complete subject belongs to the complete predicate. Circle the rest of the sentence now. What single word tells you what the warrior actually did?

→ *Student: Saw.*

Instructor: That is the simple predicate. Underline it twice.

(The warrior) (saw) on the opposite mountain two great globes of glowing fire.

Instructor: Read the next definition in your workbook.

→ *Student: A direct object receives the action of the verb.*

Instructor: What did the warrior see? Answer with one word.

→ *Student: Globes.*

Instructor: *Globes* receives the action of *seeing*. Put the initials *DO* over *globes* to indicate that it is the direct object.

DO
The warrior saw on the opposite mountain two great globes of glowing fire.

Instructor: What is a preposition?

→ *Student: A preposition shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence.*

Instructor: Recite the list of prepositions for me now.

Note to Instructor: If the student has not memorized the list of prepositions, continue to ask the student to repeat this list three times per day until it is committed to memory.

→ *Student: Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, over, past, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, underneath, until, up, upon, with, within, without.*

Instructor: Read the next two definitions now.

→ *Student: A **prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun. That noun or pronoun is the object of the preposition.***

Instructor: Look at the next sentence in your workbook. The simple subject is underlined once, the simple predicate is underlined twice, and the direct object is labeled. The complete subject is divided from the complete predicate by a vertical line.

There are two prepositional phrases in the sentence. What is the object of the preposition *on*?

→ *Student: Mountain.*

Instructor: What is the object of the preposition *of*?

→ *Student: Fire.*

Instructor: Draw a box around each preposition, and then circle each prepositional phrase.

DO
The warrior | saw (on the opposite mountain) two great globes (of glowing fire).

Instructor: Now read me the next sentence in your workbook.

→ *Student: The warrior saw two great globes.*

Instructor: Once you remove prepositional phrases from a sentence, it's much easier to find the subject, predicate, and direct object. Even long, complicated sentences can be made manageable if you identify the prepositional phrases before you start to identify the main parts of the sentence. The next sentence in your workbook has *five* prepositional phrases in it. Underline each one, and then rewrite the sentence without the prepositional phrases on the line below.

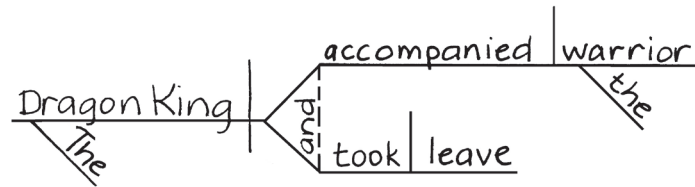
The Dragon King with his retainers accompanied the warrior to the end of the bridge, and took leave of him with many bows and good wishes.

The Dragon King accompanied the warrior, and took leave.

Instructor: In your rewritten sentence, underline the subject once, the predicate twice, and label the direct objects.

The Dragon King accompanied the ^{DO}warrior, and took ^{DO}leave.

Instructor: Now diagram the sentence on the frame in your workbook.



Instructor: Complete the remaining exercises now.



WEEK 9

Adverbs

— LESSON 33 —

Adverbs That Tell How

Instructor: In the last eight weeks, you've learned the names and definitions of six parts of speech. Can you name those six parts of speech?

→ *Student: Noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, conjunction, preposition.*

Note to Instructor: Prompt student if necessary.

Instructor: This week, you'll learn about the seventh part of speech: the adverb. Read me each sentence. Be sure to read the sentences in the same way that the squirrel stole the sock.

Note to Instructor: The student should read the first sentence very slowly, the second in a sleepy voice, the third in a happy voice, and the fourth very quickly.

→ *Student: [Slowly] A sneaky squirrel stole my sock slowly. [Sleepily] A sneaky squirrel stole my sock sleepily. [Cheerfully] A sneaky squirrel stole my sock cheerfully. [Very fast] A sneaky squirrel stole my sock rapidly.*

Instructor: You said these sentences slowly, sleepily, cheerfully, and rapidly. These words describe the way you spoke. They modify, or describe, the action verb *said*. In the sentences about the squirrel, the words *slowly*, *sleepily*, *cheerfully*, and *rapidly* describe how the squirrel stole. They modify, or describe, the verb *stole*. These words are **adverbs**. Adverbs describe verbs, just as adjectives describe nouns and pronouns. Read the definition of an adverb.

→ *Student: An **adverb** describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

Instructor: All of the adverbs in the first four sentences described verbs. Read the next two sentences out loud.

→ *Student: An **exceptionally** sneaky squirrel stole my sock slowly. A sneaky squirrel stole my sock very rapidly.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, the bolded adverb describes the adjective *sneaky*. In the second, the bolded adverb describes the adverb *rapidly*. In this week's lessons, we will discuss all three kinds of adverbs. Read me the next part of the definition.

→ *Student: **Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what extent.***

Instructor: Today we are only going to study adverbs that describe verbs and answer the question *how*. In the sentence *A sneaky squirrel stole my sock rapidly*, the word *rapidly* tells **how** the squirrel stole. Many adverbs that answer the question *how* end in *-ly*, like *cheerfully*, *slowly*,

and *sleepily*. If you add *-ly* to the end of most adjectives, you can turn them into adverbs that answer the question *how*. For example, the adjective *serious* is turned into the adverb *seriously* by adding *-ly*. Let's try this trick together. Add *-ly* to the end of the adjective *fierce* to turn it into an adverb.

→ Student: *Fiercely*.

Instructor: Write that on the blank in your book. Can you turn the adjective *thorough* into an adverb?

→ Student: *Thoroughly*.

Instructor: Write that down. If the adjective already ends in *-y*, change the *y* into an *i* before adding *-ly*. For example, the adjective *crazy* turns into the adverb *crazily*. Using this pattern, can you turn the adjective *scary* into an adverb?

→ Student: *Scarily*.

Instructor: Write that down. Can you turn the adjective *cheery* into an adverb?

→ Student: *Cheerily*.

Instructor: Write that down.

Adjective	Adverb
serious	seriously
fierce	<u>fiercely</u>
thorough	<u>thoroughly</u>
crazy	crazily
scary	<u>scarily</u>
cheery	<u>cheerily</u>

Instructor: All of the adverbs you just formed answer the question *how*.

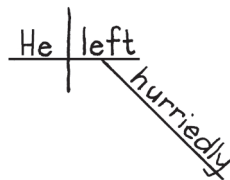
Adverbs that answer the question *how* can be found anywhere in a sentence. Can you find the adverb in the following sentence? *He left hurriedly*.

→ Student: *Hurriedly*.

Instructor: The adverb *hurriedly* tells how he left. This adverb can go anywhere in the sentence.

The sentence could read *Hurriedly, he left* or *He hurriedly left*. All of these sentences are correct.

Now let's see how to diagram adverbs that modify verbs. Look at the diagram.



Instructor: What word does *hurriedly* describe or modify?

→ Student: *Left*.

Instructor: The adverb *hurriedly* goes on a slanted line beneath the word it modifies. In the next few lessons we will study adverbs that answer different questions and modify adjectives and adverbs. Right now, complete your exercises.

— LESSON 34 —

Adverbs That Tell When, Where, and How Often

Note to Instructor: Allow five minutes for the student to complete Exercise 34A.

Instructor: Did you get those recipe cards in the right order? Read me the directions in order from one to five.

Note to Instructor: See the Answer Key for the correct order.

Instructor: What words gave you the best clues about the order of these directions?

→ *Student: [First, finally . . .]*

Instructor: The words *first*, *second*, *next*, *later*, and *finally* are adverbs that tell *when*. In the last lesson, we talked about adverbs that describe verbs and tell *how*. Today we are going to talk about adverbs that tell when, where, and how often. Read me the definition of an adverb.

→ *Student: An adverb describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what extent.*

Instructor: Like adverbs that tell how, adverbs that tell when, where, and how often describe verbs. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: Yesterday I washed my dog outside.*

Instructor: Which word in this sentence tells *when* I washed my dog?

→ *Student: Yesterday.*

Instructor: Like *later*, *finally*, and *next*, *yesterday* is an adverb that tells *when*. Circle the adverb *yesterday*. Which word in this sentence tells *where* I washed my dog?

→ *Student: Outside.*

Instructor: *Outside* is an adverb that tells *where*. Circle the adverb *outside*. In the next sentence, what adverb tells *where* the dog ran?

→ *Student: Away.*

Instructor: Circle the adverb *away*. The next two sentences contain adverbs that tell when *and* adverbs that tell where. What two adverbs tell when?

→ *Student: Then and now.*

Instructor: Circle those two adverbs. What two adverbs tell where?

→ *Student: Down and there.*

Instructor: Circle *down* and *there*.

Yesterday I washed my dog outside.

The dog ran away.

Then the dog lay down.

Now my dog is sleeping there.

Instructor: Let's talk about two more adverbs that tell where: *there* and *here*. When those adverbs come at the end of a sentence, it's easy to recognize them. Read the next two sentences.

→ Student: *My glasses are lying there. My red book is sitting here.*

Instructor: In those two sentences, it's pretty clear that *there* modifies *lying* and *here* modifies *sitting*. Both adverbs answer the question *where*? But sometimes *there* and *here* come at the beginning of a sentence—and, even more confusing, they modify state-of-being verbs.

Read me the next two sentences.

→ Student: *There are my glasses. Here is my red book.*

Instructor: *There* and *here* may look like subjects—but an adverb can't be the subject of a sentence. So they are modifying a verb—the state-of-being verb in each sentence. Where are the glasses?

→ Student: *The glasses are there.*

Instructor: *There* modifies the state-of-being verb *are*. Where is the red book?

→ Student: *The red book is here.*

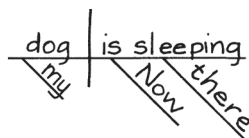
Instructor: *Here* modifies the state-of-being verb *is*. Now, look at the three diagrams and notice where the adverbs are diagrammed. In the first sentence, when is the dog sleeping?

→ Student: *Now.*

Instructor: Where is the dog sleeping?

