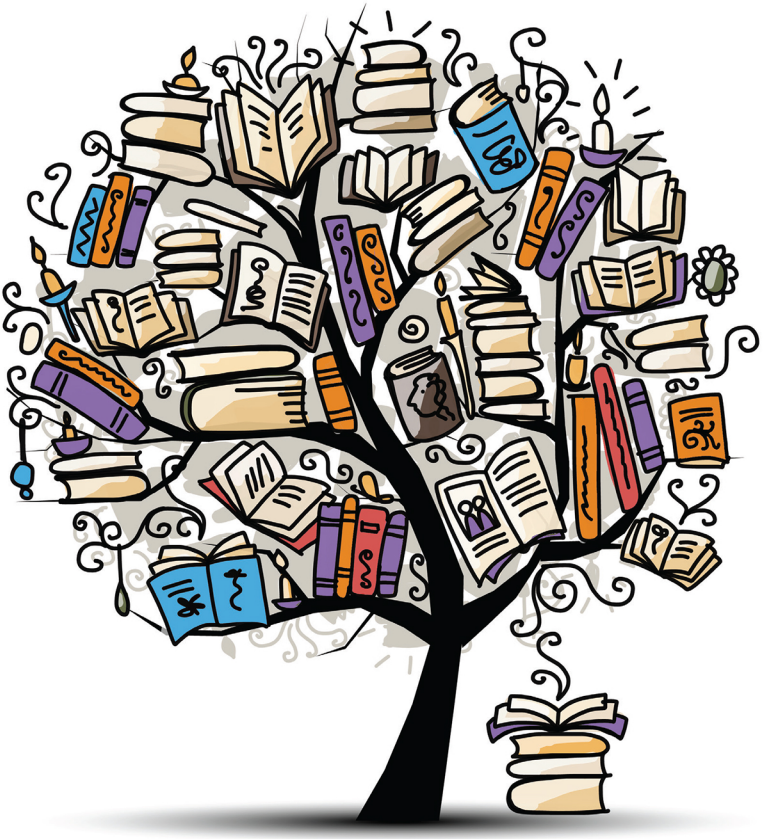
WELL-TRAINED MIND™
TOP RECOMMENDATION

GRAMMAR

FOR THE WELL-TRAINED MIND



CORE INSTRUCTOR TEXT

Years 1-4

Susan Wise Bauer
and Audrey Anderson,
with Diagrams by Patty Rebne

GRAMMAR FOR THE WELL-TRAINED MIND: CORE INSTRUCTOR TEXT, YEARS 1–4

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
(W.W. Norton, 2015)

The Well-Educated Mind:
A Guide to the Classical Education You Never Had
updated & expanded ed. (W.W. Norton, 2015)

The Story of the World: History for the Classical Child
(Well-Trained Mind Press)
Volume I: Ancient Times, rev. ed. (2006)
Volume II: The Middle Ages, rev. ed. (2007)
Volume III: Early Modern Times (2003)
Volume IV: The Modern Age (2004)

The History of the World Series
(W.W. Norton)
The History of the Ancient World (2007)
The History of the Medieval World (2010)
The History of the Renaissance World (2013)

WITH JESSIE WISE
The Well-Trained Mind: A Guide to Classical Education at Home, 4th ed.
(W.W. Norton, 2016)

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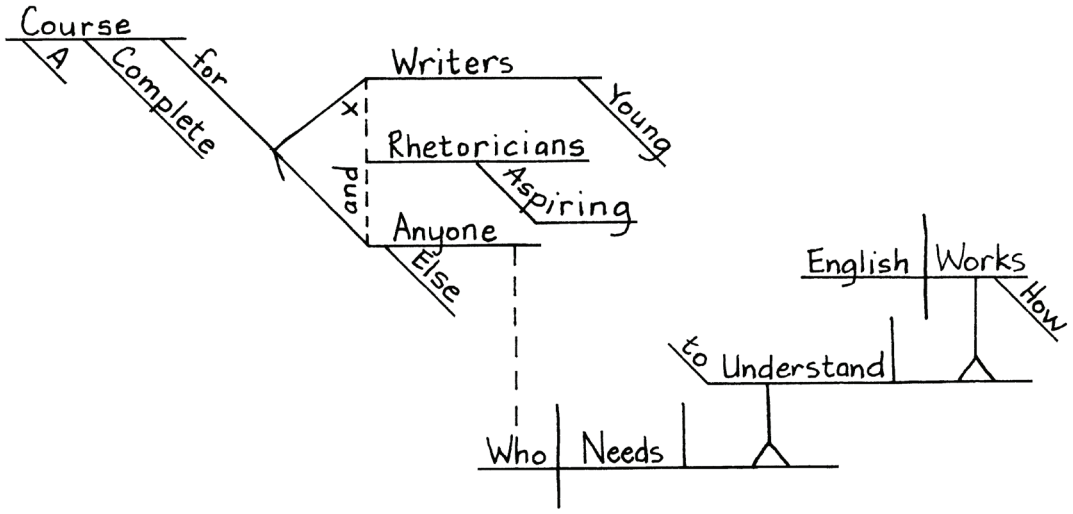
YEARS 1–4



