

Classical Subjects *Creatively Taught*™

Well- Ordered Language

Level 3B

The Curious Student's Guide to Grammar

Tammy Peters and Daniel Coupland, PhD





Well-Ordered Language:
The Curious Student's Guide to Grammar
Level 3B
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Book A

Chapter	Main Topic	Supplemental Topics
1	Four Kinds of Sentences, Principal Elements, Adjectives & Adverbs	Six tenses of verbs (<i>present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect</i>); subject-verb agreement with helping verbs; end marks within quotation marks
2	Predicate Verbs, Predicate Nominatives & Predicate Adjectives	Collective, concrete, and abstract nouns; proper nouns and proper adjectives
3	Prepositional Phrases	Subject-verb agreement when a prepositional phrase is between the subject and verb, including collective nouns; the use of <i>between</i> and <i>among</i>
4	Personal Pronouns	Compound subjects and objects using personal pronouns; use of an apostrophe to indicate possession with compound subjects
5	Sensory Linking Verbs	Choosing <i>well</i> versus <i>good</i> and other adverbs versus adjectives; use of a colon with items in a series and with quotations
6	Indirect Objects	Punctuating quotations with speaker's tag in the middle
7	Interrogative Pronouns	Compound interrogative sentences; use of a hyphen to form certain compound words
8	Relative (Adjectival) Clauses	Use of commas with nonessential relative clauses and no commas with essential relative clauses

Book B

Chapter	Main Topic	Supplemental Topics
1	Adverbial Elements: Adverbs, Interrogative Adverbs, Adverbial Prepositional Phrases, Adverbial Noun Phrases	Adverbial nouns; classes of adverbs (<i>time, manner, cause, place, and degree</i>); avoiding misplaced prepositional phrases
2	Adverbial Clauses	Subordinating conjunctions; correcting comma splices
3	Reflexive Pronouns	Rewriting sentence fragments into simple, compound, or complex sentences
4	Verbals—Participles	Avoiding misplaced modifiers; active and passive voice
5	Verbals—Gerunds	Using homonyms, homophones, and homographs
6	Verbals—Infinitives	Using dashes and slashes in sentences
7	Verbals—Review	Interjections; five useless commas
8	Types of Sentences: Simple, Compound, Complex, Compound-Complex	Phrasal verbs

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Well-Ordered Language

A Classical Approach to English Grammar Instruction

Why Study Grammar?

We study grammar because we wish to master language, and language cannot be easily mastered without grammar. Grammar is the study of what makes language work—the way letters form words, the way words form sentences, the way sentences express human thought.

An educated person wants to understand the rich variety of human thought enshrined in language of all sorts—books from yesterday and the last millennium, books in English and books in other languages as well. An educated person also yearns to express himself clearly, accurately, and completely. It is the study of grammar that yields the capacity to do this, and the student who sees the connection between the study of grammar and the mastery of language will study grammar with zeal.

Learning Grammar, Teaching Grammar

We have designed Well-Ordered Language (WOL) with the understanding that many teachers who will use this book don't know grammar as well as they would like. As a result, we have created a rich teacher's edition that will enable teachers to review and deepen their own understanding of grammar even as they teach students.

We have also worked to provide a clear, incremental presentation of grammar in this series that includes plenty of illustrations, practice, and review. For example, in each chapter, students will memorize through song clear definitions of relevant grammatical concepts. Helpful analogies and attractive graphical illustrations at the beginning of each chapter introduce and complement the concepts in the chapter. Students also will discover emerging from the sentence exercises a story that features characters who appear throughout the text and in the graphical illustrations.

Effective Teaching Methods

The series employs an innovative choral analysis method that makes learning enjoyable and permanent. With clear guidance from the teacher's edition, instructors will easily

be able to lead students through the choral analysis of grammar, and through this analysis, students will understand how grammar is embodied in the sentences they study. In *Well-Ordered Language Level 2* and beyond, the students also learn to diagram, visualizing the grammatical relationships within sentences. The program has been layered concept on concept, an approach that aids students in experiencing and mapping how a well-ordered language works. As their mastery of grammar develops, students also understand poems and stories more thoroughly and enjoy them more deeply.

Learning with Delight

We think that the right study of grammar should lead to delight. The traditional study of grammar should be more than mere rote memorization of rules; it must also include opportunities for students to engage language in works of literature and human expression. As students acquire a greater capacity to understand language and use it effectively themselves, they will experience joy and delight. This is one reason we have included for grammatical study beautiful poetry and excerpts from great literature. Students will see that their ongoing study of grammar will open up a deeper understanding of beautiful literature that both instructs and delights.

Compelling Need

In this cultural moment, there is a desperate need for language that is well ordered. Today's discourse is often filled with ambiguity, equivocation, and crudeness. Those who have mastered a well-ordered language not only will stand out as eloquent and clear but also will be able to say well what they mean and to say what others will heed. It will be those with a command of language who will be able to mine the wisdom of the past and to produce eloquence in the future.

Ongoing Support

We have created not only a series of texts but a constellation of products that will help teachers to use WOL effectively. Visit our website at ClassicalAcademicPress.com for additional support for using WOL, including downloadable PDF documents that are available for purchase as well as other resources.

Thank you for joining us in this most important work of restoring a well-ordered language for the next generation!

Lesson-Planning Options

The Well-Ordered Language series is designed to be flexible, adaptable, and practical. Depending on her needs, the teacher can modify lessons to meet particular classroom expectations. The following options for teaching each chapter assume a 30–40 minute period.

	Option A (4 times per week)	Option B (3 times per week)	Option C (5 times, one week)
Week One	Day One ◇ Ideas to Understand ◇ Terms to Remember ◇ Sentences to Analyze & Diagram	Day One ◇ Ideas to Understand ◇ Terms to Remember ◇ Sentences to Analyze & Diagram	Day One ◇ Ideas to Understand ◇ Terms to Remember ◇ Sentences to Analyze & Diagram
	Day Two ◇ Lesson to Learn A	Day Two ◇ Lesson to Learn A	Day Two ◇ Lesson to Learn A
	Day Three ◇ Lesson to Learn B	Day Three ◇ Lesson to Learn B	Day Three ◇ Lesson to Learn B
	Day Four ◇ Lesson to Enjoy—Poem		Day Four ◇ Lesson to Learn C
			Day Five ◇ Quiz (PDF)
Week Two	Day Five ◇ Sentences for Practice	Day Four ◇ Lesson to Learn C	
	Day Six ◇ Lesson to Learn C	Day Five ◇ Sentences for Practice (if needed) and/or Lesson to Enjoy—Poem <i>alternative</i> ◇ Sentences for Practice—Tale and/or Lesson to Enjoy—Tale	
	Day Seven ◇ Sentences for Practice—Tale ◇ Lesson to Enjoy—Tale	Day Six ◇ Quiz (PDF)	
	Day Eight ◇ Quiz (PDF)		

Introduction to Students

Maps have existed since ancient times. It seems that people have always wanted to draw where they are, where they have been, and where they want to go. The word *geography* comes from the Greek *geo*, meaning “earth,” and *graph*, meaning “writing.” Maps are earth writing.

Some maps are incredibly detailed, even including texture to show mountains and valleys, rivers, and lakes. You can run your fingertips along this topography[■] and touch the heights and depths of the world. Some maps frame the boundaries of nations and continents with beautiful, varied colors. As you peer into this kaleidoscope[■] of colors and lines, you can almost taste the foods and hear the languages of the different cultures of all those nations.

Maps show relationships between locations, so when we read maps, we better understand the world and the people who inhabit it. In a similar way, a sentence diagram is a sort of map—a grammar map—that shows the relationships among words and among the parts of sentences. A diagram maps meaning.

The vertical longitude and horizontal latitude lines you see on many maps help you determine the exact location of things like oceans, landmasses, countries, and cities. Similarly, sentence diagrams use vertical, horizontal, and diagonal lines to indicate both the parts of speech and the relationships of words in a sentence.

A map has a legend (list or key) that explains its symbols; a scale that tells how the distances measure up; and a compass rose that marks north, south, east, and west. Similarly, in Well-Ordered Language, an analyzed and marked sentence provides a legend for understanding *how* the sentence says what it says.

In *WOL Level 3*, we’d like to travel with you through the beautiful structure of language using such maps. In each lesson, you will analyze sentences with increasingly complex markings and diagrams. You can run your fingertips along your work, and you can peer into the kaleidoscope of sentences to better understand our well-ordered language.

To the Source:

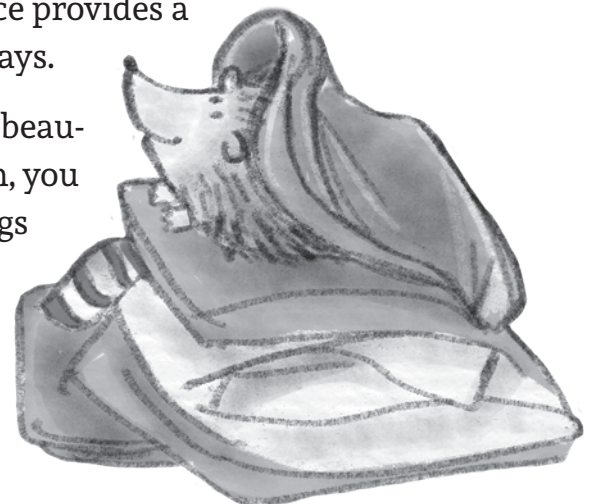
■ topography

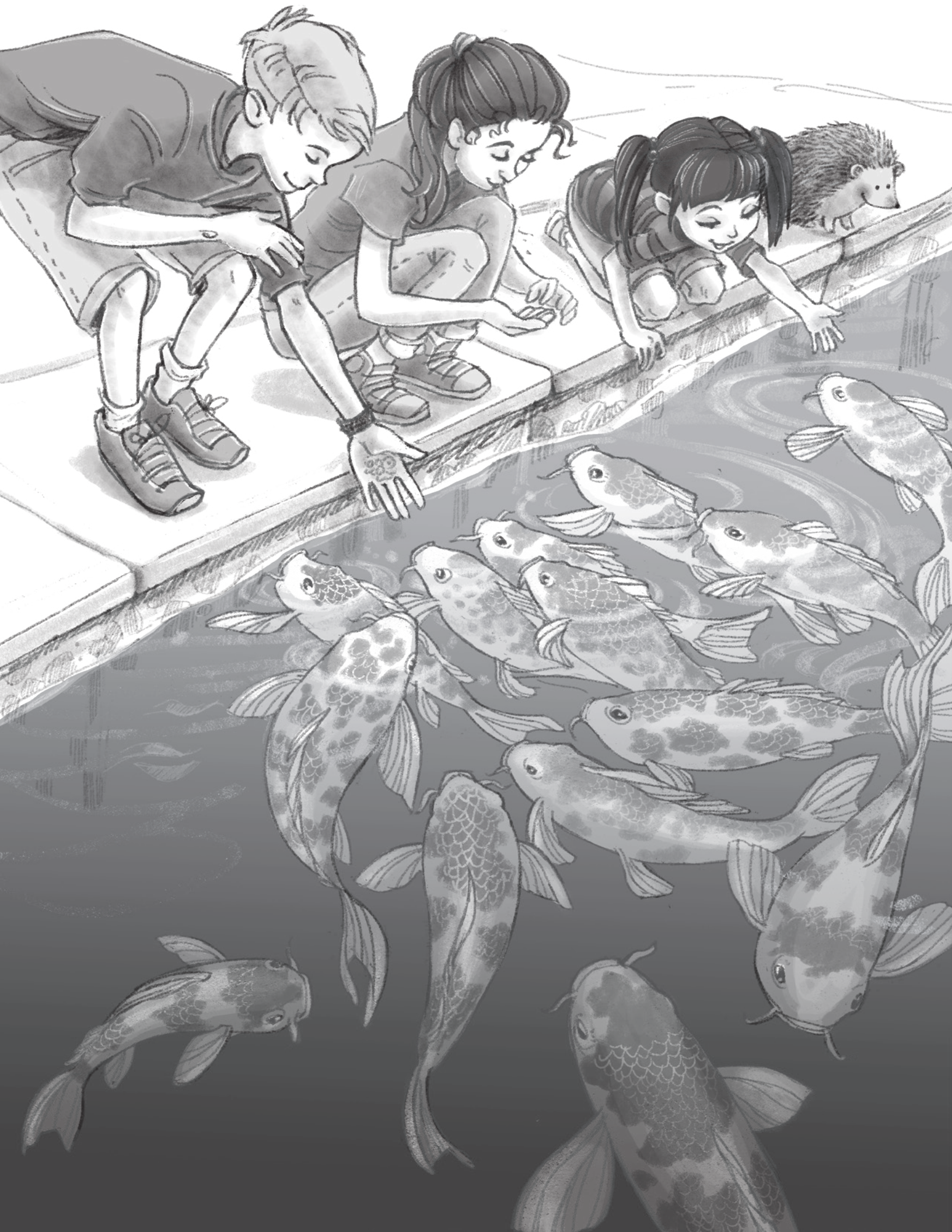
The word *topography* comes from the Greek *topo*, meaning “place,” and *graphia*, meaning “description of.” Topography is a description you can feel.