→ Student: *There.*

Instructor: So *now* and *there* are both adverbs that are diagrammed beneath the verb *is sleeping*.



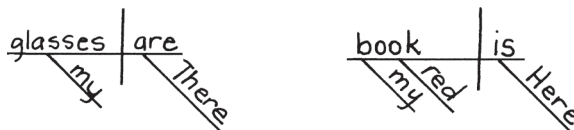
Instructor: What is the subject of the sentence *There are my glasses*?

→ Student: *Glasses.*

Instructor: What is the subject of *Here is my red book*?

→ Student: *Book.*

Instructor: Notice that all the adverbs are diagrammed beneath the verbs they modify—no matter where they come in the sentence.



Instructor: Repeat after me: ***Here and there are adverbs that tell where.***

→ Student: *Here and there are adverbs that tell where.*

Instructor: Adverbs can also tell how often. Listen to the following sentence: *I wash my dog weekly*. What word in that sentence tells how often I wash my dog?

→ Student: *Weekly.*

Instructor: *Weekly* is an adverb that tells how often. Listen to the following question and answer with a complete sentence: Do you always, sometimes, or never eat breakfast?

→ *Student: I [always/sometimes/never] eat breakfast.*

Instructor: Listen: Can you always, sometimes, or never keep secrets?

→ *Student: I can [always/sometimes/never] keep secrets.*

Instructor: Listen: If you were a pirate, would you always, sometimes, or never attack other ships?

→ *Student: If I were a pirate, I would [always/sometimes/never] attack other ships.*

Instructor: *Always, sometimes, and never* are adverbs that tell *how often*. They describe verbs.

Adverbs that tell *how often* sometimes interrupt verb phrases. Remember, a verb phrase is a main verb plus all of its helping verbs. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: Richie is always looking for adventure.*

Instructor: Who is always looking?

→ *Student: Richie.*

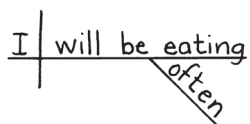
Instructor: Richie is the subject. How often is Richie looking for adventure?

→ *Student: Always.*

Instructor: *Always* is an adverb that tells how often. *Is looking* is the verb. The verb phrase *is looking* is interrupted by the adverb *always*. Tell me the adverb in the following sentence: *I will often be eating.*

→ *Student: Often.*

Instructor: Now look at the diagram. Notice that all of the verbs in the verb phrase are in the predicate space, while *often* goes beneath it. Be careful not to put adverbs in the predicate space, even if they come in the middle of the verb phrase.



Instructor: Read me the next three sentences.

→ *Student: When will you arrive? Where is my hat? How are you doing?*

Instructor: Each one of those questions begins with an adverb. What question does the adverb *when* answer?

→ *Student: When.*

Instructor: What question does *where* answer?

→ *Student: Where.*

Instructor: What question does *how* answer?

→ *Student: How.*

Instructor: Exactly! When an adverb begins a question, we still diagram it as an adverb.

Remember, when you diagram a question, you first turn it into a statement. Read me the first question that has been turned into a statement.

→ *Student: You will arrive When.*

Instructor: The adverb *when* is diagrammed beneath the verb, because it answers the question *when* about the verb *will arrive*.

you | will arrive
When

Instructor: Read me the second question that has been turned into a statement.

→ *Student: My hat is Where.*

Instructor: Place the subject, verb, adverb, and adjective in the correct place on the diagram.

hat | is
my Where

Instructor: Now turn the third sentence, “How are you doing?”, into a statement and diagram it yourself on your own paper.

you | are doing
How

Instructor: Complete the exercises in your workbook now.

— LESSON 35 —

Adverbs That Tell To What Extent

Instructor: Read me the definition of an adverb one more time.

→ *Student: An adverb describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what extent.*

Instructor: We’ve already talked about adverbs that describe verbs and tell how, when, where, and how often. Today, we’ll cover the final kind of adverb—adverbs that describe adjectives or other adverbs, and tell to what extent. Look out the window. Let’s describe the weather today. Is it hot or cold?

→ *Student: It is [hot/cold].*

Instructor: Is it extremely [hot/cold] or just somewhat [hot/cold]?

→ *Student: It is [extremely/somewhat] [hot/cold].*

Instructor: Is it sunny or cloudy?

→ *Student: It is [sunny/cloudy].*

Instructor: Is it extremely [sunny/cloudy] or somewhat [sunny/cloudy]?

→ *Student: It is [extremely/somewhat] [sunny/cloudy].*

Instructor: Is it rainy, humid, or dry?

→ *Student: It is [rainy/humid/dry].*

Instructor: Is it extremely [rainy/humid/dry] or somewhat [rainy/humid/dry]?

→ Student: It is [extremely/somewhat] [rainy/humid/dry].

Instructor: You've now told me about the temperature and climate, and you've also told me the extent of the temperature and climate. You told me *how* hot/cold and *how* sunny/cloudy it is outside. Now I should know exactly what kind of clothes to wear outside! Let's study the sentence *The extremely humid day was unpleasant*. What is the verb?

→ Student: Was.

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ Student: Day.

Instructor: What kind of day is it? (Answer with one word.)

→ Student: Humid.

Instructor: *Humid* is a descriptive adjective that describes *day*. The word *extremely* is an adverb that describes the adjective *humid*. It tells us *to what extent* the day is humid. Read me the next sentence.

→ Student: Sharon runs quite quickly.

Instructor: *Sharon* is the subject and *runs* is the verb. What single word describes the verb *runs* and tells *how* Sharon runs?

→ Student: Quickly.

Instructor: The word *quite* does not describe *runs*. We cannot say *Sharon runs quite*. The word *quite* is an adverb that describes the other adverb *quickly*. Look at the following sentence and tell me the two adverbs that you hear: *Larry shrieked especially loudly*.

→ Student: Especially loudly.

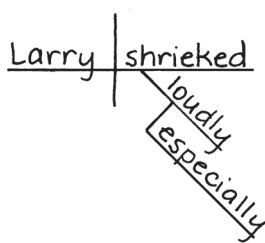
Instructor: Which adverb describes *how* Larry shrieked?

→ Student: Loudly.

Instructor: Larry shrieked loudly. *Loudly* describes the verb *shrieked*. Which word tells to what extent the shrieking was loud?

→ Student: Especially.

Instructor: In your workbook, practice diagramming adverbs that describe adjectives or other adverbs. Diagram the subject and verb *Larry* and *shrieked* on the frame provided. Now write the adverb *loudly* on the diagonal line below the verb, because *loudly* describes the verb *shrieked*. Next, write the adverb *especially* on the diagonal line drawn below *loudly*, because *especially* describes *loudly*.



Instructor: When you've finished, read me the next sentence.

→ Student: Extremely skittish Larry ran away.

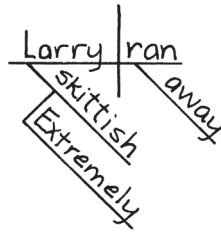
Instructor: Diagram the subject and verb *Larry* and *ran* on the frame provided. *Away* answers the question *how* and describes *ran*, so write the adverb *away* on the diagonal line beneath the verb. What is the adjective that describes the subject *Larry*?

→ Student: *Skittish*.

Instructor: *Skittish* is diagrammed on the straight diagonal line below *Larry*. Now let's find the adverb that describes the adjective *skittish*. To what extent is Larry skittish?

→ Student: *Extremely*.

Instructor: *Extremely* is diagrammed on the diagonal line drawn below *skittish*.



Instructor: Complete the exercises now.

— LESSON 36 —

Adjectives and Adverbs

The Adverb *Not*

Diagramming Contractions

Diagramming Compound Adjectives and Compound Adverbs

Instructor: One more review: What is an adjective, and what do adjectives do?

→ Student: *An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun. Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.*

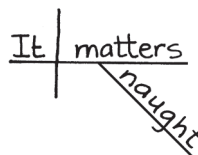
Instructor: What is an adverb, and what do adverbs do?

→ Student: *An adverb describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what extent.*

Instructor: Read the following sentence out loud. It's a sentence that you might find in an Elizabethan play or a 17th-century poem.

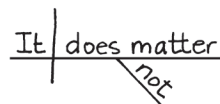
→ Student: *It matters naught.*

Instructor: Examine the diagram in your workbook.



Instructor: *Naught* is an archaic (old-fashioned, no longer in common use) *adverb of negation*—an adverb that reverses or cancels out whatever it modifies. *It matters naught* means the opposite of *It matters*: It doesn't matter at all. Over time, English speakers shortened the adverb *naught* until

it reached its present form: *not*. Today, we would express *It matters naught* as *It does not matter*. *Not* is still an adverb, reversing the meaning of the verb *does matter*, so it's diagrammed below the verb, as illustrated in your workbook.

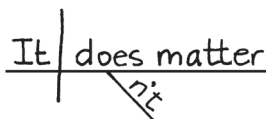


Instructor: Then, English speakers shortened *not* even further and turned it into a contraction. *Does not* became *doesn't*. But *not* is still an adverb—not part of the verb.

Review the definition of a contraction by reading it out loud.

→ *Student: A contraction is a combination of two words with some of the letters dropped out.*

Instructor: When you diagram a contraction, you divide the two words that have been combined apart again, as though they were still two separate words. Then, you diagram each separately. Examine the diagram of the sentence *It doesn't matter* in your workbook.



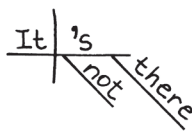
Instructor: *Does* and *n't* have been divided, and *n't* is diagrammed as though it were the full form *not*. Read me the next sentence out loud.

→ *Student: It's not there.*

Instructor: What two words are represented by the contraction *it's*?

→ *Student: It is.*

Instructor: The pronoun *It* is the subject. The contracted verb *'s* is the predicate. So treat *'s* as if it were the full verb *is* and place it on the predicate line. Notice that the adverbs *not* and *there* modify the verb, so they are diagrammed beneath it.



