

WEEK 1

Introduction to Nouns and Adjectives

— LESSON 1 —

Introduction to Nouns Concrete and Abstract Nouns

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

Student: [Names things in room.]

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

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

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

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

Student: Yes.

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

Student: Yes.

Instructor: Can you see a supermarket?

Student: Yes.

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

Student: Yes.

Instructor: Is *poem* a concrete noun?

Student: Yes.

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

Student: Yes.

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

Student: No.

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

Student: Yes.

Instructor: Is *liberty* an abstract noun?

Student: Yes.

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

Student: Concrete nouns can be observed with our senses.

Instructor: Abstract nouns cannot.

Student: Abstract nouns cannot.

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

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

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

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

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

— LESSON 2 —

Introduction to Adjectives

Descriptive Adjectives, Abstract Nouns

Formation of Abstract Nouns from Descriptive Adjectives

Instructor: What is a noun?

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

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

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

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

Student: Concrete.

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

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

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

Student: An adjective modifies a noun or pronoun.

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

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

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

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

Student: I am a [boy or girl].

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

Student: I am [hungry or full].

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

Student: I am [quiet or loud].

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

Student: I am [cheerful or grumpy].

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

Student: Descriptive adjectives tell what kind.

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

Student: Fullness.

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

Student: Grumpiness.

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

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

Instructor: . . . the *y* changes to *i*.

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

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

Student: *I don’t like [color].*

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

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

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

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

— LESSON 3 —

Common and Proper Nouns Capitalization and Punctuation of Proper Nouns

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

Student: *[Names book.]*

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

Student: *[First, last name.]*

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

Student: *[Names store.]*

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

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

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

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

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

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

Student: 2. Capitalize the names of holidays.

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

Memorial Day
 Christmas
 Independence Day
 Day of the Dead

Student: 3. Capitalize the names of deities.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

book	<i>Alice’s Adventures in Wonderland</i>
magazine	<i>National Geographic</i>

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

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

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

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

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

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

Student: Of.

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

— LESSON 4 —

Proper Adjectives

Compound Adjectives (Adjective-Noun 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 Adj 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, Tinkerbelle, 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 *they*? What kind of letter is *I*?"

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

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

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

Student: *Are and am.*

Instructor: What kinds of verbs are these?

Student: *State-of-being verbs.*

Instructor: What part of speech is *hungry*?

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

Student: *An adjective.*

Instructor: Read the next sentence for me.

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

Instructor: What are the two verbs in that sentence?

Student: *Rose and experienced.*

Instructor: What kinds of verbs are those?

Student: *Action verbs.*

Instructor: What are the three nouns in the sentence?

Student: *Plane, air, loneliness.*

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

Student: Loneliness.

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

Student: Concrete nouns.

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

Student: An adjective OR A compound adjective.

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

Instructor: Why is *German* capitalized?

Student: It is a proper adjective.

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

Student: Attributive.

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

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.



WEEK 3

Introduction to the Sentence

— LESSON 9 —

The Sentence

Parts of Speech and Parts of Sentences Subjects and Predicates

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

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

Instructor: Today’s lesson.

Instructor: For a little while.

Instructor: If raining.

Instructor: Caught a ball.

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

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

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

Student: Noun.

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

Student: It is a verb.

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

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

Instructor: Who or what is the first sentence about?

Student: The cat.

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

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

Instructor: Now read me the third definition.

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

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

Student: *Tyrannosaurus rex.*

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

Student: *A noun.*

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

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

Student: *Verb.*

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

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

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

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

Student: *Crashes.*

Instructor: Write *predicate* on the *part of the sentence* line beneath *crashes*. Now let’s review.

What is a part of speech? You may look back at your book for the answer.

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

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

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

Instructor: What is a part of the sentence?

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

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

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

Instructor: What is a predicate?

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

part of speech

noun

verb

The Tyrannosaurus rex crashes through the trees.

part of the sentence

subject

predicate

Instructor: Complete the Lesson 9 exercises now.

— LESSON 10 —

Subjects and Predicates

Diagramming Subjects and Predicates

Sentence Capitalization and Punctuation

Sentence Fragments

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

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

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

Student: He does. They can. It is.

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

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

Instructor: Read me the definition of a predicate.

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

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

Student: Hurricanes.

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

Student: Form.

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

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

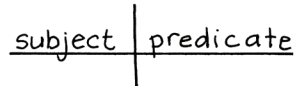
Instructor: You've marked the subject and predicate by underlining them, but there's a better way to show how the parts of a sentence work together. When you diagram a sentence, you draw a picture of the logical relationships between the different parts of a sentence. The first step in diagramming any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

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

Student: The subject.

Instructor: When you diagram a simple sentence like this one, you begin by drawing a straight horizontal line and dividing it in half with a vertical line. Make sure that the vertical line goes

straight through the horizontal line. Write the subject on the left side of the vertical line and the predicate on the right side. Before we go on, write *subject* on the left side of the blank diagram in your book and *predicate* on the right side.



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

Student: A capital letter.

Instructor: What is at the end of each sentence?

Student: A period.

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

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

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

Student: No running in the kitchen.

Instructor: Do you understand that sentence?

Student: Yes.

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

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

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

Student: Because he couldn’t go. Since I thought so.

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

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

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

Student: Usually.

Instructor: What line did we add?

Student: A sentence contains a complete thought.

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

— LESSON 11 —

Types of Sentences

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

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

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

Student: A purple penguin is playing ping-pong.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Student: Statements are declarative sentences.

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

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

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

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

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

Student: Exclamations are exclamatory sentences.

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

Student: What fun this grammar lesson is!

Instructor: Read the definition of the third sentence type.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Student [Stands up.]

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

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

Student: [Sits down.]

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

Student: Commands are imperative sentences.

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

Student: The subject.

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

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

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

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

Student: No.

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

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

Instructor: Ask me a question about my shoes.

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

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

Student: Questions are known as interrogative sentences.

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

Student: He is late. Is he late?

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

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

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

— LESSON 12 —

Subjects and Predicates Helping Verbs

Simple and Complete Subjects and Predicates

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

Student: . . . had a little lamb.

Instructor: Its fleece . . .

Student: . . . was white as snow.

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

Student: . . . was sure to go.

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

Student: Had [a little lamb].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Complete the exercises in your workbook now.

— REVIEW 1 —

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