To the Source:

■ kaleidoscope

The word *kaleidoscope* also comes from Greek: *kal*, meaning “beautiful”; *eido*, meaning “shape”; and *skop*, meaning “to look at.”





Adverbial Elements

At the National Arboretum in Washington, DC, schools of beautiful red, orange, yellow, pink, and blue *Cyprinus carpio*, or koi, swarm when visitors sprinkle food on the surface of the koi pond. Though the pool is quiet moments before the feeding, the water comes alive as the colorful koi battle each other for a handful of crumbs. In the same way that fish food attracts fish, verbs attract adverbs, ■ or at least elements that behave like adverbs. Though they don't wriggle in colorful confusion, adverbs of many types do tend to cluster around verbs to modify them.

There are single-word adverbs and adverbial prepositional phrases, such as those you have encountered many times in the sentences you have analyzed. Such adverbial elements often modify verbs and answer the questions *how*, *when*, *where*, and sometimes *why*. In this chapter, we will encounter three more adverbial elements, or “fish of a different color”: the **interrogative adverb**, the **adverbial noun**, and the **adverbial noun phrase**. When one of the words *how*, *when*, *where*, or *why* is itself used to form an interrogative sentence, it is an interrogative adverb modifying the verb. When a noun modifies another word in the sentence, answering *how*, *when*, *where*, or *why*, it is functioning as an adverb and is called an adverbial noun. And, when such a noun has modifiers, together they are called an adverbial noun phrase. Now, all these adverbial elements—adverbs, adverbial prepositional phrases, interrogative adverbs, adverbial nouns, and adverbial noun phrases—can also modify adjectives and other adverbs, but in this chapter we are going to focus on the kind that modify verbs, like so many koi attracted to crumbs.

To the Source: ■ adverb

The word *adverb* comes from the Latin words *ad*, which means “to” and *verbum*, which means “word.” The Latin word *adverbum* means “added to a verb.”

Ideas to Understand

In the poem “Windy Nights,” Robert Louis Stevenson describes the wind in the night as a wild horseman taking his reins and storming past windows.

Stevenson uses adverbs and other adverbial elements throughout his poem to answer the questions *how*, *when*, *where*, and even *why*. Let's look at a few lines from the poem and see if you can pick out any of the adverbial elements:

All night long in the dark and wet,
A man goes riding by. . .
Why does he gallop and gallop about?¹

Did you spot the adverbs? *By* modifies the verb *goes riding* and *about* modifies the compound verb *does gallop and gallop*, both answering the question *where*. If Stevenson had written that the man (i.e., the night wind) went riding “wildly” or “yesterday,” he would have used adverbs answering the questions *how* and *when*. Did you spot the adverbial prepositional phrase? “In the dark and wet” modifies the verb *goes riding*, answering the question *where*. You have already learned a great deal in the Well-Ordered Language series about adverbs and adverbial prepositional phrases—the most-recognized adverbial elements—but these lines of “Windy Nights” also contain other adverbial elements.

Consider the line “Why does he gallop and gallop about?” It is an interrogative sentence beginning with the interrogative adverb *why*, which modifies the compound verb *does gallop and gallop*. If you were analyzing this sentence aloud, you would say, “*Why* tells us *why* he does gallop and gallop.” The interrogative adverbs—*how*, *when*, *where*, and *why*—are used to form interrogative sentences like this one. Interrogative adverbs can be part of adverbial phrases as well, such as *how long*, *how often*, *how soon*, *how much*, *how far*, and *how little*, but we will discuss those constructions in *Well-Ordered Language Level 4*.

Before we consider another adverbial element in the passage from “Windy Nights”—the noun phrase “all night long”—let us point out that previously in this series you have occasionally analyzed nouns behaving as adverbs, whether you noticed it or not. For example, look at the *italicized* nouns in these sentences:

Yesterday, he rode his horse.

Afterward, he rode *home*.

These are adverbial nouns. *Yesterday* answers *when* he rode, and *home* answers *where* he rode. In previous chapters of *Well-Ordered Language*, you have rightly analyzed and diagrammed such nouns as adverbs, identifying them according to their function. Now, the new concept in this chapter is that an adverbial noun can have modifiers, and together these words form an adverbial noun *phrase*.

Stevenson's phrase “all night long” is made up of a noun—*night*—and two modifiers. This is a noun phrase. You are used to seeing noun phrases behaving as subjects or objects—each one containing a noun and its modifiers (adjectives

1. Robert Louis Stevenson, “Windy Nights,” in *The Book of 1000 Poems* (London: HarperCollins Publishers Ltd., 1994), 284.

and adverbs modifying adjectives). However, “all night long” tells us *when* the man goes riding. It functions as an adverb modifying a verb. It is an adverbial noun phrase. The word *all* is an adjective (*which night?* all night), yet the function of *long* is less clear. As an adverb usually answering the question *how*, it should modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. But here it modifies *night* because this adverbial noun functions as an adverb in the sentence and the adverb *long* is modifying the adverbial function of *night*.

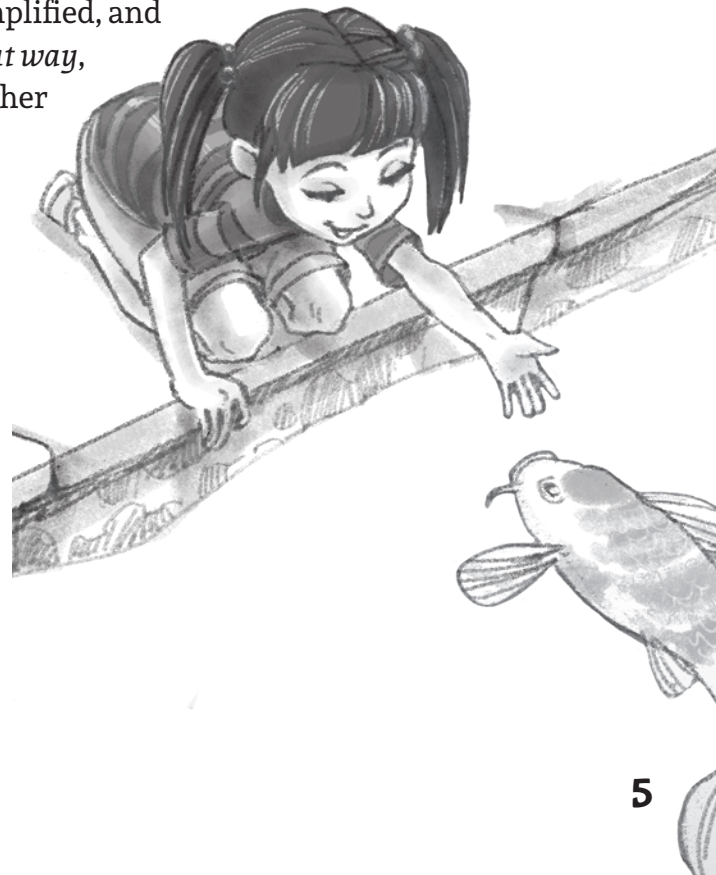
Like multicolored koi, there are many different kinds of adverbial nouns and adverbial noun phrases. In the following example sentences, notice how the underlined nouns and noun phrases modify the verbs:

- ◇ The storm blew full force. [blew *how?* full force]
- ◇ Last evening the willow tree fell. [fell *when?* last evening]
- ◇ We ran home. [ran *where?* home].

Here are some more examples of sentences with adverbial nouns and adverbial noun phrases modifying verbs, but the questions they answer are not simply the familiar single words, such as *how*, *when*, and *where*:

- ◇ The tree weighed ten tons. [weighed *how much?* ten tons]
- ◇ The neighbors worked all afternoon and cleared the debris. [worked *how long?* all afternoon]
- ◇ Later, a gentle breeze blew west. [blew *in what direction?* west]

In previous Well-Ordered Language chapters, we’ve relied on the single-word questions *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why* to help us analyze the function of adverbial elements. Now we see that those questions are simplified, and often it would be more accurate to ask *how long*, *in what way*, *for what reason*, *in what direction*, *to what extent*, or another such question. A complete classification of adverbial elements places them into groups of questions. There are five **classes of adverbs**, which are defined as time, manner, cause, place, and degree.

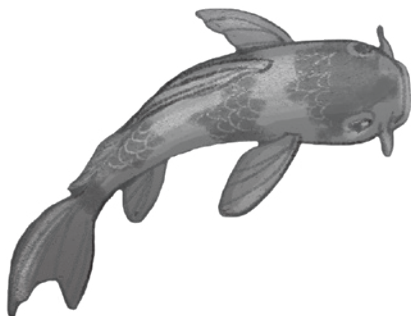


Classes of Adverbs	Questions	Examples
Time: These adverbial elements show when an action happens, its duration, or its frequency.	when? (time) how long? (duration) how many times? (frequency)	<i>simultaneously, one day, for three hours, all night, each afternoon</i>
Manner: These adverbial elements show the way an action happens.	how? in what way?	<i>quickly, intentionally, full speed, at a gallop</i>
Cause: These adverbial elements show the reason an action happens.	why? for what reason?	<i>for an A+, for the love of it, for enjoyment</i>
Place: These adverbial elements show where the action happens.	where? in what direction? from what direction?	<i>here, there, at home, either side, both sides, from the northwest</i>
Degree: These adverbial elements increase or decrease the effect of the verb.	how much? how little? to what extent?	<i>enormously, ten tons, a tiny bit, a long mile, a good deal</i>

Terms to Remember

- ◇ Eight Parts of Speech (1–1)
- ◇ Adverb (1–7)
- ◇ Adverbial Elements (3–1)

NEW! Classes of Adverbs (3–6)





Moment for Mechanics

Place prepositional phrases logically in a sentence to avoid *misplaced modification* and confusion.

An *adjectival prepositional phrase* should be next to the noun it modifies.

- ◇ I saw the man *on the horse* pass the window.
On the horse is an adjective modifying *man*.
- ◇ *On the horse*, I saw the man pass the window.
Now, *on the horse* is an adjective modifying *I*.
- ◇ I saw the man pass the window *on the horse*.
Misplaced: It sounds as if the window is on the horse!

An *adverbial prepositional phrase* should be placed where no one might mistake which word it modifies.

- ◇ *Through the window*, I saw the horseman ride away.
Through the window is an adverb modifying *saw*.
- ◇ I saw *through the window* the horseman ride away.
Again, *through the window* is an adverb modifying *saw*.
- ◇ I saw the horseman ride away *through the window*.
Misplaced: It sounds as if the horseman has crashed through the window!

Sentences to Analyze and Diagram

Analyzing an adverbial noun or an interrogative adverb is just like analyzing any adverb, which you've done many times. In a similar manner, analyzing a sentence with an adverbial noun phrase is like analyzing a sentence with a prepositional phrase. First you place parentheses around the adverbial noun phrase, and then you identify all modifiers within the phrase. Later in the analysis, when the adverbial noun phrase is identified as a modifier, mark the phrase as an adverbial element by writing *phr* for *phrase* underneath it.

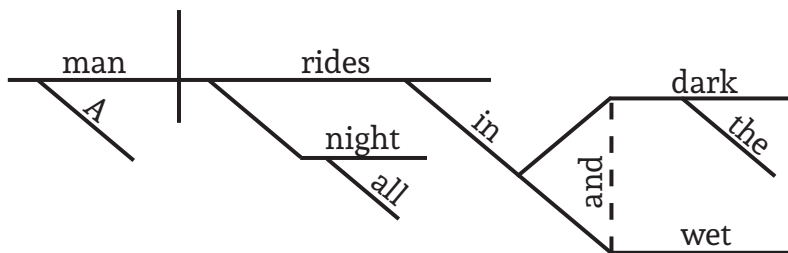
Remember to say the analysis aloud together while your teacher models on the board how to mark the sentences. The analysis is in two parts:

Part 1: Identify the phrases.

Part 2: Identify the principal elements and modifiers.

- c. "This sentence is about *man*. So, *man* is the subject because it is what the sentence is about." (Since *man* is the subject, underline it and write *S* above the subject.)
- d. "This sentence tells us that man *rides*. So, *rides* is the predicate because it is what the sentence tells us about *man*." (Since *rides* tells us something about *man*, double underline the predicate and write *P* above it.)
- e. "It is a predicate verb because it shows action. There is no linking verb because predicate verbs do not need linking verbs." (Since *rides* shows action, write *V* to the right of the *P*.)
- f. "*In the dark and wet* tells us *where* the man rides." (Since *in the dark and wet* tells us *where* the man rides, draw the modifying lines.) "So, *in the dark and wet* is an adverbial element because it modifies a verb. It is an adverbial prepositional phrase." (Since the prepositional phrase is behaving like an adverb, write *adv* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow. Since the phrase is a prepositional phrase, write *prep* underneath the modifier line, directly below the *adv*.)
- g. "*All night* tells us *when* the man rides. So, *all night* is an adverbial element because it modifies a verb. It is an adverbial noun phrase." (Since *all night* tells us *when* the man rides, draw a straight line down from the parenthesis, then a horizontal line toward the word it modifies, and then a straight line with an arrow pointing to *rides*. Write *adv* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow. Since *all night* is a phrase, write *phr* underneath the modifier line, directly below the *adv*.)
- h. "A is an adjective (article)." (Draw the modifying lines and write *adj* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow.)