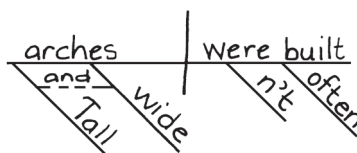
Instructor: Read the next sentence out loud.

→ *Student: Tall and wide arches weren't often built.*

Instructor: What is the predicate?

→ *Student: Were built.*

Instructor: What are the two adverbs diagrammed beneath the predicate?



→ *Student: N't and often.*

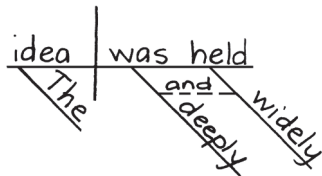
Instructor: What two adjectives describe the subject noun *arches*?

→ Student: *Tall and wide.*

Instructor: When two adjectives modify the same noun and are linked by *and*, they are often called *compound adjectives*. Look carefully at the diagram of this sentence. Notice that *tall* and *wide* are both diagrammed beneath *arches*, but they are also linked together by the dotted line with *and* written on it. Read me the final sentence in your workbook now.

→ Student: *The idea was deeply and widely held.*

Instructor: Where are the adverbs *deeply* and *widely* diagrammed?



→ Student: *Beneath the predicate.*

Instructor: Where is *and* diagrammed?

→ Student: *On the dotted line connecting the adverbs.*

Instructor: Complete your exercises now.

— REVIEW 3 —

The review exercises and answers are found in the Student Workbook and accompanying Key.



WEEK 10

Completing the Sentence

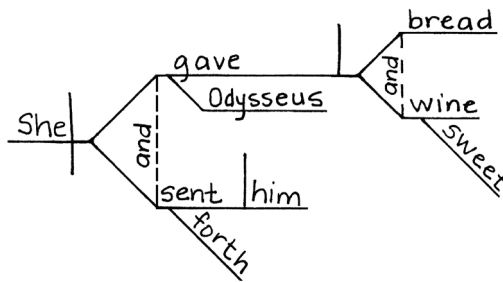
— LESSON 37 —

Direct Objects

Indirect Objects

Instructor: You should be able to place every word in the following sentence (from *The Odyssey* by Homer) on the frame provided. The bolded word has already been diagrammed for you.

Note to Instructor: Provide all necessary help. You may need to tell the student that *forth* is an old-fashioned way to say *forward*, so it is an adverb that answers the question *where*.



Instructor: This sentence has a compound verb, and one of those verbs has two direct objects. So there are a total of three direct objects in this sentence. What are they?

→ Student: *Bread, wine, him.*

Instructor: Read me the definition of a direct object.

→ Student: *A direct object receives the action of the verb.*

Instructor: *Bread* and *wine* are the objects that were given. But who received the bread and the wine?

→ Student: *Odysseus.*

Instructor: Odysseus did not *directly* receive the action of the verb *give*. Did she pick Odysseus up and give him away to someone else?

→ Student: *No.*

Instructor: So *Odysseus* is not a direct object—but the verb *gave* does have an effect on Odysseus, because he ends up getting the bread and the wine. *Odysseus* is an **indirect object**.

Read me the definition of an indirect object.

→ Student: *An indirect object is the noun or pronoun for whom or to whom an action is done.*

Instructor: To whom is the bread and wine given?

→ Student: *Odysseus*.

Instructor: So the giving *directly* affects the bread and wine, and *indirectly* affects Odysseus. *Odysseus* is the indirect object of the verb *gave*. Read the next part of the definition now.

→ Student: **An indirect object comes between the action verb and the direct object.**

Instructor: In this sentence, *Odysseus* comes between the action verb *gave* and the direct objects *bread* and *wine*. Now read the next sentence about Odysseus out loud.

→ Student: *Odysseus asked the stranger a question.*

Instructor: What is the action verb in that sentence?

→ Student: *Asked*.

Instructor: What is the subject? Who or what asked?

→ Student: *Odysseus*.

Instructor: What is the direct object? Odysseus asked what?

→ Student: *A question*.

Instructor: What is the indirect object? Odysseus asked the question to whom?

→ Student: *The stranger*.

Instructor: Sentences that have indirect objects will always have direct objects. You can have a direct object with no indirect object, but you cannot have an indirect object without a direct object.

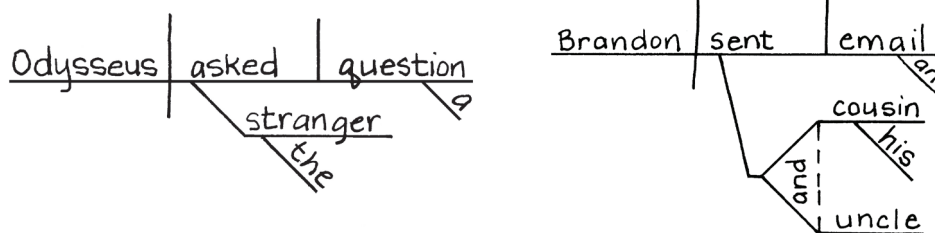
Sometimes indirect objects can be compound. We can say *Brandon sent his cousin and uncle an email*. What is the direct object—the thing that is actually *sent*?

→ Student: *The email*.

Instructor: To whom or for whom is the email sent?

→ Student: *His cousin and uncle*.

Instructor: *Cousin and uncle* is the compound indirect object in that sentence. Now look at the two diagrams.



Instructor: In the first sentence, notice that the indirect object is written underneath the verb on a horizontal line connected to the verb by a slanted line. Nothing is written on the slanted line. The slanted line reminds you that the verb *indirectly* affects the indirect object. A compound indirect object, like *cousin and uncle*, is diagrammed on two horizontal lines connected by a dotted line. The conjunction *and* is written on the dotted line.

Finish your exercises now.

— LESSON 38 —

State-of-Being Verbs Linking Verbs Predicate Adjectives

Instructor: Yesterday, you learned about indirect objects. Direct objects and indirect objects are parts of the sentence that follow an action verb. Today, we're going to talk about parts of the sentence that follow state-of-being verbs. Read the first sentence in your workbook out loud.

→ *Student: The tiny, jewel-colored hummingbird is strong and frantically energetic.*

Instructor: What is the subject?

→ *Student: Hummingbird.*

Instructor: Underline it once. What is the predicate?

→ *Student: Is.*

Instructor: Underline it twice.

The tiny, jewel-colored hummingbird is strong and frantically energetic.

Instructor: You've learned that there are four kinds of verbs. What are they? (You may look at your book if you can't remember these definitions.)

→ *Student: A verb shows an action, shows a state of being, links two words together, or helps another verb.*

Instructor: So far, we've talked about action verbs, state-of-being verbs, and helping verbs. But we haven't talked yet about verbs that link words together. **A linking verb connects the subject to a noun, pronoun or adjective in the complete predicate.** Repeat that definition out loud.

→ *Student: A linking verb connects the subject to a noun, pronoun, or adjective in the complete predicate.*

Instructor: Let's talk about each part of this definition. In this sentence, the verb *is* links the subject *hummingbird* to two other words. See if you can find the first one. Answer in one word: The hummingbird is . . .

→ *Student: Strong.*

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student if necessary.

Instructor: There's a second possible answer to that question. The hummingbird is also . . .

→ *Student: Energetic.*

Instructor: *Strong* and *energetic* are both adjectives that describe the hummingbird. There are two more adjectives that describe the hummingbird in this sentence. One is a compound adjective. What are they?

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student if necessary.

→ *Student: Tiny and jewel-colored.*

Instructor: *Tiny* and *jewel-colored* are descriptive adjectives. *Strong* and *energetic* are also descriptive, but because they come after the linking verb, we call them **predicate adjectives**. Read me the definition of a predicate adjective.

→ Student: **A predicate adjective describes the subject and is found in the complete predicate.**

Instructor: Attributive adjectives that describe the subject come right before it, and are found in the complete subject; predicate adjectives that describe the subject come after the subject and are found in the complete predicate. Review the definitions of subject and predicate quickly by reading them out loud.

→ Student: *The subject of the sentence is the main word or term that the sentence is about. The simple subject of the sentence is just the main word or term that the sentence is about. The complete subject of the sentence is the simple subject and all the words that belong to it. The predicate of the sentence tells something about the subject. The simple predicate of the sentence is the main verb along with any helping verbs. The complete predicate of the sentence is the simple predicate and all the words that belong to it.*

Instructor: When a state-of-being verb links the simple subject to an adjective found in the complete predicate, it becomes a linking verb. What are the state-of-being verbs?

→ Student: *Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.*

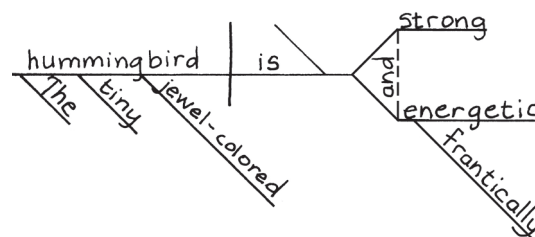
Instructor: Read me the first pair of sentences in your workbook.

→ Student: *I am. I am hungry.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, *am* is a state-of-being verb. Write *SB* over the verb. In the second sentence, *am* becomes a linking verb because it is followed by the predicate adjective *hungry*. Write *LV* over the verb and *PA* over the predicate adjective. Do the same thing for the next two pairs of sentences.

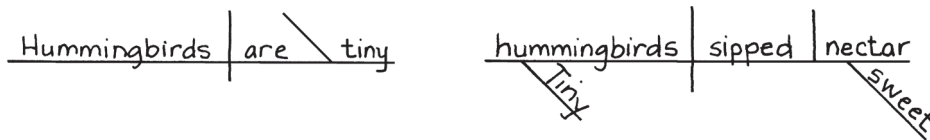
SB I am.	SB They are being.	SB The sunset was.
LV PA I am hungry.	LV PA They are being loud.	LV PA The sunset was spectacular.

Instructor: When you diagram a predicate adjective, you place it after the linking verb. You divide it from the linking verb with a slanted line that points back to the subject. This shows that the predicate adjective describes the subject. Look at the diagram.