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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

Grammar for the Well-Trained Mind is a four-year program. Students who finish all four years will have a thorough grasp of the English language. No further grammar studies will be necessary.

The nonconsumable *Core Instructor Text* is used for each of the four years of the program. 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 one full year of exercises and assignments. Each corresponding key gives complete, thoroughly explained answers. The student should aim to complete one workbook during each of the four years of study.

All rules and definitions, with accompanying examples, have been assembled into a handy reference book, the *Comprehensive Handbook of Rules.* 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.

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 a Key providing 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 the *Student Workbook 1/ Key to Student Workbook 1* set. Keep the *Comprehensive Handbook of Rules* 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.

Some students may need more than one year to complete *Student Workbook 1;* the exercises increase in complexity and difficulty from Week 20 on. That's absolutely fine. Feel free to take as much time as necessary to finish this workbook.

When *Student Workbook 1* is completed, go back to the beginning of the *Core Handbook* and start over, this time using the *Student Workbook 2/Key to Student Workbook 2* 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 *Student Workbook 3* and then *Student Workbook 4*, along with their 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.

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 *Student Workbook 1* with your student or class, you may bring a new student in with *Student Workbook 2* the following year. The workbooks cover the same essential material. Occasional exercises in the third and fourth workbooks may have more ambiguity or challenge than the corresponding weeks in the first and second workbooks, but this should not present a major challenge; a student could also begin with *Student Workbook 3* or *4.*

It is *highly* recommended, however, that students who complete the later workbooks first go back and finish the earlier workbooks as well. The program is designed to take four years, no matter where the student begins.

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	*Little Women*
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	*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*
magazine	*National Geographic*

newspaper	*The Chicago Tribune*
movie	*A River Runs Through It*
television series	*The Waltons*
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	*Titanic*
train	*The Orient Express*
plane	*The Spirit of St. Louis*

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 Combination)

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 Ajd out loud!

Student:

N	*Adj*
sky	*high*
Adj	*N*
thirty	*minute*
N	*Adj*
user	*friendly*
Adj	*N*
high	*speed*

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 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 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.

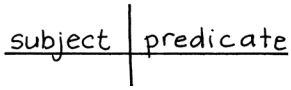
Instructor: You've marked the subject and predicate by underlining them, but there's a better way to show how the parts of a sentence work together. When you diagram a sentence, you draw a picture of the logical relationships between the different parts of a sentence. The first step in diagramming any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

ski<u>p</u>–skipping
dr<u>um</u>–drumming

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

sm<u>ile</u>–smiling
tr<u>ade</u>–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.

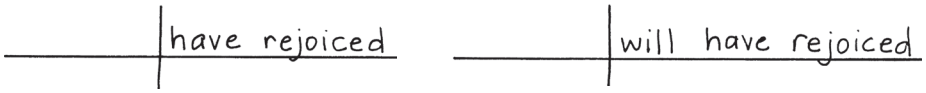
Student: ***A phrase is a group of words serving a single grammatical function.***

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-ju-gar-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.

Regular Verb, Simple Present

Together: 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

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 (Lesson 6, p. xx) and helping verbs (Lesson 7, p. xx).

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; s*hall* 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.*

Together: He, she, it grabs	*They grab*
The man grabs	*The men grab*
The woman grabs	*The women grab*
The eagle grabs	*The eagles grab*

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 "handsful," 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 *growns-up* and circle *grown-ups.*

grown-up ~~growns-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.