When you diagram an adverbial noun phrase, place it beneath the verb it modifies. First, a diagonal line is drawn from the baseline with a horizontal line stemming from it. Leave the diagonal line blank, and write the adverbial noun on the horizontal line. The adverbial noun's modifiers are placed on diagonal lines beneath it.



On the Map

The setting for the sentences in this chapter's Lesson to Learn B is the Burke Baker Planetarium. The planetarium is part of the Houston Museum of Natural Science (HMNS) in Houston, Texas. Visiting the museum is a great way to experience the wonders of the night skies. See if you can locate HMNS on a map of Houston, Texas.



Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Elements



1. Analyze the following sentences, and then diagram them in the space provided. Use a ruler to draw the lines.

a. Saturday morning, Elliot and Franklin ran two miles.

b. Elliott had never run two miles before, nor will he attempt it again.

c. Why did he enter the race with Franklin that day anyway?

2. On the lines provided, write the definition of *adverbial elements*.

3. What questions do adverbial elements answer?

4. In each of the following sentences, underline the adverbial noun phrase. Then, on the lines provided, rewrite the sentence as a question, replacing the adverbial noun phrase with an interrogative adverb.

a. Last year, the museum guide sent us on a wild-geese chase.

b. He sent us the longer way through the textile exhibit.

c. Finally, a lady took us the right direction to the space exhibit.

5. Imagine that Peggy is writing in her assignment journal about the field trip her class took to the Museum of Science and Industry in Chicago. On the lines provided, rewrite her sentences, being sure to use the proper punctuation and capitalization.

earlier today we went on a field trip to the museum of science and industry in chicago
franklin had never been downtown before nor had he been to a science museum I
dnt understand how he has never been downtown before



Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Elements

B

1. Analyze the following sentences, and then diagram them in the space provided. Use a ruler to draw the lines.

a. When did you go to the planetarium that is in Houston?

b. Last spring, Midge and her cousin went there for a special program.

c. Sadly, she forgot her glasses; she could not see three feet in front of her.

B

Lesson to Learn Adverbial Elements

2. On the lines provided, write the definition of *adverbial elements*.

3. What questions do adverbial elements answer?

4. In each of the following sentences, underline the misplaced adverbial prepositional phrase. Then, rewrite each sentence, being sure to put the misplaced phrase in a more logical place.

a. During practice, the girls in a large box put the flippers and paddleboards.

b. In the pool, we saw Peggy and Midge with the others.

c. Last Thursday, the team waited for the van in the locker room.

5. Imagine that Coach Howard is writing a few notes about practice. On the lines provided, rewrite his sentences, being sure to use the proper punctuation and capitalization.

tuesday afternoon practice was rough the swimmers would not swim thirty laps they all complained I watched for fifteen minutes at the side of the pool and then I formed a new strategy i divided the swimmers into teams set the clock and timed them they went full speed it was successful

Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Elements



1. Analyze the following sentences, and then diagram them in the space provided. Use a ruler to draw the lines.

a. Surprisingly, last year Peggy read a book a day for one week.

b. How could she read so many books in that time?

c. After her surgery, she read every afternoon for three hours.



Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Elements

2. On the lines provided, list the *classes of adverbs*.

3. What questions do adverbial elements answer?

4. In each of the following sentences, underline the adverbial noun phrase. Then, on the lines provided, rewrite the sentence as a question, replacing the adverbial noun phrase with an interrogative adverb.

a. The eight oarsmen rowed full speed ahead.

b. Last Friday, the crowds cheered for the team.

c. One guy screamed three feet from me.

5. Imagine a newspaper writer's quick report about a rowing race. On the lines provided, rewrite his sentences, being sure to use the proper punctuation and capitalization.

this past friday afternoon on lake mendota eight oarsmen and one caller propelled a boat through the water at full speed the crowd sat in the rain and cheered all along the bank this sport is a whole body sport where do these athletes get the energy

Sentences for Practice

Adverbial Elements

Analyze the following sentences.

1. When was that giant arch constructed, and why was it built there?
2. How can the Gateway Arch stand 630 feet in the air?
3. Next June, Gilbert and his family are heading to St. Louis.
4. Franklin saw it early Friday morning on his way to Nevada.
5. Peggy went all the way to the top two years ago.

Sentences for Practice

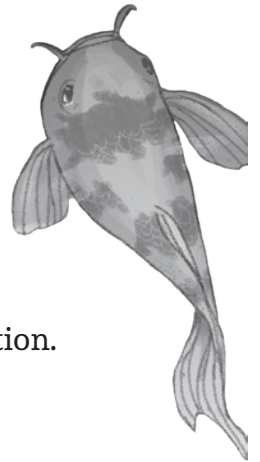
Adverbial Elements

6. Strangely, Midge has never been there, nor has she seen pictures.



7. Look eastward from the top windows, and you will see Illinois.

8. Where is the entrance to the museum that honors Jefferson?



9. Last week, Elliot saw a movie about the Lewis and Clark expedition.

10. Why was the Gateway Arch built in St. Louis years ago?



Lesson to Enjoy—Poem

Adverbial Elements

You may be familiar with these well-known opening lines of a classic American poem: “Listen, my children, and you shall hear / Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere.” In “Paul Revere’s Ride,” Henry Wadsworth Longfellow immortalizes the silversmith for his dramatic race on horseback on April 18, 1775, when he warned the colonial minutemen about the British advance from Boston. But have you heard of William Dawes, a tanner who also rode on that famous night? Though Revere and Dawes both arrived in Lexington to warn Hancock and Adams, most remember only the silversmith and not the tanner. Why do we remember Revere and not Dawes? How does history *revere* one name over another? In a less famous poem, sometimes called “The Midnight Ride of William Dawes,” poet Helen More wonders the same thing.

What’s in a Name?

by Helen F. More

I am a wandering, bitter shade,
Never of me was a hero made;

shade: ghost

Poets have never sung my praise,

Nobody crowned my brow with bays;
And if you ask me the fatal cause,
I answer only, “My name was Dawes.”

bays: a wreath
made of bay laurel
symbolizing
victory and honor

’T is all very well for the children to hear
Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere;
But why should my name be quite forgot,

Who rode as boldly and well, God wot?

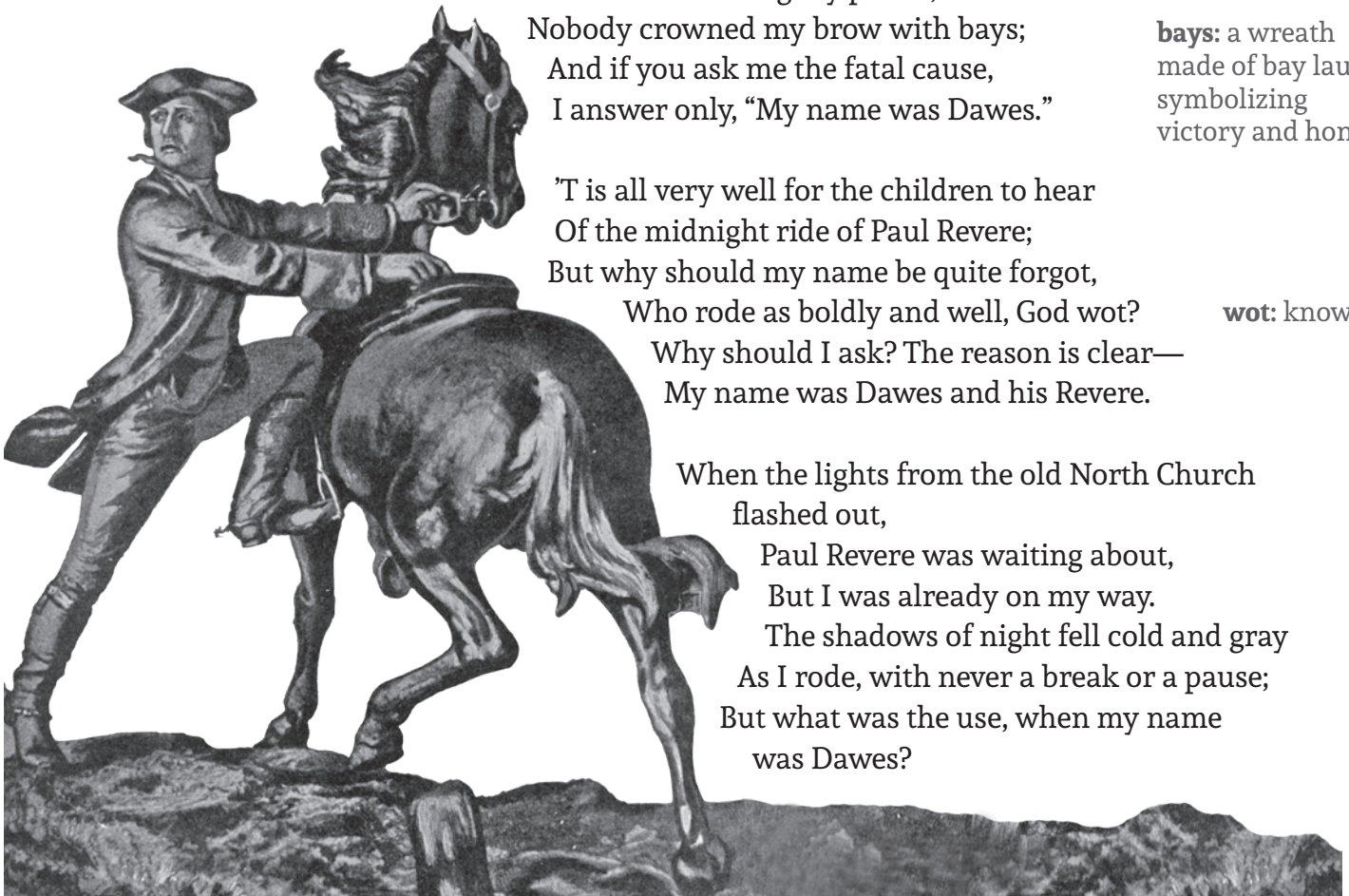
wot: knows

Why should I ask? The reason is clear—
My name was Dawes and his Revere.

When the lights from the old North Church
flashed out,

Paul Revere was waiting about,
But I was already on my way.

The shadows of night fell cold and gray
As I rode, with never a break or a pause;
But what was the use, when my name
was Dawes?



Lesson to Enjoy—Poem

Adverbial Elements

History rings with his silvery name;
Closed to me are the portals of fame.
Had he been Dawes and I Revere,
No one had heard of him, I fear.
No one has heard of me because
He was Revere and I was Dawes.²

portals: doors or entrance gates

Questions to Ponder

1. Who is speaking in the poem, and what does he mean by “Never of me was a hero made”?
2. Why do the names of the riders make a difference in who is remembered?
3. Do you think the poem is humorous and lighthearted, or is it a serious complaint?

2. Helen F. More, “What’s in a Name?” in *Poems of American History*, ed. Burton Egbert Stevenson (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1908), 146.



Chapter 2 Adverbial Clauses

There's something about a car carrier truck that draws people's attention. Is it the long trailer with its intricate framework of ramps and racks? Is it the cargo of shiny new automobiles, secured and balanced at odd angles? Or is it the powerful cab, able to pull not only its own weight but also that of all the cars and the trailer? Whatever the reason, heads often turn when a car carrier truck rolls by.

You might say a sentence that includes an **adverbial clause** is the car carrier truck of grammar. The sentence's principal clause is like the cab of the truck, carrying the weight of the entire sentence, while the adverbial clause goes along for the ride like the trailer.

An adverbial clause includes its own principal elements—a subject and a verb—which might make it seem independent, like the cargo of cars that could be driving on the road by themselves. But, the adverbial clause also has a **subordinating conjunction**, a word that makes it dependent on the principal clause. Like a trailer hitch, a subordinating conjunction both joins the clause to the main part of the sentence and subordinates[■] it. To be subordinated means to be dependent on something. Because an adverbial clause is dependent on the principal clause, it is not able to be a sentence on its own, no more than a trailer can drive down the road without the cab to pull it.

Just as the trailer with its cars locked in place is only part of a car carrier truck, an adverbial clause is merely a fragment or a part of a whole sentence. In fact, the clause functions as a single part of speech within the sentence: an adverb. As with other adverbial elements, adverbial clauses answer the questions *how*, *when*, *where*, and *why* when they modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. In this chapter, we focus on adverbial clauses that modify the verb in the principal clause.

To the Source: ■ subordinate

Subordinate comes from the Latin word *subordinatus* (placed in a lower order), which comes from *sub*, meaning “under” and *ordinare*, meaning “arrange, set in order.”

Ideas to Understand

An adverbial clause is a group of words that includes a subject and a predicate, begins with a subordinating conjunction, and functions as an adverb in the entire sentence. Just like adverbial prepositional phrases and adverbial noun phrases, an adverbial clause is a group of words functioning as a single adverb to provide clues about the timing, manner, cause, location, or degree of what's happening in a sentence. But adverbial clauses are different from adverbial phrases. While phrases lack either a subject or a verb, clauses contain both.