Instructor: Notice where *tiny* and *jewel-colored* are diagrammed—beneath the subject. They are attributive adjectives, found in the complete subject part of the sentence, so they are diagrammed with the subject. *Strong* and *energetic* are diagrammed after the linking verb *is* because they are predicate adjectives. They are found in the complete predicate, so they are grouped with the predicate on the diagram.

Be sure not to confuse predicate adjectives with direct objects! Direct objects follow action verbs. A predicate adjective cannot follow an action verb—and a direct object cannot follow a linking verb. Compare the diagrams of the next two sentences. The first sentence has a linking verb followed by a predicate adjective. The second has an action verb followed by a direct object.



Instructor: Complete your exercises now.

— LESSON 39 —

Linking Verbs Predicate Adjectives Predicate Nominatives

Instructor: Let's play a very short version of Twenty Questions. I will give you clues, and you guess what I am thinking about. For every clue I give you, you can have one guess. As soon as you know the answer, tell me.

Note to Instructor: Choose one of the following (save the others for subsequent years of study!). Read the clues, and allow the student one guess after each clue, asking "Are you a _____?" You can keep track of how many guesses it takes the student to guess the correct answer.

I am an animal.
I am a mammal.
I am unpopular.
I am black and white.
I am stinky.
I am a skunk.
I am a plant.
I am yellow.
I am tall.
I am a flower.
I am sunny.
I am a sunflower.

I am a fruit.
I am red.
I am small.
I am soft.
I am a berry.
I am a strawberry [or raspberry].
I am food.
I am dessert.
I am round.
I am brown.
I am gooey and frosted.
I am chocolate cake.

Instructor: In each of these clues, I gave you a linking verb followed by a word in the complete predicate that described the subject *I*. But not all of those words describing *I* were adjectives. Some of them were nouns.

Look at the first sentence in your workbook. The linking verb *am* is followed by the adjective *unpopular*. What do we call an adjective that follows the predicate and describes the subject?

→ *Student: A predicate adjective.*

Instructor: Read me the definition of a predicate adjective.

→ *Student: A predicate adjective describes the subject and is found in the complete predicate.*

Instructor: *Unpopular* is a predicate adjective. Now look at the next two sentences. What two words follow the linking verbs?

→ Student: *Flower, berry.*

Instructor: Are these words adjectives?

→ Student: *No.*

Note to Instructor: If student says “yes,” remind her of the definition of a noun: A noun names a person, place, thing, or idea. Flowers and berries are both things.

Instructor: When an adjective follows a linking verb, it describes the subject. But when a noun follows a linking verb, it *gives the subject another name*. Read the definition of a **predicate nominative**.

→ Student: **A predicate nominative renames the subject and is found in the complete predicate.**

Instructor: The word *nominative* comes from the Latin word *nomen*, which means “name.”

We also get our English word *name* directly from the Latin *nomen*. This might help you to remember that a predicate nominative *renames* the subject. Now look at the two diagrams in your workbook. In the first diagram, *unpopular* is a predicate adjective. In the second diagram, *berry* is a predicate nominative. They are diagrammed in exactly the same way.



Instructor: Let's practice the difference between predicate adjectives and predicate nominatives just a little more. Read the next sentence.

→ Student: *Iguanas are reptiles.*

Instructor: Is the verb *are* an action verb or a linking verb?

→ Student: *Linking verb.*

Instructor: What *are* iguanas?

→ Student: *Reptiles.*

Instructor: To discover whether this is a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective, first check to see if it is a noun or an adjective. Predicate nominatives are nouns or pronouns, and predicate adjectives are adjectives. Is *reptiles* a noun or an adjective?

→ Student: *Noun.*

Instructor: *Reptiles* is a noun. You can think of the linking verb as an *equals sign* that makes the subject equal the predicate nominative. Let's test this sentence: Iguanas = reptiles. If that formula is true, you've correctly identified the linking verb and predicate nominative. Read the second sentence.

→ Student: *Iguanas are scaly.*

Instructor: Iguanas are what?

→ Student: *Scaly.*

Instructor: Is *scaly* a noun or an adjective?

→ Student: *Adjective.*

Instructor: *Scaly* is an adjective. You can test this by reading the predicate adjective before the subject: *Scaly iguanas*. If that phrase makes sense, you have identified a predicate adjective. Try putting *reptiles* in front of *iguanas*.

→ *Student: Reptiles iguanas.*

Instructor: That doesn't make sense, so you know that *reptiles* isn't a predicate adjective. Does *iguanas* equal *scaly*?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: So you know that *scaly* isn't a predicate nominative. Use those two tests as you complete your exercises.

— LESSON 40 —

Predicate Adjectives and Predicate Nominatives Pronouns as Predicate Nominatives Object Complements

Instructor: What does a linking verb do? You may read the definition from your workbook if you can't remember it.

→ *Student: A linking verb connects the subject to a noun, pronoun, or adjective in the complete predicate.*

Instructor: We've talked about nouns that come after the linking verb and rename the subject. What are these nouns called?

→ *Student: Predicate nominatives.*

Instructor: We've also talked about adjectives that come after the linking verb and describe the subject. What are these adjectives in the complete predicate called?

→ *Student: Predicate adjectives.*

Instructor: So far, we haven't talked about pronouns that come after linking verbs. Review the definitions of pronoun and antecedent in your workbook.

→ *Student: A pronoun takes the place of a noun. The antecedent is the noun that is replaced by the pronoun.*

Instructor: Read the list of personal pronouns that we've already covered.

→ *Student: I; you; he, she, it; we; you; they.*

Instructor: These personal pronouns can also follow a linking verb to complete a sentence. Read the next three sentences in your workbook.

→ *Student: It is I. The winner is you. My best friend is she.*

Note to Instructor: The difference between subject and object pronouns will be covered in Week Thirteen, after the linking verb-action verb distinction is more thoroughly explored (in Week Twelve). If the student objects that *It is me* or *My best friend is her* sounds more natural, explain that *me* and *her* can only serve as objects, not as predicate nominatives, and promise a fuller explanation in the lessons to come.

Instructor: In each of these sentences, the linking verb *is* is followed by a personal pronoun that *renames* the subject. Are these personal pronouns serving as predicate nominatives or predicate adjectives?

→ *Student: Predicate nominatives.*

Instructor: The personal pronouns *I, you, he, she, it, we, and they* can also serve as predicate nominatives. Complete the next three sentences in your workbook by placing a singular or plural noun, as indicated, along with any necessary modifiers, in each blank.

Note to Instructor: It is more natural to say *We are companions* or *Where are we?* However, insist on a plural noun (and modifiers) for each blank. This lesson lays the groundwork for upcoming lessons on inverted word order, interrogative pronouns, and other constructions where a linking verb is followed by a pronoun. Possible answers might be: *Companions/allies/soldiers/students are we; the loser/the fiercest competitor/the best chef has been you; victors/spies/farmers were they.*

Instructor: Since a pronoun takes the place of a noun, a pronoun can also serve as a predicate nominative. Let's look at one more way to finish out a sentence with a word that *renames* or *describes*. Read the following sentences out loud.

→ *Student: We elected Marissa leader. The explorers found the camp abandoned. He painted the fence white.*

Instructor: Each one of these sentences has an action verb. Underline each action verb twice. Each one of these sentences has a direct object. Label the direct object with *DO*.

DO

We elected Marissa leader.

DO

The explorers found the camp abandoned.

DO

He painted the fence white.

Instructor: Every direct object is followed by another word. What word follows *Marissa*?

→ *Student: Leader.*

Instructor: What part of speech is *leader*?

→ *Student: Noun.*

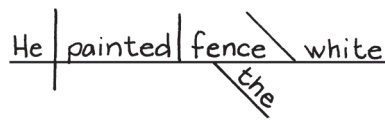
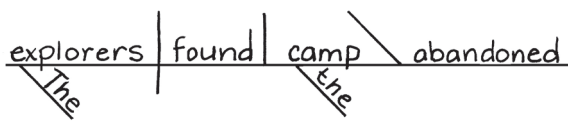
Instructor: *Leader* is a noun that follows the direct object and *renames* it. We call this an **object complement**. Read the definition of an object complement now.

→ *Student: An object complement follows the direct object and renames or describes it.*

Instructor: Look at the diagram that follows in your workbook.



Instructor: Notice that the object complement *leader* follows the object with a slanted line pointing back towards the object—just like a predicate nominative that renames the subject. The object complement *renames* the object. Now look at the diagrams of the next two sentences.



Instructor: What words follow and describe *camp* and *fence*?

→ *Student: Abandoned and white.*

Instructor: What part of speech are these two words?

→ *Student: They are adjectives.*

Instructor: These adjectives are also object complements. We don't diagram them down below the direct object because they are in the *predicative position*. Let me remind you: All the way back in Lesson 4, you learned a rule about hyphenated compound adjectives. Read the next rule in your workbook.

→ *Student: An adjective that comes right before the noun it modifies is in the attributive position.*

Instructor: Compound adjectives are hyphenated if they are in the attributive position. Read me the next rule.

→ *Student: An adjective that follows the noun is in the predicative position.*

Instructor: Compound adjectives in the predicative position are *not* hyphenated. Now you have another rule about the difference between adjectives in the attributive and predicative positions. Adjectives in the attributive position are diagrammed beneath the noun they modify. But when an adjective is in the predicative position after the object, it's diagrammed as an object complement.

Look at the last three examples in your workbook now. Notice that when we move an adjective modifying the direct object from the attributive to the predicative position, it changes the meaning of the sentence. In the first sentence, what color did your friend dye his hair?