We can find one of these “car carrier trailers” in a passage from the novel *The Secret Garden*. In this book by Frances Hodgson Burnett, a lively orphan girl named Mary brings her invalid cousin Colin into contact with the natural world, distracting him from his narrow, selfish concerns. Notice the adverbial clause at the end of the first sentence in the following passage. Mary has been joyfully describing a newborn lamb that has been found on the Yorkshire Moor:

... Colin was listening and drawing in long breaths of air when the nurse entered. She started a little at the sight of the open window.¹

The adverbial clause “when the nurse entered” tells about the timing of the conversation between Mary and Colin. It answers the question *when*. The compound action verb in the principal clause, “was listening and drawing in,” is modified by the entire subordinate clause, “when the nurse entered.” The adverbial clause begins with the subordinating conjunction *when* and has a subject and verb, “nurse entered.” Even though it has its own subject and verb, the clause “when the nurse entered” cannot stand alone as a sentence. It would be a fragment if it were separated from the whole thought expressed in the sentence’s principal clause.

Having been bedridden his whole life, Colin astounds his nurse with news of the plan he has concocted with the vibrant Mary:

When Colin was on his sofa and the breakfast for two was put upon the table[,] he made an announcement to the nurse in his most Rajah-like manner.

“A boy, and a fox, and a crow, and two squirrels, and a new-born lamb, are coming to see me this morning. I want them brought upstairs as soon as they come,” he said.²

In the first sentence, we see another adverbial clause beginning with the subordinating conjunction *when*. It modifies the verb in the sentence’s principal clause, “he made an announcement,” answering the question *when*. This adverbial clause comes at the beginning of the sentence, whereas in the previous



1. Frances Hodgson Burnett, *The Secret Garden* (New York: Barnes & Noble, 1994), 153–154.

2. Burnett, *The Secret Garden*, 154.

example, the adverbial clause “when the nurse entered” was placed after the verb in the principal clause. An adverbial clause at the beginning of a sentence, like an introductory adverb, needs a comma to separate it from the sentence’s principal elements. There is no comma when the adverbial clause is placed after the sentence’s principal elements, *unless* that adverbial clause shows a contrast with the principal clause (as in this very sentence!).

In the previous chapter, we studied complex sentences that included subordinate clauses called relative clauses, which function as adjectives. Relative pronouns at the start of relative clauses subordinate them to the main clause. In an adverbial clause, the subordinating conjunction is the word that prevents the subject and verb of the clause from standing as an independent sentence. There are many subordinating conjunctions, but memorizing the most common ones will help you recognize adverbial clauses:

after	for	unless
although	how	until
as	if	when
as if	in order that	whenever
as long as	lest	where
as soon as	since	whereas
as though	so that	wherever
because	than	while
before	that	why
but that	though	

Be careful not to confuse the subordinating conjunctions with the coordinating conjunctions (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*). While both kinds of conjunctions join together two or more clauses in a sentence, they function very differently. Remember that a coordinating conjunction joins two principal clauses to create a compound sentence:

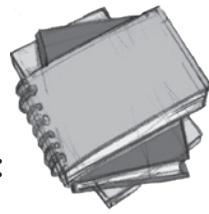
They found a secret garden, *and* they became close friends.

However, a subordinating conjunction joins a subordinate clause to a principal clause to create a complex sentence:

After they found a secret garden, they became close friends.

The clauses in a compound sentence have equal importance, but in a complex sentence the principal clause is emphasized more than the subordinate clause. That means the meaning is slightly different depending on the writer’s choice

Off the Shelf:



When the orphaned Mary Lennox moves to her hunchbacked uncle’s mysterious mansion, with its hundreds of rooms and gardens within gardens, she makes many discoveries. The most interesting one is the young, invalid cousin who has been kept hidden from her but whose cries she hears in the night. Colin is very weak and has been confined indoors, until Mary takes charge. She and the secret garden that she introduces him to are the best medicines. You can find your own secret garden by curling up with a good book, like Burnett’s *The Secret Garden*.

between coordinating or subordinating conjunctions. In the first example sentence above, finding the garden and becoming close friends seem to have happened simultaneously and with equal importance. In the second, the garden is found first and seems less important than the friendship that was made afterward.

II Pause for Punctuation

A **comma splice** is a grammatical error in which two sentences are mistakenly joined with only a comma and no coordinating conjunction.

Comma splice: The nurse entered the room, she was surprised.

There are five ways to correct a comma splice:

1. Rewrite the sentence as two separate simple sentences:
The nurse entered the room. She was surprised.
2. Add a coordinating conjunction after the comma to create a compound sentence:
The nurse entered the room, *and* she was surprised.
3. Replace the comma with a semicolon to create a compound sentence:
The nurse entered the room; she was surprised.
4. Add a subordinating conjunction at the start of one of the clauses to create a complex sentence:
When the nurse entered the room, she was surprised.
5. Make one of the clauses a relative clause by adding a relative pronoun and rearranging the sentence to create a complex sentence:
The nurse, *who* entered the room, was surprised.

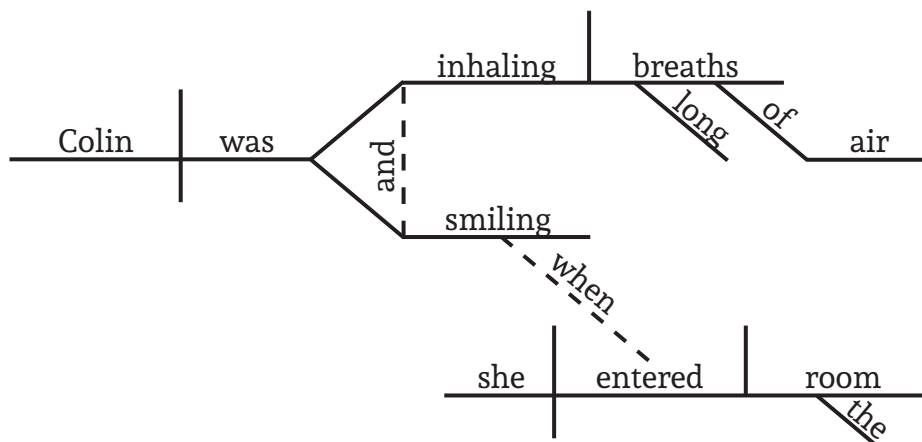
Terms to Remember

- ◇ Adverb (1–7)
- ◇ Phrase (1–18)
- ◇ Clause (2–6)
- ◇ Adverbial Elements (3–1)
- NEW!** Subordinating Conjunctions (3–7)



- f. “*Was* is the helping verb because it helps the verb.” (Since *was* is a helping verb, write *hv* above it.)
- g. “*Breaths* tells us *what* Colin was inhaling. So, *breaths* is an objective element because it completes the meaning of an action verb. It is a direct object because it tells us *what* Colin was inhaling.” (Since *breaths* tells us *what* Colin was inhaling, draw a circle around it and write *do* beneath the direct object.)
- h. “*When she entered the room* tells us *when* Colin was inhaling and smiling. So, *when she entered the room* is an adverbial element because it modifies a verb. It is an adverbial clause.” (Since *when she entered the room* is an adverbial clause, draw a straight line down from the subordinating conjunction, then a horizontal line toward the word that it modifies, and then a straight line with an arrow pointing to the word it modifies. Write *adv* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow, and write *cls* underneath the modifier line, directly below the *adv*.)
- i. “*Of air* tells us *what kind* of breaths. So, *of air* is an adjectival element because it modifies a noun. It is an adjectival prepositional phrase.” (Since *of air* tells us *what kind* of breaths, draw a straight line down from the preposition, then a horizontal line toward the word that it modifies, and then a straight line with an arrow pointing to the word it modifies. Write *adj* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow. Write *prep* underneath the modifier line, directly below the *adj*.)
- j. “*Long* tells us *what kind* of breaths. So, *long* is an adjectival element because it modifies a noun. It is an adjective.” (Draw the modifying lines and write *adj* in the elbow opposite the line with the arrow.)

When an adverbial clause is diagrammed, the subordinate clause is placed below the principal clause with a diagonal dotted line connecting the verb of the principal clause to the verb of the subordinate clause. The subordinating conjunction is written on the diagonal dotted line. The adverbial clause is diagrammed with the subject on the left side of the baseline, a vertical dividing line in the middle, and the predicate on the right side of the dividing line.



 **On the Map**

In Lesson to Learn B, the action in the sentences happens in Keystone, South Dakota, at Mount Rushmore National Memorial. There, the busts of four famous presidents of the United States are chiseled in a limestone cliff: George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt, and Abraham Lincoln. Can you locate on a map both Keystone, SD, and the park?

Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Clauses



1. Analyze the following sentences, and then diagram them in the space provided. Use a ruler to draw the lines.

a. Although she disliked the chore, Peggy dutifully put clean water in the cage.

b. Peggy always cleans Spike's cage each morning because it needs it.

c. What do you think of this hedgehog's cage since it is all clean?

2. List the common subordinating conjunctions.

3. Using one of the five ways to correct comma splices, rewrite the following sentences on the lines provided.

a. He tightly closed the food container, it would not spill.

b. Most fruits are good for hedgehogs, don't give them too much.

c. Do not feed hedgehogs grapes, they are toxic to them.

4. Imagine that Peggy is writing a note to Midge about feeding her hedgehog while she is away. Rewrite her sentences using the proper punctuation and capitalization.

wash the peas and green beans before you put them into the tray in the cage if you give spike a banana you must peel it first you can leave it in quarters do not give him grapes since they are dangerous for hedgehogs



Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Clauses

B

1. Analyze the following sentences, and then diagram them in the space provided. Use a ruler to draw the lines.

a. As the group was seated, the park ranger described the four presidents.

b. One group cheered and disturbed everyone whenever he said “Washington.”

c. After the national anthem played, the floodlights illuminated the four faces.

2. List the common subordinating conjunctions.

3. Complete each of the following sentences by finishing the adverbial clause that follows the subordinating conjunction (*before, if, or though*).

a. Dynamite blasted granite on the mountain before _____

_____.

b. The workers would only begin work if _____

_____.

c. The workers crafted a national treasure, though _____

_____.

4. Imagine that the park ranger at Mount Rushmore wrote a note to his supervisor. Rewrite his sentences using the proper punctuation and capitalization.

since the last tourist left the park another year of lighting the presidents has come to a close our energy use has gone down this summer since we installed the new light system it is the most energy efficient system ever



Lesson to Learn

Adverbial Clauses

2. List the common subordinating conjunctions.

3. Complete each of the following sentences by finishing the adverbial clause that follows the subordinating conjunction (*after*, *since*, and *as if*).

a. Midge read more about the history of origami after _____.

b. She studied the drawings carefully since _____.

c. Cleverly, she folded an old napkin as if _____.

4. Imagine that Midge is writing directions for how to make a paper airplane. Rewrite her sentences using the proper punctuation and capitalization.

fold a square piece of paper in half and then unfold it fold the upper corners to the centerline bend the paper backward so that the flaps are on the outside as the plane tip is pointing toward the left fold the topside down flip the paper so that the plane tip is facing to the right and fold the other topside down pick it up and fly it

Sentences for Practice—Tale

Adverbial Clauses

Analyze the following sentences.

1. Miss Nightingale arrived at Scutari after she traveled several days.
2. While she unpacked, severely hurt soldiers came from the battle.
3. Why were hundreds of men lying on the muddy ground?
4. Florence did not rest when the avalanche of misery arrived.
5. Arrange the men in double rows wherever space is available.

Sentences for Practice—Tale

Adverbial Clauses

6. Though five soldiers seemed lifeless, she nursed them all night.

7. When morning came, the doctors could not believe their eyes.

8. How did Florence and the other nurses help these poor soldiers?

9. Since the nurses cleaned the wounds, the soldiers seemed better.

10. Although Florence lived long ago, her influence is alive today.

Lesson to Enjoy—Tale

Adverbial Clauses

Florence Nightingale and her staff of thirty-eight nurses arrived in Scutari, Turkey, in 1854 in the middle of the Crimean War, a bloody conflict between England and its allies and Russia. Thousands of wounded soldiers were being taken from the Crimean Peninsula and transported across the Black Sea to Turkey for medical care. There, the horrifying hospital conditions contributed to the death of many soldiers. Determined to transform the hospital into a place of healing, Florence Nightingale insisted on standards of cleanliness, compassion, and competence that have established her as a pioneer of the modern nursing profession.

“The Lady-in-Chief” from *Florence Nightingale*

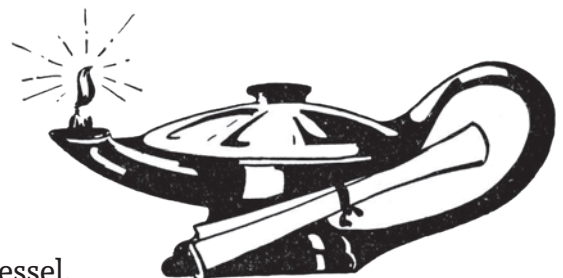
by Laura E. Richards

Miss Nightingale arrived at Scutari on November 4th. . . . Only twenty-four hours after her arrival, the wounded from the Battle of Inkerman began to come in; soon every inch of room in both the Barrack and the General Hospital was full, and men by hundreds were lying on the muddy ground outside, unable to find room even on the floor of the corridor. Neither Lady-in-Chief nor nurses had had time to rest after their long voyage, to make plans for systematic work, even to draw breath after their first glimpse of the horrors around them, when this great avalanche of suffering and misery came down upon them. No woman in history has had to face such a task as now flung itself upon Florence Nightingale.

She met it as the great meet trial, quietly and calmly. Her cheek might pale at what she had to see, but there was no flinching in those clear, gray-blue eyes, no trembling of those firm lips. Ship after ship discharged its ghastly freight at the ferry below; train after train of wounded was dragged up the hill, brought into the overflowing hospital, laid down on pallet, on mattress, on bare floor, on muddy ground, wherever space could be found. “The men lay in double rows down the long corridors, forming several miles of suffering humanity.”

As the poor fellows were brought in, they looked up, and saw a slender woman in a black dress, with a pale, beautiful face surmounted by a close-fitting white cap. Quietly, but with an authority that no one ever thought of disputing, she gave her orders, directing where the sufferers were to be taken, what doctor was to be summoned, what nurses to attend them. During these days she was known sometimes to stand on her feet *twenty hours at a time*, seeing that each man was put in the right place, where he might receive the right kind of help. . . .

In this dreadful inrush of the Inkerman wounded, the surgeons had first of all to separate the more hopeful cases from those that seemed desperate. The working force was so insufficient, they must devote their energies to saving those who could be saved. . . . Once Miss Nightingale saw five men lying together in a corner, left just as they had come from the vessel.



Lesson to Enjoy—Tale

Adverbial Clauses

“Can nothing be done for them?” she asked the surgeon in charge. He shook his head.

“Then will you give them to me?”

“Take them,” replied the surgeon, “if you like; but we think their case is hopeless.”

... All night long, Florence Nightingale sat beside those five men, one of the faithful nurses with her, feeding them with a spoon at short intervals till consciousness returned, and a little strength began to creep back into their poor, torn bodies; then washing their wounds, making them tidy and decent, and all the time cheering them with kind and hopeful words. When morning came, the surgeons, amazed, pronounced the men in good condition to be operated upon. ...

In those days one of the nurses wrote home to England. ...

“The whole of yesterday was spent, first in sewing the men’s mattresses together, and then in washing them, and assisting the surgeons, when we could, in dressing their ghastly wounds, and seeing the poor fellows made as easy as their circumstances would admit of, after their five days’ confinement on board ship, during which space their wounds were not dressed. ... We have not seen a drop of milk, and the bread is extremely sour. The butter is most filthy—it is Irish butter in a state of decomposition; and the meat is more like moist leather than food. Potatoes we are waiting for until they arrive from France.”

... When Miss Nightingale arrived at Scutari, the death rate in the Barrack Hospital was sixty per cent; within a few months it was reduced to one per cent; and this, under heaven, was accomplished by her and her devoted band of nurses. Do you wonder that she was called “The Angel of the Crimea”?³

Questions to Ponder

1. Describe some of the conditions of the Barrack and General Hospital.
2. How did Florence Nightingale and the other nurse help the five hopeless soldiers?
3. What specific qualities does this tale reveal about Florence Nightingale’s character?

3. Laura E. Richards, “The Lady-in-Chief,” in *Florence Nightingale the Angel of the Crimea* (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1911), 85–97. Available at: <http://www.gutenberg.org/files/43898/43898-h/43898-h.htm>.



Glossary of Terms

	Level & Book	Chapter
A		
Abbreviation: An abbreviation is a short form of a word or title. It begins with a capital letter and ends with a period.	2A	5
Absolute Possessive Pronoun: A pronoun that shows ownership and functions as a noun. The absolute possessive pronouns are <i>mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, and theirs</i> .	3A	4
Abstract Noun: A noun that names an intangible quality or idea. <i>See also</i> concrete noun.	3A	2
Active Voice: A verb is in the active voice when the subject in the sentence <i>does the action</i> , as in “The poet <i>wrote</i> a sonnet.” <i>See also</i> verb, voice, passive voice.	3B	4
Adjectival Clause: A group of words containing a subject and a verb and functioning as a single part of speech (an adjective) that modifies a noun or pronoun within the principal clause. <i>See also</i> subordinate clause.	3A	8
Adjectival Element: A word (or a group of words) that modifies nouns or pronouns.	1A 2A	5 3/6
Adjectival Prepositional Phrase: A group of words that includes a preposition followed by a noun or pronoun (<i>see</i> object of the preposition) and any words that modify the object of the preposition. The entire phrase is an adjective and modifies nouns or pronouns, answering the questions <i>how many, whose, which one, or what kind</i> .	1B	3
Adjective: An adjective is a part of speech. It’s used to describe or define the meaning of a noun or pronoun. It answers the questions <i>how many, whose, which one, or what kind</i> . It modifies a noun or pronoun. <i>See also</i> noun, pronoun.	1A 2A	5 3

	Level & Book	Chapter
Adverb: An adverb is a part of speech. It modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. It answers the questions <i>how</i> , <i>when</i> , or <i>where</i> . An adverb is a part of speech.	1A 2A	4 2
Adverbial Clause: A subordinate clause beginning with a subordinating conjunction, including a subject and a verb, and functioning as an adverb to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. <i>See also</i> clause, subordinating conjunction.	3B	2
Adverbial Element: A word (or a group of words) that modifies verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.	1A 2A	4 2
Adverbial Noun: A noun that functions as an adverb modifying a verb, adjective, or other adverb. For example, “We finished reading the book <i>yesterday</i> .”	3B	1
Adverbial Noun Phrase: An adverbial noun accompanied by modifiers. For example, “The horseman rode <i>all night long</i> .”	3B	1
Adverbial Prepositional Phrase: A group of words that includes a preposition followed by a noun or pronoun, and any words that modify the object of the preposition. The entire phrase is an adverb usually modifying a verb, answering the questions <i>when</i> , <i>where</i> , or <i>how</i> . <i>See</i> object of the preposition.	1B	3
Antecedent: The antecedent is a noun, clause, or phrase to which a pronoun refers. If the antecedent is singular, then the pronoun is singular too. But if the noun, clause, or phrase is plural, then the pronoun must be plural too. The antecedent determines which pronoun is used.	1A	7
Antonym: Antonyms are words that have the opposite meaning. For example, <i>night</i> and <i>day</i> are antonyms.	1B	6
Articles: The adjectives <i>the</i> , <i>a</i> (or <i>an</i>).	2A	3
Attributive Adjective: Adjectives that come immediately before the noun they modify, as distinguished from predicate adjectives, which follow the noun they modify, joined to it by a linking verb. <i>See also</i> noun, predicate adjective, linking verb.	3A	1
Auxiliary Verb: <i>See</i> helping verb.	1A 2A	3 4

	Level & Book	Chapter
B		
Bare Infinitives: An infinitive used in a sentence without the particle <i>to</i> , as in <i>to seek and find</i> , in which <i>to</i> is dropped from <i>to find</i> . <i>See also</i> infinitive, particle.	3B	6
Be Verbs: Forms of the verb <i>be</i> : <i>am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been</i> . They express a state of being when they behave like linking verbs.	2A	5
C		
Case: A grammatical term that describes a special function of a noun. A noun's case shows its relationship to other words in a sentence. <i>See also</i> subjective case; nominative case; possessive case.	1A	7
Classes of Adverbs: The five groups into which adverbs can be categorized according to their function as modifiers: time, manner, cause, place, and degree.	3B	1
Clause: A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a predicate.	1A	4
Collective Noun: A noun that appears singular but names a group of people, animals, or things (e.g., team, family, herd, flock, set, pair).	3A	2
Comma Splice: A grammatical error in which two sentences are mistakenly joined with only a comma and no coordinating conjunction. <i>See also</i> sentence; conjunction; coordinating conjunctions.	3B	2
Common Noun: A noun that names any person, place, thing, or idea. <i>See also</i> noun; proper noun.	1B 2A	3 4
Complex Sentence: A sentence that is composed of one principal clause with one or more subordinate clauses. <i>See also</i> simple sentence; principal clause; subordinate clause; compound sentence.	2B	8
Compound-Complex Sentence: A sentence that is composed of two or more principal clauses with one or more subordinate clauses. <i>See also</i> simple sentence; compound sentence; principal clause; subordinate clause.	2B	8

	Level & Book	Chapter
Compound Direct Object: Two or more direct objects that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single direct object for a transitive verb. <i>See also</i> direct object.	1B	7
Compound Element: Two or more of the same element—i.e., subjects, predicates, objects, adjectives, or adverbs—that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single element. <i>See also</i> coordinating conjunctions.	2B	2
Compound Noun: A noun made up of two or more words combined together as one. Usually they are united into a single word or joined with a hyphen, but sometimes they remain as separate words. (Also known as a compound word.) <i>See also</i> noun.	2A	5
Compound Object of the Preposition: Two or more nouns or pronouns that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as the object of a single preposition. <i>See also</i> noun; pronoun; coordinating conjunction; object of the preposition.	2B	2
Compound Personal Pronoun: A reflexive pronoun that is considered compound because it compresses two words into one—a pronoun and the suffix <i>-self</i> or <i>-selves</i> —and personal because it takes different forms for first, second, and third persons (i.e., <i>myself</i> , <i>yourself</i> , <i>himself</i> , <i>herself</i> , <i>itself</i> , <i>ourselves</i> , <i>yourselves</i> , <i>themselves</i>). <i>See also</i> reflexive pronoun, intensive pronoun.	3B	3
Compound Predicate Adjective: Two or more predicate adjectives that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single predicate adjective following a linking verb and modifying the subject. <i>See also</i> coordinating conjunction; predicate adjective; linking verb; subject.	2B	2
Compound Predicate Nominative: Two or more predicate nominatives that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single predicate nominative following a linking verb and renaming the subject. <i>See also</i> predicate nominative; linking verb; subject.	2B	2
Compound Sentence: A sentence that is composed of two or more principal clauses with no subordinate clauses. <i>See also</i> simple sentence; principal clause; subordinate clause.	2B	7

	Level & Book	Chapter
Compound Subject: Two or more subjects that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single subject in the sentence. <i>See also</i> subject.	1B	5
Compound Verb: Two or more verbs that are joined with a coordinating conjunction and that together function as a single verb for a single subject.	1B	6
Concrete Noun: A noun that names a thing that can be seen or touched. <i>See also</i> abstract noun.	3A	2
Conjunction: A part of speech that joins words, phrases, or clauses. Conjunctions indicate the relation between the elements that they join.	1A/1B 2A	1/5 8
Consonant: A letter of the alphabet that represents a constricted speech sound. The indefinite article <i>a</i> is used before words beginning with consonants, which are <i>b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y,</i> and <i>z</i> . <i>See also</i> vowel.	1A 2A	5 3
Contraction: A shortened form of two words that uses an apostrophe in place of the letters and spaces left out. <i>WOL Level 1</i> focuses on contractions with subject pronouns and verbs, such as <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i> or <i>they've</i> for <i>they have</i> , and on contractions with verbs and the adverb <i>not</i> , such as <i>didn't</i> for <i>did not</i> .	1A	8
Coordinate Adjectives: Two or more adjectives that modify a noun separately and require commas between them. Pairs or groups of adjectives that could become compound adjectives with the insertion of the coordinating conjunction <i>and</i> are usually coordinate adjectives. For example: The <i>selfish, busy</i> crab hid. <i>See also</i> adjective; noun; compound predicate adjective; coordinating conjunctions.	2B	2
Coordinating Conjunctions: Any of the seven conjunctions— <i>for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so</i> —that join elements that are grammatically equal, such as parts of speech, subjects or predicates, objects, or principal clauses. <i>See also</i> subject; predicate; objective element; principal clause.	2B	2
Cumulative Adjectives: Two or more adjectives that do not modify a noun separately. They accumulate (collect or gather) before the noun, each one modifying not just the noun but more precisely the noun as it is already modified by the other adjectives. No commas should separate them. For example: <i>Two tiny crabs</i> scattered. <i>See also</i> adjective; noun.	2B	2

	Level & Book	Chapter
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D

Declarative Sentence: One of the four kinds of sentences. It makes a statement and ends with a period.	1A 2A	1 1
Definite Article: The adjective <i>the</i> . It identifies a particular noun and is placed before nouns or the adjectives that modify them.	1A 2A	5 3
Definitive Adjective: A type of adjective that asks the questions <i>how many</i> (e.g., two; a, an), <i>whose</i> (Eden's), and <i>which one</i> (e.g., that; the). A definitive adjective limits or defines the noun it modifies. <i>See also</i> descriptive adjective.	2A	3
Descriptive Adjective: A type of adjective that asks the question <i>what kind</i> (e.g., yellow). It describes a quality of the noun it modifies. <i>See also</i> definitive adjective.	2A	3
Diagram: A visual representation or drawing of a sentence depicting the function of each word and its relationship to the other parts of the sentence.	2A	1
Direct Object: A direct object is an objective element that tells what the subject is acting on. It is a noun or pronoun after a transitive verb. It answers the question <i>what</i> or <i>whom</i> after the verb and is labeled <i>do</i> .	1A 2A	6 4

E

Eight Parts of Speech: The eight parts of speech are classes of words with the same kind of meaning and use. And they are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, and interjections.	1A 2A	1 1
Essential Element: A word, phrase, or clause that restricts the basic meaning of a noun. Essential elements should not be enclosed in commas. <i>See also</i> nonessential element.	2B	8
Essential Relative Clause: A relative clause that restricts the basic meaning of the noun or pronoun it modifies. Essential relative clauses should not be enclosed in commas. <i>See also</i> relative clause, essential element.	3A	8
Exclamatory Sentence: One of the four kinds of sentences. It expresses strong feeling and ends with an exclamation point.	1A 2A	1 1