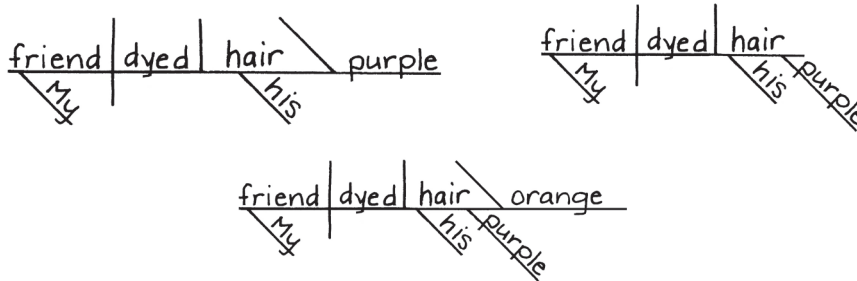
→ *Student: Purple.*

Instructor: In the second sentence, your friend already *had* purple hair—and *then* dyed it. We don't know what color until we add another object complement. In the third sentence, what color did your friend dye his purple hair?

→ *Student: Orange.*

Instructor: So we diagram object complements and attributive adjectives that modify the object differently because they have different meanings. Look carefully at the diagrams now.

My friend dyed his hair purple.
 My friend dyed his purple hair.
 My friend dyed his purple hair orange.



Instructor: When you understand how to diagram an object complement, finish the exercises in your workbook.



WEEK 11

More About Prepositions

— LESSON 41 —

Prepositions and Prepositional Phrases Adjective Phrases

Instructor: How many prepositions can you say in one minute without looking at your book?

Note to Instructor: Time the student as she lists prepositions and count how many of the 46 prepositions she can say in one minute. When she is finished, have her read through the entire list of prepositions (in workbook) for review.

Instructor: What is a preposition? You may look at your book if you cannot remember the definition.

→ *Student: A preposition shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another word in the sentence.*

Instructor: Prepositions are always found in phrases. Read the definition of a prepositional phrase.

→ *Student: A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun.*

Instructor: What is the noun or pronoun in the prepositional phrase called?

→ *Student: The object of the preposition.*

Instructor: Review the last definition in your book. What is a phrase?

→ *Student: A phrase is a group of words serving a single grammatical function.*

Instructor: In a verb phrase, all of the words in the group serve a single grammatical function because, all together, they act as a verb. Underline the verb phrase *could have been running* in the next sentence. There are four verbs in that phrase—but all together, they act like one single verb! Today, we're going to take a closer look at prepositional phrases.

You have a list of five song titles in your workbook. In each, circle the preposition and underline the prepositional phrase. The first is done for you.

Speed of Sound

Ring of Fire

Bridge Over Troubled Water

Time of Your Life

The Sound of Silence

Instructor: Each one of those prepositional phrases describes another word in the title. What kind of speed?

→ *Student: Speed of sound.*

Instructor: Which bridge?

→ *Student: The one over troubled water*

Instructor: What kind of sound?

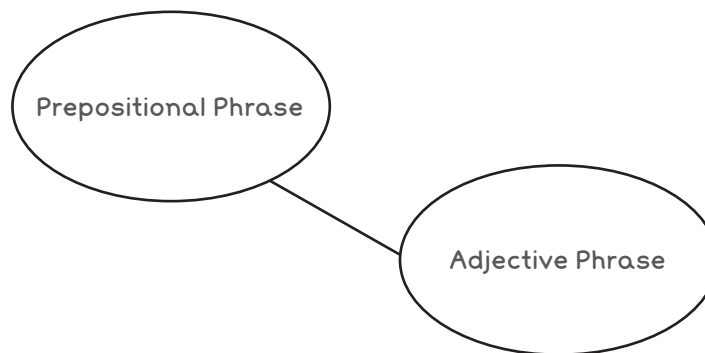
→ *Student: Sound of silence.*

Instructor: Do you remember what part of speech answers the questions, *Which one? What kind? How many? Whose?*

→ *Student: Adjective.*

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student if necessary.

Instructor: When prepositional phrases describe a noun or pronoun and answer those questions, they are behaving like adjectives. Groups of words that behave like adjectives are called *adjective phrases*. There are other kinds of adjective phrases that we'll learn about later, but this is the first. Write *prepositional phrase* in the empty circle on your diagram. We'll be adding other circles with other kinds of phrases to this diagram in later lessons.



Instructor: Read me the definition beneath the diagram.

→ *Student: **Prepositional phrases that act as adjectives are also called adjective phrases.***

Instructor: Prepositional phrases usually answer the questions *what kind, which one, and whose*. Listen to the sentence that I read and tell me the prepositional phrase that you hear: *The boy with the freckles was whistling.*

→ *Student: With the freckles.*

Instructor: What word does the phrase *with the freckles* describe?

→ *Student: Boy.*

Instructor: The phrase *with the freckles* tells us what kind of boy. Tell me the adjective phrase that you hear in this sentence: *The old man on the bench hummed a tune.*

→ *Student: On the bench.*

Instructor: What word does this phrase modify?

→ *Student: Man.*

Instructor: The phrase *on the bench* tells which man. Let's try one more. Tell me the adjective phrase that you hear in this sentence: *Arthur borrowed a book of mine.*

→ *Student: Of mine.*

Instructor: What word does this phrase modify?

→ *Student: Book.*

Instructor: The phrase *of mine* tells whose book. In each of these sentences, the adjective phrase came directly after the word it modified. Repeat after me: **Adjective phrases usually come directly after the words they modify.**

→ *Student: Adjective phrases usually come directly after the words they modify.*

Instructor: When you diagram an adjective phrase, you can see exactly what word it modifies. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: Caleb climbed a tree with thick branches.*

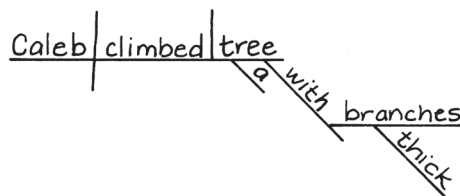
Instructor: What is the adjective phrase?

→ *Student: With thick branches.*

Instructor: What word does this phrase modify?

→ *Student: Tree.*

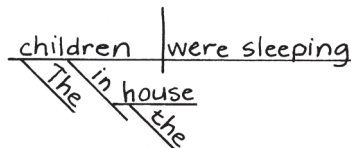
Instructor: In the diagram, you can see the phrase *with thick branches* diagrammed underneath the word it modifies. Follow along with your diagram as I read. The preposition goes on the diagonal line, and the object of the preposition goes on the horizontal line. Any adjectives modifying the object go on diagonal lines underneath the object, just like normal adjectives.



Instructor: Read the next sentence out loud.

→ *Student: The children in the house were sleeping.*

Instructor: Diagram this sentence on the diagram frame below.



Instructor: Now continue on to your exercises.

— LESSON 42 —

Adjective Phrases Adverb Phrases

Instructor: Don't look at your book until you answer the next three questions I will ask you. What do we call a prepositional phrase that acts as an adjective?

→ *Student: An adjective phrase.*

Instructor: Where does an adjective phrase usually come in a sentence?

→ *Student: Directly after the word it modifies.*

Instructor: Prepositional phrases can act like adjectives, but they can also act like adverbs. What do you think we call a prepositional phrase that acts like an adverb?

→ *Student: An **adverb phrase**.*

Instructor: Read the definition now.

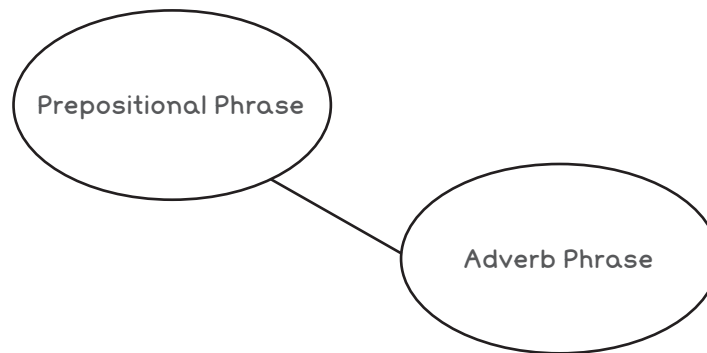
→ *Student: **Prepositional phrases that act as adverbs are also called adverb phrases.***

Instructor: Review the definition of an adverb by reading me the next two lines.

→ *Student: An adverb describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what extent.*

Instructor: When a prepositional phrase answers one of these questions, it is an adverb phrase.

Like adjective phrases, adverb phrases can also be made up of other groups of words—and you'll learn about those later. Right now, write *prepositional phrase* in the empty circle on your diagram.



Instructor: Look at the four song titles in your workbook. All of these titles contain prepositional phrases that are also adverb phrases. Circle each preposition and underline each prepositional phrase. The first is done for you.

Fly Me to the Moon

I Fall to Pieces

Wake Me at Sunset

Sitting on the Dock of the Bay

Instructor: All of these prepositional phrases except for one are adverb phrases. *Where* will you fly?

→ *Student: To the moon.*

Instructor: *How* will you fall?

→ *Student: To pieces.*

Instructor: *When* will you wake?

→ *Student: At sunset.*

Instructor: Which song title has two prepositional phrases?

→ *Student: Sitting on the Dock of the Bay.*

Instructor: Which dock?

→ *Student: The dock of the bay.*

Instructor: *Of the bay* is a prepositional phrase that modifies the noun *dock* and answers the question *which one*. *On the dock* is a prepositional phrase that modifies the noun *sitting* and answers the question *where*. Which phrase is an adverb phrase?

→ *Student: On the dock.*

Instructor: Adverb phrases often come right after the word they modify. But they can also occur elsewhere. Look at the next two sentences. Where does Cameron scuba-dive?

→ *Student: In Hawaii.*

Instructor: This adverb phrase modifies the verb and tells where Cameron scuba-dives. When does Cameron wake up?

→ *Student: At 6:00 a.m.*

Instructor: What word does this phrase modify?