	Level & Book	Chapter
F		
First Person: A grammatical category of pronouns used by the speaker to refer to himself or herself (i.e., the subject pronouns <i>I</i> or <i>we</i> and the object pronouns <i>me</i> or <i>us</i>). <i>See also</i> person.	1A	7
Fragment: A group of words that is not a complete sentence because it lacks a subject, a predicate, or both.	1B	4
G		
Gender: A grammatical category or classification into which nouns and pronouns can be sorted—namely <i>male</i> , <i>female</i> , or <i>neuter</i> . For example: a <i>king</i> is masculine (<i>he</i> is a male); a <i>queen</i> is feminine (<i>she</i> is a female); or a <i>throne</i> is neuter (<i>it</i> is neither masculine nor feminine).	1B	2
Gerund: A verbal always ending in <i>-ing</i> that is used as a noun. <i>See also</i> participle, infinitive, verbal.	3B	4
H		
Helping Verb: A verb that helps another verb express its meaning. It is placed alongside a transitive, linking, or intransitive verb to form a verb phrase. Both words work together as one action. The helping verbs are <i>am</i> , <i>is</i> , <i>are</i> , <i>was</i> , <i>were</i> , <i>be</i> , <i>being</i> , <i>been</i> , <i>have</i> , <i>has</i> , <i>had</i> , <i>do</i> , <i>did</i> , <i>does</i> , <i>may</i> , <i>might</i> , <i>must</i> , <i>should</i> , <i>would</i> , <i>could</i> , <i>shall</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>can</i> .	1A 2A	3 1/4
Homonym: Homonyms are words that sound the same but have different meanings and sometimes spelling. For example, <i>bark</i> meaning the sound a dog makes and <i>bark</i> meaning the outer covering of a tree are homonyms.	1B	6
I		
Imperative Sentence: One of the four kinds of sentences. It gives a command and ends with a period or exclamation point.	1A 2A	1 1
Implied Subject: A subject that does not appear in the sentence but is indirectly expressed or suggested. <i>See also</i> subject.	1A 2A	1 1

	Level & Book	Chapter
Indefinite Article: The adjective <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> . It is placed before nonspecific nouns and identifies them as being singular; <i>a</i> is used before nouns or adjectives beginning with a consonant, and <i>an</i> is used before nouns or adjectives beginning with a vowel sound.	1A 2A	5 3
Indirect Object: An indirect object is an objective element receiving what the direct object names. It is a noun or pronoun after the transitive verb and before the direct object.	3A	6
Infinitive: A verbal that usually starts with the word <i>to</i> and that is used as an adjective, noun, or adverb. <i>See also</i> gerund, participle, verbal.	3B	4
Intensive Pronoun: A compound personal pronoun (i.e., <i>myself</i> , <i>yourself</i> , <i>himself</i> , <i>herself</i> , <i>itself</i> , <i>ourselves</i> , <i>yourselves</i> , <i>themselves</i>) often placed immediately after its antecedent to emphasize it, as in “The poet herself will conduct the workshop.” <i>See also</i> compound personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun.	3B	3
Interjection: A part of speech that is a word or short phrase that expresses strong emotion. It is inserted into a sentence or stands alone.	1A 2B	1 7
Interrogative Adverb: One of the words <i>how</i> , <i>when</i> , <i>where</i> , or <i>why</i> when it is used to form an interrogative sentence, such as “ <i>When</i> do we start grammar class?”	3B	1
Interrogative Pronoun: A pronoun— <i>who</i> , <i>whose</i> , <i>whom</i> , <i>which</i> , or <i>what</i> —that may act as a subject, an object, or an adjective within a question.	2B	6
Interrogative Sentence: One of the four kinds of sentences. It asks a question and ends with a question mark.	1A 2A	1 1
Intransitive Verb: A verb that does not take an objective element or join the subject to the predicate.	1A 2A	6 4
Introductory Prepositional Phrase: An adverbial prepositional phrase that is located at the beginning of a sentence and modifies the verb.	1B	4
Irregular Verb: A verb that has a past participle not formed with the regular <i>-ed</i> ending. <i>See also</i> participle, past participle.	3B	4

	Level & Book	Chapter
L		
Linking Verb: A verb that joins the subject to the predicate. In other words, it is the glue that joins the subject either to a noun that renames the subject or to an adjective that describes the subject. Linking verbs express a state of being.	1A 2A	3 4/5/6
M		
Misplaced Modifier: A word, phrase, or clause incorrectly separated from the word it modifies. <i>See also</i> phrase, clause.	3B	4
Modifier: A word (or a group of words) that modifies or changes the meaning of word. Adjectives modify nouns and pronouns; adverbs usually modify verbs, but adverbs also can modify adjectives and other adverbs.	1A 2A	4 2/3
N		
Neuter: The gender of a pronoun that is neither male nor female. The pronoun it is neuter, and sometimes the pronouns <i>they</i> and <i>them</i> can be neuter.	1B	2
Nominative Case: The grammatical term indicating that a noun or pronoun is the subject in a sentence or a clause rather than its object. <i>See</i> subjective case.	1A 2A	7 8
Nonessential Element: A word, phrase, or clause that adds clarity to a sentence but does not change the basic meaning of any of the other words in the sentence. A comma is used both before and after a nonessential element to separate it from the essential part of the sentence. <i>See also</i> essential element.	2B	8
Nonessential Relative Clause: A relative clause that adds clarity to the sentence but does not change the basic meaning of the noun or pronoun that it modifies. Nonessential relative clauses should be enclosed in commas. <i>See also</i> relative clause, nonessential element.	3A	8
Noun: A noun is a part of speech. It names a person, place, or thing. A noun names a quality or an idea. A noun is a part of speech. It names a person, place, or thing. A noun may be singular or plural.	1A 2A	2 1

	Level & Book	Chapter
Number: A property of a noun or pronoun that tells how many. Singular in number means only one, and plural in number means more than one.	1A	3
O		
Object of the Preposition: The noun or pronoun after the preposition. It is joined by the preposition to another word in the sentence in a modifying relationship.	1B	1
Object Pronoun: A personal pronoun that is used as a direct object or the object of the preposition (i.e., <i>me, us, you, him, her, it, them</i>).	1A	7
Objective Case: The grammatical term indicating that a noun or pronoun is the object in a sentence, phrase, or clause rather than its subject.	2A	8
Objective Element: A word or group of words that completes the meaning of the action verb. <i>See also</i> direct object. Objective elements can also include indirect objects or the objects of prepositions.	1A 2A	6 4
Order of Analysis: The order in which sentences are analyzed: phrases, clauses, principal elements, and modifiers.	1B	3
Ordinal Adjective: A word that denotes what place an object is in an order, such as <i>first, second, third, or fourth</i> .	1A 2A	5 3
Oxford Comma: The last comma before the conjunction in a series of words, phrases, or subordinate clauses. It should not be omitted. It is called the Oxford comma after the Oxford University Press, which insists on including such commas in its publications. <i>See</i> serial comma.	2A	8
P		
Participle: A form of a verb usually ending in <i>-ed, -en, -t, or -ing</i> , which is either used with a helping verb as a predicate or used as an adjective modifying a noun or pronoun. <i>See also</i> verbal, present participle, past participle.	3B	4

	Level & Book	Chapter
Particle: A word that on its own would be an adverb or a preposition, but when used together with certain verbs has meaning and a grammatical function only in relation to the other word, as the word <i>to</i> in an infinitive (<i>to read, to write, to think</i>) or as other adverbials in phrasal verbs (<i>add up, boil down, dust off</i>). <i>See also</i> infinitive, phrasal verb.	3B	6
Passive Voice: A verb is in the passive voice when the subject <i>receives</i> the action, as in “The sonnet <i>was written</i> by a poet.”	3B	4
Past Participle: A form of a verb ending in <i>-ed</i> unless irregular and used either with a helping verb as a predicate or as an adjective modifying a noun or a pronoun. <i>See also</i> participle, present participle, verbal.	3B	4
Perfect Tense: The form of a verb that expresses how one action has been, had been, or will have been completed in relation to another action. The perfect tenses (present perfect, past perfect, future perfect) all include a form of the helping verb <i>to have</i> along with the past or present participle (e.g., <i>has hiked, had hiked, will have hiked</i>). <i>See also</i> progressive tense, simple tense, and verb tense.	3A	1
Person: A property of a noun or pronoun that distinguishes between speaker, addressee, and others. There are three persons: first person (the one speaking), second person (the one being spoken to), and third person (the one being spoken about).	1A	7
Personal Pronoun: A pronoun that primarily takes the place of names of persons, hence <i>personal</i> pronoun. However, it can replace things too. <i>See also</i> pronoun; object pronoun; subject pronoun.	1A	7
Personification: A poetic figure of speech in which human qualities are given to animals or nonhuman things.	2A	7
Phrasal Verb: A verb that is made up of a main verb and an adverb, a preposition, or both. Some common examples are <i>break in, come apart, drop out, look forward to, or make up</i> .	3B	8
Phrase: A group of words behaving like one part of speech. A phrase does not contain a subject and a predicate.	1A	3
Plural: A grammatical category for nouns, pronouns, and verbs that refer to more than one thing.	1A	3

	Level & Book	Chapter
Possessive Case: The grammatical term indicating that a noun or pronoun possesses something.	2A	8
Possessive Noun: A noun that shows ownership and behaves like an adjective. Possessive nouns modify other nouns. They use an apostrophe and may use the letter <i>s</i> .	2A	8
Possessive Pronoun: A pronoun that shows ownership. Possessive pronouns such as <i>my, your, his, her, its, our, your,</i> and <i>their</i> behave like adjectives and modify nouns. Possessive pronouns such as <i>mine, yours, his, hers, its, yours,</i> and <i>theirs</i> behave like nouns and are also called absolute possessive pronouns. Possessive pronouns never include apostrophes. <i>See also</i> pronoun; adjective; noun.	2B	5
Predicate: One of the principal elements in a sentence. It tells something about the subject like what it is doing or being.	1A 2A	2 1/4–7
Predicate Adjective: An adjective that follows a linking verb in a sentence and that describes a quality of the subject. <i>See also</i> subject complement.	2A	6/7
Predicate Nominative: A noun or pronoun that follows a linking verb in a sentence and that renames the subject. <i>See also</i> subject complement.	2A	5/7
Predicate Verb: An action verb showing what the subject does. If it is a transitive verb, it takes a direct object. If it is an intransitive verb, it does not.	1A 2A	3 4/7
Preposition: A preposition is a part of speech used to show the relationship between certain words in a sentence. It is a word that joins its object, which is the noun or pronoun that follows it, to another word in a sentence, which can be a noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, or adjective. <i>WOL Level 1</i> focuses on prepositions that connect a noun or pronoun to a verb, showing a relationship of location (<i>where</i>), time (<i>when</i>), or manner (<i>how</i>). Some of the most common prepositions are <i>aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, at, by, down, during, except, for, from, inside, in, into, near, of, off, on, out, outside, over, past, since, through, throughout, to, toward, under, up, until, upon, with, within, without, underneath.</i>	1B	3

	Level & Book	Chapter
Prepositional Phrase: A group of words including a preposition, an object of the preposition, and any words that modify that object. All these words together behave as a single part of speech, either an adverb or an adjective.	1B	3
Present Participle: A form of a verb ending in <i>-ing</i> and used either with a helping verb as a predicate or as an adjective modifying a noun or pronoun. <i>See also</i> participle, past participle, verbal.	3B	4
Principal Clause: A group of words containing a subject and a predicate and able to stand independently as a sentence.	1A	4
Principal Elements: Principal elements are the parts of the sentence that are needed for the sentence to be completed. Subject and predicate are those parts.	1A 2A	2 1
Progressive Tense: The form of a verb that describes actions in progress, consisting of a form of <i>be</i> followed by a present participle. The simple and perfect tenses have progressive forms, as in “is hiking,” “was hiking,” “will be hiking,” “has been hiking,” “had been hiking,” and “will have been hiking.” <i>See also</i> perfect tense, simple tense, and verb tense.	3A	1
Pronoun: A pronoun is a part of speech used in place of a noun or of more than one noun. A pronoun is a part of speech.	1A 2A	7 1
Proper Adjective: A proper noun that is used as an adjective, sometimes with a slight change to its ending: e.g., <i>American, English, Victorian</i> .	2A	6
Proper Noun: A noun that refers to a particular person, place, thing, or idea. It begins with a capital letter. <i>See also</i> common noun; noun.	1B 2A	3 4

R

Reflexive Pronoun: A compound personal pronoun that functions as a direct object, an indirect object, an object of the preposition, or a predicate nominative, and that has an antecedent in the same sentence (i.e., <i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i>). <i>See also</i> compound personal pronoun.	3B	3
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	Level & Book	Chapter
Relative Clause: A subordinate clause beginning with a relative pronoun and functioning as an adjective to modify a noun in the sentence. <i>See also</i> clause, relative pronoun.	2B	8
Relative Pronoun: A pronoun used at the beginning of a relative clause. Relative pronouns such as <i>who</i> , <i>which</i> , and <i>that</i> connect the relative clause to the principal clause. <i>See also</i> pronoun, clause, relative clause.	2B	8
Rhetorical Question: An interrogative sentence used for stylistic effect with no expectation of an answer.	3A	1

S

Second Person: A grammatical category for pronouns used by the speaker to refer to the person being spoken <i>to</i> (i.e., <i>you</i> as either a singular or plural subject pronoun or a singular or plural object pronoun). <i>See also</i> person.	1A	7
Sensory Linking Verbs: A verb that, like other linking verbs, joins the subject to the predicate. Sensory linking verbs, such as <i>appear</i> , <i>become</i> , <i>feel</i> , <i>look</i> , <i>seem</i> , <i>smell</i> , <i>stay</i> , <i>sound</i> , <i>taste</i> , <i>grow</i> , and <i>remain</i> , are related to the five senses and show a perceived connection between a subject and a predicate. <i>See also</i> Be Verbs, linking verb.	3A	5
Sentence: A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought. There are four kinds of them: Declarative Sentence—Makes a statement. Interrogative Sentence—Asks a question. Imperative Sentence—Gives a command. Exclamatory Sentence—Expresses strong feeling.	1A 2A	1 1
Serial Comma: The last comma before the conjunction in a series of words, phrases, or subordinate clauses. It should not be omitted. <i>See</i> Oxford comma.	2A	8
Simple Predicate: The verb or verb phrase in a sentence.	1A 2A	3 4
Simple Sentence: A sentence that is one principal clause with no subordinate clauses. <i>See also</i> compound sentence; compound-complex sentence.	2B	7

	Level & Book	Chapter
Simple Tense: The past, present, or future form of a verb (e.g., Tom <i>hiked</i> ; Tom <i>hikes</i> ; Tom <i>will hike</i>). <i>See also</i> perfect tense, progressive tense, and verb tense.	3A	1
Singular: A grammatical category for nouns, pronouns, and verbs that refer to only one thing.	1A	3
Split Infinitive: A construction in which an adverb is placed between the two words of an infinitive, as in <i>to always sail</i> . It is usually considered a grammatical error but occasionally used to emphasize the verb at the heart of the verbal. <i>See also</i> adverb, infinitive, bare infinitive, particle.	3B	6
Stanza: A group of lines in a poem.	1A 2A	3 multiple
Subject: One of the principal elements in a sentence. It is a noun or pronoun and is what the sentence is about.	1A 2A	1 1
Subject Complement: Either a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective that is joined to the subject by a linking verb and that completes the subject by renaming it or by modifying it. <i>See also</i> predicate nominative; predicate adjective; subject.	2A	5/6
Subject Pronoun: A personal pronoun that is used as the subject in a sentence (i.e., <i>I, we, you, he, she, it, they</i>).	1A	7
Subjective Case: The grammatical term indicating that a noun or pronoun is the subject in a sentence or a clause rather than its object. <i>See</i> nominative case.	2A	8
Subject-Verb Agreement: A correct sentence structure in which the subject and verb agree in person (first, second, or third person) and number (singular or plural).	1B	2
Subordinate Clause: A group of words containing a subject and a predicate and functioning as a single part of speech—an adjective, an adverb, or a noun. A subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. <i>See also</i> clause, adjective, adverb, subject, predicate.	2B	8
Subordinate Element: A word (or a group of words) that changes or limits the meaning of the principal elements. Also known as modifiers.	1A 2A	4 2

	Level & Book	Chapter
Subordinating Conjunction: A conjunction that introduces an adverbial subordinate clause, joining it to the principal clause. Some of the most common subordinating conjunctions are <i>after, although, as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, because, before, but that, for, how, if, in order that, lest, since, so that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, while, why</i> . See also conjunction, clause, subordinate clause, principal clause.	3B	2
Suffix: A letter or letters added to the end of a word to change its meaning.	2A	2
Synonym: Synonyms are words that mean almost the same thing. For example, <i>happy</i> and <i>glad</i> are synonyms.	1B	6
Syntax: Word order. It is the way in which words are combined to form phrases, clauses, or sentences.	1A	2
	2A	1

T

Tense: See verb tense.	1A	3
	2A	4
Third Person: A grammatical category for pronouns used by the speaker to refer to anyone or anything being spoken <i>about</i> that is not the speaker or the one addressed (i.e., the subject pronouns <i>he, she, it, or they</i> and the object pronouns <i>him, her, or them</i>). See also person.	1A	7
Transitive Verb: A verb that takes an objective element (i.e., a direct object). It transitions from the subject to the direct object.	1A	6
	2A	4

V

Verb: A part of speech that shows action or a state of being.	1A	3
	2A	1
Verb Phrase: A helping verb together with either an action verb or a linking verb.	1A	3
	2A	1/5

	Level & Book	Chapter
Verb Tense: The form that a verb takes to indicate <i>when</i> an action occurs. Tenses are classified as present, past, and future; each tense has a simple, perfect, and progressive form. <i>See also</i> perfect tense, progressive tense, and simple tense.	1A 2A 3A	3 1/5 1
Verbal: A form of a verb that is used as an adjective, noun, or adverb in a sentence. <i>See also</i> participle, gerund, infinitive.	3B	4
Voice: A quality of a verb that shows whether the subject acts (active voice) or is acted upon (passive voice). <i>See also</i> verb, active voice, passive voice.	3B	4
Vowel: A letter of the alphabet that represents a voiced speech sound. The indefinite article <i>an</i> is used before words beginning with vowels: <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> .	1A 2A	5 3

Song Lyrics

Eight Parts of Speech (1–1)

The eight parts of speech are classes of words
with the same kind of meaning and use.

They are: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs,
prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, interjections.

These are the eight parts of speech,
classes of words with the same kind of meaning and use. (*Repeat.*)

Sentence (1–2)

A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.

There are four kinds of sentences:

Declarative sentence—makes a statement.

Interrogative sentence—asks a question.

Imperative sentence—gives a command.

Exclamatory sentence—expresses strong feelings.

A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.

There are four kinds of sentences. (*Repeat.*)

Principal Elements (1–3)

Principal elements are the parts of the sentence
that are needed for the sentence to be completed.

Subject and predicate are those two parts.

Subject and Predicate (1–4)

A subject, a subject is a noun or a pronoun
and is what the sentence is about (*clap, clap*).

A predicate, a predicate tells us something about the subject
like what it is doing or being (*clap, clap*).

Noun (1–5)

A noun is a part of speech.

It names a person, place, or thing.

A noun names a quality or an idea.

A noun is a part of speech.

It names a person, place, or thing.

A noun may be singular (*clap*) or plural (*clap clap clap*). (*Repeat.*)

Verb and Helping Verb (1–6)

A verb is a part of speech. (*echo*)

A verb shows action or a state of being. (*echo*)

A verb is a part of speech. (*echo*)

A verb shows action or a state of being. (*echo*)

A helping verb helps another verb to express its meaning.

A helping verb stands near the verb.

It is called an auxiliary.

Am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been, has, have, had, do, does,

did, may, might, must, should, could, would, shall, will, *and* can.

A helping verb stands near the verb and is called an auxiliary.

A helping verb stands near the verb. It is called an auxiliary.

Adverb (1–7)

An adverb is a part of speech.

It modifies a verb or another adverb.

It can also modify an adjective

and answers three questions: *how?* *when?* or *where?*

It answers three questions: *how?* *when?* or *where?*

Adjective (1–8)

An adjective is a part of speech

used to describe or define

the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

It answers the questions:

How many? (*echo*)

Whose? (*echo*)

Which one? (*echo*)

or *What kind?* (*echo*)

It modifies a noun or pronoun.

It modifies a noun or pronoun.

Direct Object (1–9)

d-o, d-o

A direct object is an objective element
that tells what the subject is acting on.

d-o, d-o

It's a noun or pronoun after a transitive verb.

d-o, d-o

It answers the question *what* or *whom* after the verb
and is labeled *do*.

Four Classes of Verbs (1–10)

These are the four classes of verbs:

The four classes of verbs are transitive verbs, linking verbs,
intransitive verbs, and helping verbs.

These are the four classes of verbs.

A transitive verb takes an objective element.

A linking verb joins a subject to a predicate.

An intransitive verb does not take an objective element
or join a subject to a predicate.

A helping verb helps another verb express its meaning.

A helping verb helps another verb express its meaning.

These are the four classes of verbs.

These are the four classes of verbs.

Pronoun (1–11)

A pronoun is a part of speech
used in place of a noun or nouns.

A pronoun is a part of speech
used in place of a noun or nouns.

A pronoun is a part of speech.

Subject Pronouns (1–12)

Subject pronouns are in the nominative case:

I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they (*repeat*).

Subject pronouns are in the nominative case:

I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they (*repeat*).

Antecedent (1–13)

The antecedent is a noun, clause, or phrase
to which a pronoun refers.

If the antecedent is singular,
then the pronoun is singular too.

But if the noun, clause, or phrase is plural,
then the pronoun must be plural too.

The antecedent determines which pronoun is used.

Fable (1–14)

A fable (*echo*)
is a moral tale.

A fable (*echo*)
is not a fairy tale.

A fable is short, direct, and clear.

Animals are characters sneaky or sincere.

Teaching lessons not to be deceived,
fables warn us not to be naive.

Object Pronouns (1–15)

Object pronouns are in the objective case.

Me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them
Me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them.

Object pronouns are in the objective case.

Me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them
Me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them
Me, you, him, her, it, us, you, them.

Preposition (1–16)

A preposition (*a preposition*)
is a part of speech (*is a part of speech*)
used to show the relationship
between certain words in a sentence (*in a sentence*). (*Repeat.*)

List of Prepositions (1–17)

Aboard, about, above, across, after, against, along, among, around

Preposition Words

Before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, at, by

Preposition Words

Down, during, except, for, from, inside, in, into, near

Preposition Words

Of, off, on, out, outside, over, past, since, through

Preposition Words

Throughout, to, toward,

Under, up, until,

Upon, with, within,

Without, underneath

Preposition Words

Preposition Words

Preposition Words!

Phrase (1–18)

A phrase is a group of words
behaving like one part of speech
not containing a subject or a predicate. (*Repeat.*)

Object of the Preposition (1–19)

The object of the preposition
The object of the preposition
is the noun or pronoun
after the preposition. (*Repeat.*)

Conjunction (1–20)

A conjunction is a part of speech.
It joins elements of the same rank or name.
When two or more words are joined this way,
they're called compounds. (*Repeat.*)

Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms (1–21)

Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms
Synonyms are words that mean almost the same thing.
Antonyms are words that have the opposite meaning.
Homonyms are words that sound the same, but have different meaning and
sometimes spelling—words that sound the same, but do not mean the
same thing.

Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms
Synonyms: little and small
Antonyms: short and tall
Homonyms: threw the ball, walk through the mall
Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms
Synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.

Folktale (2–1)

A folktale is a simple tale written in a certain way,
with characters, a setting,
a problem, a goal,
events, and a resolution.
These tales of peasant life
shape morals and poke fun
at everyday occurrences.
They're orally passed on.

Be Verbs (2–2)

Be Verbs express a state of being
when they behave like linking verbs:
am, is, are, was, were, be, being, been. (*repeat*)
Be Verbs. (*Repeat.*)

Predicate Nominative and Predicate Adjective (2–3)

A predicate nominative and predicate adjective are the subject complements.

They are complements that usually follow the linking verb in a sentence.

A predicate nominative is a noun or pronoun that renames the subject.

A predicate adjective is an adjective that describes a quality of the subject.

Possessive Nouns (2–4)

Possessive nouns show ownerships.

They're nouns that behave like adjectives.

They modify other nouns.

They use an apostrophe and may use the letter *s*. (*Repeat.*)

The Five Rules of Commas (2–5)

Five rules of commas.

Commas in a Series:

Use commas to separate items written in a series that includes words, phrases, and subordinate clauses.

Separating Adjectives:

Use a comma to separate two or more adjectives; use *the* and test to see if a comma is needed.

Comma Conjunction:

Use a comma before coordinate conjunctions (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*) in a compound sentence.

Nonessential Elements:

Use commas to enclose non-essential phrases or clauses that are not essential to the sentence.

Inverted Elements:

Use a comma after a phrase or a subordinate clause that is at the beginning of a sentence; a comma must be used.

Five rules of commas.

Clause (2–6)

A clause is a group of words

behaving like one part of speech,

containing a subject and a predicate. (*Repeat.*)

Myth (2–7)

A myth is a story
That serves to unfold parts of
Ancient man's views
And beliefs of deities
And the universe.
A myth is a story. (*Repeat.*)

Possessive Pronouns (2–8)

Possessive pronouns (*echo*) (*repeat*)
my, your, his, her, its,
our, your, their. (*repeat*)
Possessive pronouns act like adjectives. (*echo*)
Possessive pronouns (*echo*)
Possessive pronouns.

Legend (2–9)

A legend is a story coming down from the past.
It seems historical, but not verifiable.
It celebrates heroes and tells of honor.
It warns of treason and misdeeds.
A legend is a story coming down from the past.

Interrogative Pronouns (2–10)

Interrogative pronouns:
Who, whose, whom, which, what
Interrogative pronouns,
They may act as a subject, an object, or an adjective
within a question:
Who, whose, whom, which, what.