→ *Student: Wakes.*

Instructor: This adverb phrase modifies the verb and tells us when Cameron wakes up. However, it comes at the beginning of the sentence, not directly after the verb. Unlike adjective phrases, which usually come directly after the word they modify, adverb phrases can be found anywhere in a sentence. Repeat after me: **Adverb phrases can be anywhere in a sentence.**

→ *Student: Adverb phrases can be anywhere in a sentence.*

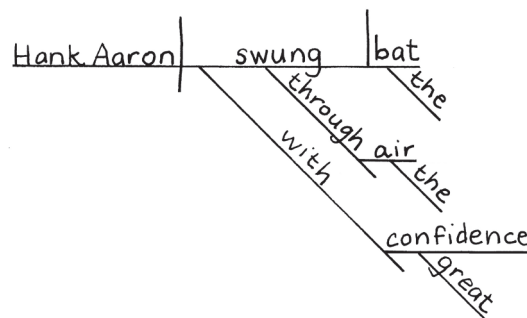
Instructor: Two adverb phrases can modify the same verb. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: With great confidence, Hank Aaron swung the bat through the air.*

Instructor: Underline the two prepositional phrases in the sentence. What are they?

→ *Student: With great confidence, through the air.*

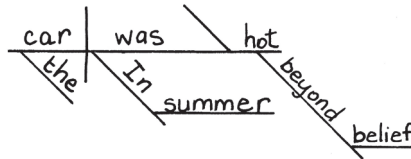
Instructor: Both of these phrases modify the verb. They tell how and where Hank Aaron swung the bat. Now look at the diagram of that sentence.



Instructor: Both prepositional phrases are diagrammed beneath the verb, because they both modify the verb. A prepositional phrase that modifies an adjective or an adverb would be diagrammed beneath that word. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: In summer, the car was hot beyond belief.*

Instructor: The prepositional phrase *in summer* answers the question *when*. Prepositional phrases that answer the question *when* are always adverb phrases. Diagram *in summer* on the lines beneath the verb. *Beyond belief* describes the predicate adjective *hot*. It tells *to what extent* the car was hot. A phrase that describes an adjective is an adverb phrase. Diagram *beyond belief* on the lines beneath the adjective.



Instructor: Finish your exercises now.

— LESSON 43 —

Definitions Review Adjective and Adverb Phrases Misplaced Modifiers

Instructor: Before we begin today's lesson, let's do a quick definition review. In your workbook, complete each definition. Then try to write as many prepositions as you can in the blanks. The first letter of each preposition has been provided for you.

An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.

Adjectives tell what kind, which one, how many, and whose.

A preposition shows the relationship of a noun or pronoun to another **word in the sentence.**

A prepositional phrase begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun.

That noun or pronoun is the **object of the preposition.**

A phrase is a group of words serving a single grammatical **function.**

Prepositional phrases that act as adjectives are also called **adjective phrases.**

Adjective phrases usually come directly after the words they modify.

An adverb describes a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Adverbs tell how, when, where, how often, and to what **extent.**

Prepositional phrases that act as adverbs **are also called adverb phrases.**

Prepositions

aboard, about, above, across

after, against, along, among, around, at

before, behind, below, beneath

beside, between, beyond, by

down, during, except, for, from

in, inside, into, like

near, of, off, on, over

past, since, through, throughout

to, toward, under, underneath

until, up, upon

with, within, without

Instructor: Read the next sentence out loud.

→ Student: *The cat scratched Brock's sister with the striped tail.*

Instructor: Something is wrong with this sentence. *With the striped tail* is an adjective phrase. Where do adjective phrases usually come?

→ Student: *Directly after the words they modify.*

Instructor: So, if you just go by the phrase's placement in the sentence, who has the striped tail?

→ Student: *Brock's sister.*

Instructor: Do you think that is what the sentence means?

→ Student: *No.*

Instructor: When an adjective phrase is put in the wrong place, we call it a **misplaced modifier**. Read that definition out loud.

→ Student: *A **misplaced modifier** is an adjective phrase in the wrong place.*

Instructor: Try rephrasing the sentence, placing the phrase *with the striped tail* directly after the noun it modifies.

→ Student: *The cat with the striped tail scratched Brock's sister.*

Instructor: That sentence is much better, and not nearly as confusing. Circle the phrase *with the striped tail* and draw a line from it to the space after *cat* to show where the adjective phrase should go.

The cat scratched Brock's sister with the striped tail.

Instructor: Now read me the next sentence.

→ Student: *The beautiful girl was dancing with the handsome man in the red dress.*

Instructor: Circle the misplaced adjective phrase and draw a line to the space after the noun it *should* modify.

The beautiful girl was dancing with the handsome man in the red dress.

Instructor: Here's an adjective phrase that's misplaced in a way that makes it sound like an adverb phrase. Read the next sentence out loud.

→ Student: *On the pizza, Molly ate the mushrooms.*

Instructor: That sounds as if the prepositional phrase *on the pizza* is answering the question *where*. If that were the case, Molly would be sitting on the pizza eating mushrooms. Circle the prepositional phrase. Where should it go?

→ Student: *After the noun mushrooms.*

Instructor: Draw a line to the space after *mushrooms*. This is not an adverb phrase answering the question *where*—instead, it is an adjective phrase telling us *which mushrooms* Molly ate. You know it is an adjective phrase because it modifies the noun *mushrooms*. Adverbs can't modify nouns! They can only modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

On the pizza, Molly ate the mushrooms.

Instructor: Adverb phrases can also be misplaced—just like single adverbs. Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: I cut my finger while I was cooking badly.*

Instructor: Bad cooks do sometimes cut their fingers, but I think this sentence means that the *finger* was badly cut. Circle the adverb *badly* and draw a line to the space after the direct object *finger*.

I cut my finger while I was cooking badly

Instructor: Read the sentence again.

→ *Student: I cut my finger badly while I was cooking.*

Instructor: Like misplacing an adverb, misplacing an adverb phrase can change the meaning of a sentence. Read the next sentence.

→ *Student: I saw that the toast was burned with a glance.*

Instructor: It sounds as though you burned the toast with a glance—like Superman’s heat vision. Where should *with a glance* go?

→ *Student: After the verb saw.*

Instructor: Circle the phrase *with a glance* and draw a line to the space right after the verb.

I saw that the toast was burned with a glance

Instructor: Remember, an adverb *doesn’t have to* go right after the verb it modifies, but if you put it somewhere else you still need to make sure that the meaning of the sentence is clear. Read me the final sentence.

→ *Student: I spotted the dog chewing on the sofa leg from the stairs.*

Instructor: Who is on the stairs? It’s not completely clear, is it? Circle the adverb phrase *from the stairs* and draw a line to the space before the pronoun *I*.

I spotted the dog chewing on the sofa leg from the stairs

Instructor: Now reread the sentence.

→ *Student: From the stairs, I spotted the dog chewing on the sofa leg.*

Instructor: Now it’s perfectly clear that *you* were on the stairs, not the dog. Continue your practice by finishing the exercises now.

— LESSON 44 —

Adjective and Adverb Phrases

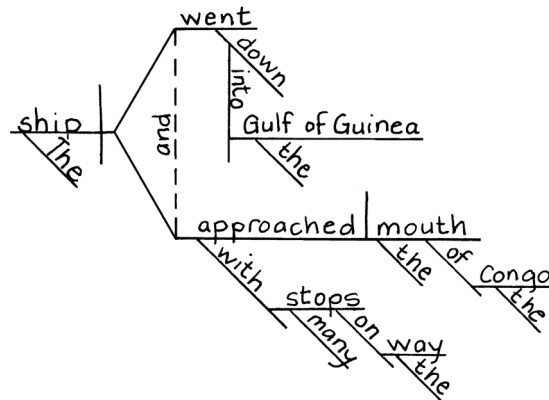
Prepositional Phrases Acting as Other Parts of Speech

Instructor: The English language loves prepositional phrases *so* much that it uses them as stand-ins for other parts of speech. We’ve already seen how they can act as adjectives and adverbs. Read me the first sentence in your workbook.

→ *Student: The ship went down into the Gulf of Guinea and, with many stops on the way, approached the mouth of the Congo.*

Instructor: Diagram this sentence onto the frame provided. If you need help, ask me.

Note to Instructor: The following dialogue should be carried on with the student after the sentence is diagrammed. However, if the student is confused by any part of the sentence, go ahead and use the relevant part of the dialogue for explanation.



Instructor: This sentence has one subject (ship) and compound verbs. The ship did two things. It went and it approached. Let's talk about *went* first. The ship went down. What part of speech is *down*?

→ Student: An adverb.

Instructor: The prepositional phrase *into the Gulf of Guinea* modifies the adverb *down*. It tells you more about the direction *down*. What part of speech modifies an adverb?

→ Student: Another adverb.

Instructor: So this is an example of an adverb phrase modifying another adverb. Now look at the action verb *approached* and its direct object, *mouth*. What kind of mouth did the ship approach?

→ Student: The mouth of the Congo.

Instructor: This is an adjective phrase, modifying the noun *mouth*. Did the ship approach the mouth of the Congo directly and quickly?

→ Student: No.

Instructor: Instead, the ship approached it *with many stops*. This is an adverb phrase answering the question, *How did the ship approach?* So it is diagrammed beneath the verb it modifies. Where were all those stops?

→ Student: On the way.

Instructor: This phrase tells you more about the stops. They weren't in Europe, or in North America—they were *on the way*. Because this phrase modifies the noun *stops*, it is acting as an adjective.

This sentence has two prepositional phrases that act like adverbs, and two that act like adjectives. But that's not all prepositional phrases can do. They can also pretend to be nouns. Read me the next two sentences in your workbook.

→ Student: *A swamp is not a safe place. Under the bridge is not a safe place.*

Instructor: Both of these sentences have the same verb: *is*. Underline that verb twice. What is the subject of the first sentence?

→ Student: *Swamp*.

Instructor: What is a swamp *not*?

→ Student: A safe place.

Instructor: In this sentence, the state-of-being verb *is* links the subject, *swamp*, to a noun in the predicate that renames the subject, *place*. What do we call a noun that renames the subject and is found in the complete predicate?

→ Student: A predicate nominative.

Instructor: Underline *swamp* once. Label the noun *place* with the letters *PN* for predicate nominative. Draw an arrow from *place* back to *swamp*.

A swamp is not a safe place. ^{PN}

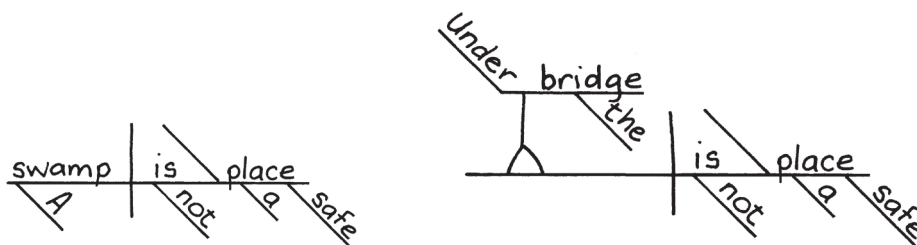
Instructor: Now look at the second sentence. It has the same predicate nominative. Label it with *PN*. But this time, *place* doesn't rename a single subject. It renames the prepositional phrase *under the bridge*. Circle *under the bridge*. Then, draw an arrow from *place* back to the circled phrase.

(Under the bridge) is not a safe place. ^{PN}

Instructor: What is not a safe place?

→ Student: Under the bridge.

Instructor: The prepositional phrase *under the bridge* is the subject of the sentence. It is acting just like a noun. Now look at the two diagrams in your workbook.

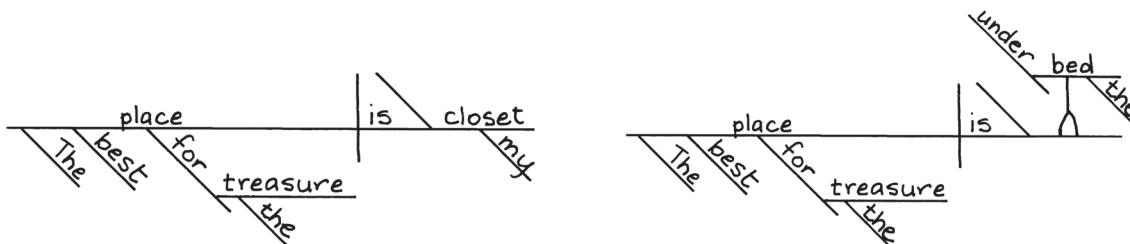


Instructor: First of all, what part of speech is *not*?

→ Student: An adverb.

Instructor: *Not* is always an adverb, so it is diagrammed beneath the verb. Now look at the two subjects. *Swamp* and *under the bridge* both occupy the subject place on the diagram. But in order to show that *under the bridge* is actually a prepositional phrase *pretending* to be a noun, we put a little two-legged tree in the subject space and place the prepositional phrase on top of it.

A prepositional phrase can be the subject of a sentence—but it can also be the predicate nominative. Read the next two sentences and look at the diagrams.



Instructor: In each sentence, *place* is the subject. *Is* is the verb. What is the predicate nominative that renames *place* in the first sentence?

→ Student: *Closet*.

Instructor: What is the prepositional phrase acting as a predicate nominative that renames *place* in the second sentence?

→ Student: *Under the bed*.

Instructor: So far, we've seen prepositional phrases acting as subjects and prepositional phrases acting as predicate nominatives. Here's one more way a prepositional phrase can pretend to be a noun: It can actually serve as the object of a preposition! Read the next two sentences now.

→ Student: *He stepped from the dark. He stepped from behind the tree.*

Instructor: In the first sentence, underline the prepositional phrase *from the dark*. This is an adverb phrase. It modifies the verb *stepped* and answers the question *Where?*

In the second sentence, circle the prepositional phrase *behind the tree*. Then, underline the entire phrase *from behind the tree*.

He stepped from the dark.

He stepped from behind the tree

Instructor: What preposition does the phrase "from behind the tree" begin with?

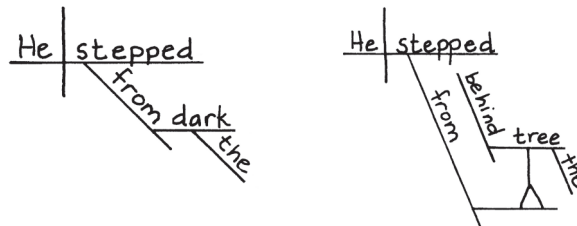
→ Student: *From*.

Instructor: He stepped from where?

→ Student: *From behind the tree*.

Instructor: The prepositional phrase *behind the tree* is the object of the preposition *from*. It's like a prepositional phrase within a prepositional phrase!

Examine the two diagrams.



Instructor: Notice how *behind the tree* is diagrammed on a little two-legged tree that sits in the object of the preposition space.

What three parts of speech have we just seen prepositional phrases acting as?

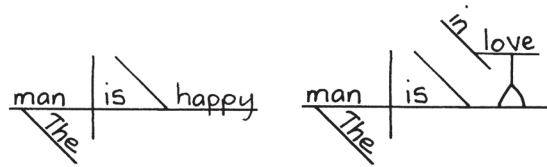
→ Student: *Subject, predicate nominative, object of the preposition*.

Instructor: Let's add one more: predicate adjective. Predicate nominatives rename the subject. What do predicate adjectives do?

→ Student: *Describe the subject*.

Instructor: Read the last two sentences in your workbook and look at the diagrams below them.

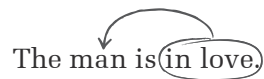
→ *Student: The man is happy. The man is in love.*



Instructor: What is the predicate adjective that describes *man* in the first sentence?

→ *Student: Happy.*

Instructor: In the second sentence, circle the prepositional phrase *in love*. Draw an arrow from the phrase back to the subject *man*.



Instructor: What is the man?

→ *Student: In love.*

Instructor: The prepositional phrase follows the linking verb and describes the subject, so it is acting as a predicate adjective.

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.



WEEK 12

Advanced Verbs

— LESSON 45 —

Linking Verbs Linking/Action Verbs

Note to Instructor: You will need a wrapped piece of candy for this lesson.

Instructor: Can you tell me the five senses?

Note to Instructor: The student may give the five senses as nouns, verbs, or a combination. Give necessary help by gesturing to prompt the student if necessary.

→ *Student: Taste, touch, smell, sound, sight.*

Instructor: Let's describe this piece of candy with our five senses. Answer in complete sentences—and try to use only one descriptive word in each sentence. How does it look? Finish this sentence: "It looks . . ."

→ *Student: It looks [Answers may vary: colorful].*

Instructor: (Rustle wrapping) How does it sound?

→ *Student: It sounds [Answers may vary: crackly].*

Instructor: (Give candy to student) How does it feel?

→ *Student: It feels [Answers may vary: hard].*

Instructor: Unwrap the candy and sniff it. How does it smell?

→ *Student: It smells [Answers may vary: sweet].*

Instructor: Now you can eat the candy! How does it taste?

→ *Student: It tastes [Answers may vary: delicious].*

Instructor: You described this candy for me using your five senses. You told me that the candy tastes [delicious]. In this sentence, does the word [delicious] describe the candy?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: [Delicious] is a predicate adjective in this sentence. *Tastes* is the linking verb. So far, you have only studied state-of-being verbs that act like linking verbs. What are those state-of-being verbs? Look at your book if you can't remember.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been.*

Instructor: The verbs *taste*, *feel*, *smell*, *sound*, and *look* can act like linking verbs. But you have to be careful when you see these verbs in a sentence—because they can also act like action verbs. Take a bite out of your piece of candy now. Did you taste it?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Did it taste delicious?

→ *Student: Yes.*

Instructor: Look at the next two sentences. In the first sentence, the verb *taste* is an action verb. What did you taste?

→ *Student: The candy.*

Instructor: You performed an action—tasting—and the candy received that action, so the candy is the direct object. Write *AV* above *tasted* and *DO* above *candy*.

AV DO
I tasted the candy.

Instructor: In the second sentence, delicious *describes* candy. It is a predicate adjective linked to the subject by the linking verb *tasted*. When you see the verbs *taste*, *feel*, *smell*, *sound*, and *look*, you can decide whether they are action verbs or linking verbs by examining the word that comes after the verb. If that word describes or renames the subject, the verb is *linking*. If that word is *affected* by the verb, the verb is an *action* verb. Write *LV* above *tasted* and *PA* above *delicious*.

LV PA
The candy tasted delicious.

Instructor: Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: The fried chicken tasted crispy.*

Instructor: What word comes after the verb?

→ *Student: Crispy.*

Instructor: Does *crispy* describe or rename fried chicken?

→ *Student: Describe.*

Instructor: Is it a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective?

→ *Student: Predicate adjective.*

Instructor: In this sentence, *tasted* is a linking verb. Write *LV* above *tasted* and *PA* above *crispy*.

LV PA
The fried chicken tasted crispy.

Instructor: Read me the next sentence.

→ *Student: The chicken tasted the birdseed.*

Instructor: Does *birdseed* describe or rename chicken?

→ *Student: No.*

Instructor: *Birdseed* is affected by the verb *tasted*. It is the direct object, so in this sentence, *tasted* is an action verb. Write *AV* above *tasted* and *DO* above *birdseed*.

AV DO
The chicken tasted the birdseed.

Instructor: If you're not sure whether a verb is action or linking, try substituting *am* or *is* for the verb. If the verb is linking, *am* or *is* will make sense. If it's an action verb, the sentence will sound ridiculous. *The fried chicken is crispy* makes sense, because *tasted* is a linking verb. *The chicken is the birdseed* doesn't—because in that sentence, *tasted* is an action verb. Read me the next two sentences, substituting *is* for the verb *felt* in both.

→ Student: *Thomas is the baby chick. Thomas is sad.*

Instructor: Which sentence makes sense?

→ Student: *The second.*

Instructor: That's because *felt* is a linking verb that connects Thomas with the predicate adjective *sad* in the second sentence. In the first sentence, *felt* is an action verb with a direct object. Now read the complete list of additional linking verbs.

→ Student: *Taste, feel, smell, sound, look, prove, grow, remain, appear, stay, become, seem.*

Instructor: In many cases, these can be either linking or action verbs. Read the first two sentences in the column that says *action* and then the first two in the column that says *linking*.

→ Student: *He proved the theory. The farmer grew wheat. He proved unreliable. The farmer grew tired.*

Instructor: *Theory* and *wheat* are direct objects of the action verbs *proved* and *grew*. *Unreliable* and *tired* are predicate adjectives that describe *he* and *farmer*. Read the next three sentences in the *action* column.

→ Student: *The dog remained on the porch. The cloud appeared in the sky. We stayed home.*

Instructor: All three of those sentences contain action verbs, but none of the verbs have a direct object. You know they are action verbs, though, because there's no predicate adjective or predicate nominative. A linking verb always has to have a predicate adjective or nominative following it. Otherwise, it's not *linking* anything! Read the three sentences under the *linking* column now.

→ Student: *The dog remained wary. The cloud appeared threatening. We stayed happy with our home.*

Instructor: *Wary*, *threatening*, and *happy* are all predicate adjectives that describe *dog*, *cloud*, and *we*. Now read me the last two sentences.

→ Student: *The student became confused. The grammar seemed difficult.*

Instructor: *Become* and *seem* are always linking verbs.

Complete your exercises now.

— LESSON 46 —

Conjugations Irregular Verbs Principal Parts of Verbs

Instructor: Before we start today's lesson, take a few minutes to review the tenses you've already learned. Read me the three definitions in your book.

→ *Student: Verbs in the simple past, simple present, and simple future describe actions that simply happen. Verbs in the progressive past, progressive present, and progressive future describe actions that go on for a while. Verbs in the perfect past, perfect present, and perfect future describe actions which have been completed before another action takes place.*

Instructor: Complete the first exercise in your workbook before we go on.

Instructor: The verb in your exercise is a regular verb. It follows the same rules as many other verbs. You form the simple past by adding *-d* or *-ed*, the perfect present by adding the helping verb *have*, the progressive tenses by dropping the final *e* and adding *-ing* along with helping verbs, and so on.

You've already learned that some verbs are irregular. Read me the simple past, present, and future forms of the irregular verbs in your workbook.

Simple Present	Simple Past	Simple Future
build	built	will build
buy	bought	will buy
choose	chose	will choose
sell	sold	will sell

Instructor: If *build* were a regular verb, the simple past would be *builded*. *Bought* would be *buyed*, *chose* would be *choosed*, and *sold* would be *selled*. But irregular verbs don't follow the rules when they form past, present, and future.

English has a lot of irregular words, because it has borrowed a lot of words from other languages! In your next exercise, you'll see a list of borrowed English words. Finish Exercise 46B now.

Instructor: Some English verbs are irregular because they follow patterns from other languages. Others are irregular because they've been used so often that their forms have been shortened and made easier to say. If you're going to write and speak properly, you need to know which verbs are irregular. The best way to remember irregular verbs is to understand their **principal parts**.

Every English verb has three principal parts—three forms that will tell you everything you need to know about how the verb is conjugated. Repeat after me: **English verbs have three principal parts.**

→ *Student: English verbs have three principal parts.*

Instructor: The first principal part is the simple present—the same form you would use if you matched the simple present of the verb to the pronoun *I*. Read the example of the first principal part.

→ *Student: Conjugate.*

Instructor: The second principal part is the simple past. Read the example of the second principal part.

→ *Student: Conjugated.*

Instructor: What letter is added to the verb *conjugate* to form the second principal part?

→ *Student: The letter -d.*

Instructor: The verb *conjugate* is a regular verb, because it follows the rule for forming the past tense. The third principal part of a verb is found when you drop the helping verb from the perfect past. What is the third principal part of the verb *conjugate*?

→ *Student: Conjugated.*

Instructor: The second and third principal parts of a regular verb are usually the same. But irregular verbs often have different second and third principal parts. The verb *eat* is irregular. What is the past tense of the verb *to eat*?

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student as needed by saying, “Today I eat. Yesterday I . . .”

→ *Student: Ate.*

Instructor: The third principal part of *to eat* is different. Can you guess what it is? I have . . .

→ *Student: Eaten.*

Instructor: Write those three forms in the blanks in your workbook.

English verbs have three principal parts.

First principal part: The simple present (present)

(I) *conjugate* (I) *eat*

Second principal part: The simple past (past)

(I) *conjugated* (I) *ate*

Third principal part: The perfect past, minus helping verbs (past participle)

(I *have*) *conjugated* (I *have*) *eaten*

The three principal parts are called the present, the past, and the past participle. You can remember this by telling yourself that the third principal part is only *part* of the perfect past. That makes it the past *participle*.

Today, you will only use regular verbs so that you can become comfortable with principal parts. Tomorrow, you will learn more about irregular verbs.

Complete the final exercises now.

— LESSON 47 —

Linking Verbs Principal Parts Irregular Verbs

Instructor: Read me the entire list of linking verbs.

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, taste, feel, smell, sound, look, prove, grow, remain, appear, stay, become, seem.*

Instructor: Underline the verbs that can also be used as action verbs.

Linking Verbs

am, is, are, was, were

be, being, been

taste, feel, smell, sound, look

prove, grow,

remain, appear, stay

become, seem

Instructor: Look at the three principal parts of *taste*, *become*, and *feel*. *Taste* is a regular verb. It forms the past and past participle by adding *-d*. But *become* and *feel* are irregular. The past is formed by changing the spelling of the word. And both of them form the past participle in a different way. The past participle of *become* is the same as the present. What is the past participle of *feel* the same as?

→ *Student: The past.*

Instructor: These irregular verbs have different patterns. There are hundreds of irregular verbs in English—but many of them follow similar patterns. For example, I can say in the present tense, Today I sleep, and in the past tense, Yesterday I slept. Likewise, I can say in the present tense, Today I sweep. What is the past-tense sentence?

→ *Student: Yesterday I swept.*

Instructor: You have already picked up the pattern. In the present tense, I can say, Today I sink, and in the past tense, Yesterday I sank. Likewise, I can say in the present tense, Today I drink. What is the past-tense sentence?

→ *Student: Yesterday I drank.*

Instructor: Even though these verbs are irregular, meaning that they do not use *-d* or *-ed* to form their past tenses, they still follow a pattern: *sleep—slept*, *sweep—swept* and *sink—sank*, *drink—drank*. There is a chart of common irregular verbs in your workbook. Let's practice it together. I will read the basic verb, and you read the irregular past tense and past participle. Say the word *have* before the past participle, to remind yourself when you use that form. For example, I will say, *Awake*, and then you will say, *Awoke*, *have awoken*.

The first verb, *beat*, usually doesn't change form—but some writers prefer to use the second version. Read me both.

Note to Instructor: Prompt the student if necessary by reading the next line of dialogue to him.

→ *Student: Beat, have beat or beat, have beaten.*

Instructor: Burst.

→ *Student: Burst, have burst.*

Note to Instructor: Continue on through the charts in the same pattern.

COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS

Present Past Past Participle

SAME PRESENT, PAST & PAST PARTICIPLE:

beat	beat	beat	(OR	beat	beat	beaten)
burst	burst	burst				
cost	cost	cost				
cut	cut	cut				
fit	fit	fit				
let	let	let				
put	put	put				
quit	quit	quit				
hit	hit	hit				
hurt	hurt	hurt				
set	set	set				
shut	shut	shut				

SAME PAST & PAST PARTICIPLE:

bend	bent	bent
send	sent	sent
lend	lent	lent

bleed	bled	bled
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
keep	kept	kept
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
meet	met	met
read	read	read
sleep	slept	slept

bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
fight	fought	fought
seek	sought	sought
teach	taught	taught
think	thought	thought

lay	laid	laid
pay	paid	paid
say	said	said

sell	sold	sold
tell	told	told

lose	lost	lost
shoot	shot	shot

find	found	found
wind	wound	wound

dig	dug	dug
sit	sat	sat
win	won	won

stand	stood	stood
understand	understood	understood

hear	heard	heard
------	-------	-------

make	made	made
------	------	------

build	built	built
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DIFFERENT PAST AND PAST PARTICIPLE:

awake	awoke	awoken
bite	bit	bitten
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
forget	forgot	forgotten
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten
give	gave	given
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
hide	hid	hidden
rise	rose	risen
shake	shook	shaken
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
take	took	taken
write	wrote	written
ride	rode	ridden
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
come	came	come
run	ran	run
drink	drank	drunk
shrink	shrank	shrunk
ring	rang	rung
sing	sang	sung
swim	swam	swum
draw	drew	drawn
fly	flew	flown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
tear	tore	torn
wear	wore	worn
do	did	done
go	went	gone
lie	lay	lain
see	saw	seen

Instructor: That's enough for one day! No more exercises until tomorrow.

— LESSON 48 —

Linking Verbs Principal Parts Irregular Verbs

Instructor: Today, you'll complete exercises in using irregular verbs. Before you do that, let's review a few things you learned this week. Try to answer without looking at your workbook (but the lists and rules are there, if you need them). What are the linking verbs?

→ *Student: Am, is, are, was, were; be, being, been; taste, feel, smell, sound, look; prove, grow; remain, appear, stay; become, seem.*

Instructor: What do verbs in the simple past, simple present, and simple future describe?

→ *Student: Actions that simply happen.*

Instructor: What do verbs in the progressive past, progressive present, and progressive future describe?

→ *Student: Actions that go on for a while.*

Instructor: What do verbs in the perfect past, perfect present, and perfect future describe?

→ *Student: Actions which have been completed before another action takes place.*

Instructor: What are the three principal parts of a verb named?

→ *Student: Present, past, past participle.*

Instructor: What are the principal parts of the regular verb *juggle*?

Note to Instructor: If necessary, remind the student to use the forms for I [simple present], I [simple past], I [perfect past minus helping verb].”

→ *Student: Juggle, juggled, juggled.*

Instructor: What are the principal parts of the irregular verb *rise*?

→ *Student: Rise, rose, risen.*

Instructor: Complete the exercises now.

— REVIEW 4 —

The review exercises and answers are found in the Student Workbook and accompanying Key.