Simple, Compound, and Complex Sentences (2–11)

A simple sentence contains the principal clause,
which is the subject and the predicate.
A compound sentence has two principal clauses
joined by a conjunction:

for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

A complex sentence has a principal clause
joined by one or more subordinate clauses.

A compound-complex sentence is a compound sentence
that has at least one subordinate clause.

Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

Simple, Compound, Complex Sentences

Interjection (2–12)

An interjection is a part of speech
often used with an exclamation point.

An interjection shows strong feeling.

It's used in a sudden burst of thought. (*Repeat.*)

Relative Pronoun and Relative Clause (2–13)

Relative pronouns are pronouns used at the beginning of a relative clause:

Who, which, that are the pronouns used to connect to the principal clause.

A relative clause has a subject and a predicate,
and modifies a noun.

The relative pronouns: *who, which, that*
are at the beginning of a relative clause.

Adverbial Elements (3–1)

Adverbial elements are the elements that modify a verb.

They answer the questions *how? when? why?* and *where?*

The adverbial elements that modify a verb are:

infinitives, adverbial nouns, adverbial clauses, adverbs,
and prepositional phrases.

Absolute Possessive Pronouns (3–2)

Absolute possessive pronouns show possession of the nouns they represent.

They stand alone and do not modify nouns in a sentence.

They are: *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.*

mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.

Absolute possessive pronouns show possession of the nouns they represent. They stand alone and do not modify nouns in a sentence.

Sensory Linking Verbs (3–3)

Sensory linking verbs are linking verbs that are related to the five senses. They join the subject to the predicate.

Some common sensory linking verbs are: *appear, sound, become, taste, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, smell, and stay.*

Sensory linking verbs are linking verbs that are related to the five senses. They join the subject to the predicate.

Poetry (3–4)

Poetry's a written expression of art
using meter, rhyme, or form.

Its purpose is to move or delight
or sustain the reader's soul.

Indirect Object (3–5)

i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o

Indirect objects are objective elements
receiving what the direct object names.

i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o

They are nouns or could be pronouns.

They answer the questions:

to what? or to whom? for what? or for whom?

After the verb and before the *d-o*.

They're labeled *i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o, i-o*.

Classes of Adverbs (3–6)

Adverbs may be divided into five classes
based on their meaning and their use. (*Repeat.*)

They are adverbs of time, adverbs of manner,
adverbs of cause, adverbs of place, and adverbs of degree. (*Repeat.*)

Adverbs may be divided into five classes
based on their meaning and their use.

Subordinating Conjunctions (3–7)

Subordinating conjunctions join the adverbial clause to the
word it modifies. (*Repeat.*)

They are:

*after, although, as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, be-
cause, before, but that, for, how, if, in order that, lest, since, so
that, than, that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where,
whereas, wherever, while, and why.*

Subordinating conjunctions join the adverbial clause to the
word it modifies. (*Repeat.*)

Reflexive Pronouns (3–8)

Reflexive pronouns are compound personal pronouns.
Their antecedents are nouns or pronouns that precede them.

Reflexive pronouns may be:

direct objects, objects of prepositions, indirect objects, or
predicate nominatives

direct objects, objects of prepositions, indirect objects, or
predicate nominatives

Reflexive pronouns are compound personal pronouns.

They are: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves,
yourselves, themselves*

*myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves,
yourselves, themselves.*

Reflexive pronouns are compound personal pronouns.

Verbal (3–9)

A *verbal* is a form of a verb that is used as an adjective,
noun, or adverb in a sentence. (*Repeat.*)

A *participle* is a verbal that is used as an adjective ending
in *-ed, -en, -t, or -ing.*

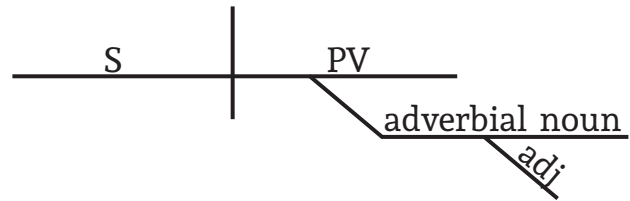
A *gerund* is a verbal that is used as a noun,
always ending in the letters *i-n-g.*

An *infinitive* is a verbal that is used as an adjective, noun, or adverb and usually starts with the word *to*.
A *verbal* is a form of a verb that is used as an adjective, noun, or adverb in a sentence. (*Repeat.*)

Diagramming Overview

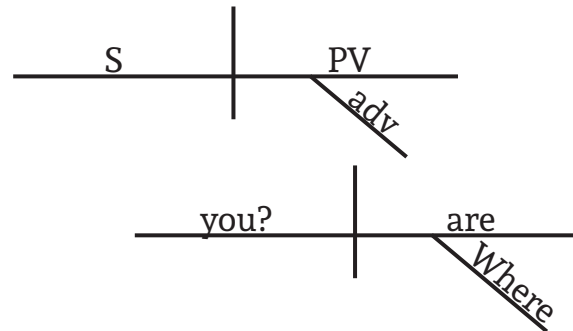
Adverbial Noun Phrase

When you diagram an adverbial noun phrase, place it beneath the verb it modifies. First a diagonal line is drawn from the baseline with a horizontal line stemming from it. Leave the diagonal line blank, and write the adverbial noun on the stemming horizontal line.



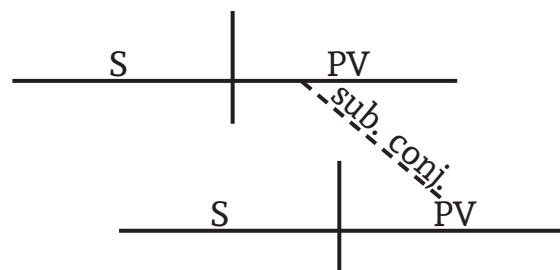
Interrogative Adverb

When you diagram an interrogative adverb, draw a diagonal line under the word that it modifies and write the adverb on the slanted line.



Adverbial Clause

When an adverbial clause is diagrammed, the subordinate clause is placed below the principal clause with a diagonal dotted line connecting the verb of the principal clause to the verb of the subordinate clause. The subordinating conjunction is written on the diagonal line. The adverbial clause is diagrammed with the subject on the left of the baseline, a vertical dividing line in the middle, and the predicate on the right of the dividing line.



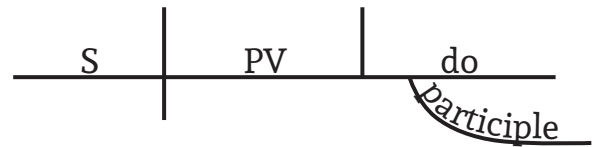
Reflexive Pronoun

When you diagram a reflexive pronoun, treat it just as you would a direct object, indirect object, predicate nominative, or object of a preposition, depending on how the reflexive pronoun is functioning in the sentence.

See the diagrams for direct object, indirect object, predicate nominative, or object of a preposition in WOL3A.

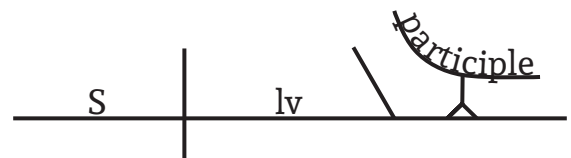
Participle as an Attributive Adjective

When diagramming a participle that is functioning as an attributive (descriptive) adjective, draw a curved line beneath the noun or pronoun that it is modifying. Write the participle along the curved line.



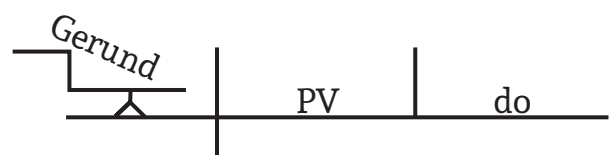
Participle as a Predicate Adjective

When diagramming a participle that is functioning as a predicate adjective, draw a curved line that rests on a pedestal, or feet, which is placed on the line. Write the participle along the curved line.



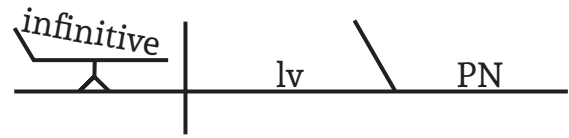
Gerund

When diagramming a gerund functioning as a subject, direct object, or predicate nominative, draw in its position a stair-step figure that rests on a pedestal, placing the *-ing* on the bottom step. Write the gerund along the steps.



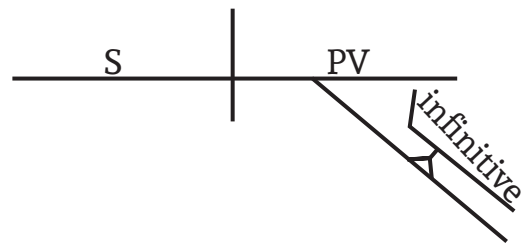
Infinitive as a Subject

When diagramming an infinitive as a noun, draw a lawn chair that rests on a pedestal, or feet, which is placed on the horizontal line. Write the infinitive in two parts: the particle *to* on the diagonal line and the verb on the horizontal line.



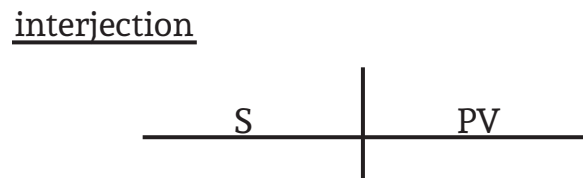
Infinitive as an Adverb or an Adjective

When diagramming an infinitive as an adverb or an adjective, draw the lawn chair that rests on a pedestal, or feet, which is placed beneath the horizontal line, on the diagonal modifying line. Write the infinitive in two parts: the particle *to* on the diagonal line and the verb on the horizontal line.



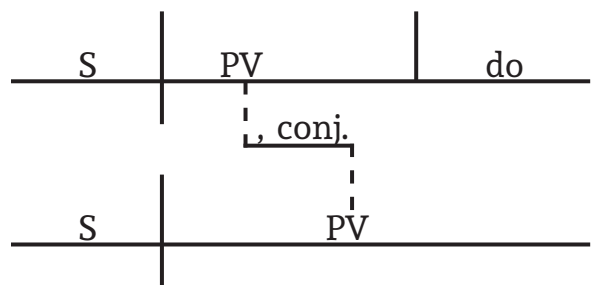
Interjection

When diagramming an interjection, place a line above the diagram with no modifying lines connecting it to the sentence and write the interjection on it.



Compound Sentences

When you diagram compound sentences, the first principal clause is placed over the second principal clause with the coordinating conjunction, along with the comma, resting on a horizontal "step" between them. That step is connected to each clause with two vertical dotted lines. Make sure the dotted lines connect the two verbs of the two clauses. If there is an interjection, it is placed above the diagram with no modifying lines connecting it to the sentence.

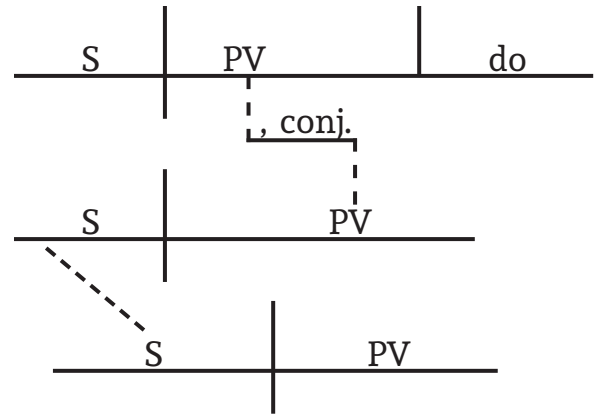


Compound–Complex Sentence

When you diagram compound-complex sentences, the first principal clause is placed over the second principal clause with the coordinating conjunction, along with the comma, resting on a horizontal step between them. That step is connected to each clause with two vertical dotted lines. Make sure the dotted lines connect the two verbs of the two clauses. The subordinate clause is placed below the principal clause it modifies.

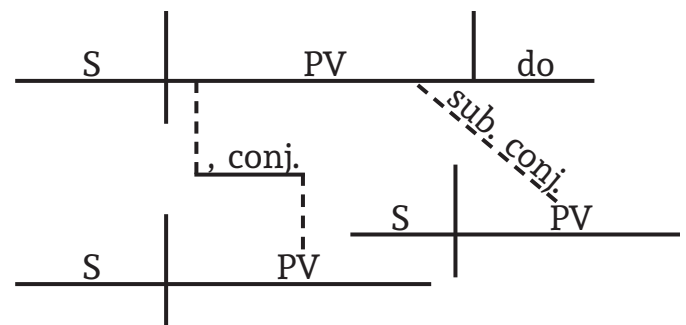
Relative (Adjectival) Clause

When you diagram a compound-complex sentence with a relative clause, the first principal clause is placed over the second principal clause with the coordinating conjunction, along with the comma, resting on a horizontal step between them. That step is connected to each clause with two vertical dotted lines. The adjectival clause is placed below the principal clause as well, with a diagonal dotted line connecting the relative pronoun to its antecedent.



Adverbial Clause

When you diagram a compound-complex sentence with an adverbial clause, the first principal clause is placed over the second principal clause with the coordinating conjunction, along with the comma, resting on a horizontal step between them. That step is connected to each clause with two vertical dotted lines. A diagonal dotted line connects the principal predicate verbs with the predicate verb from the adverbial clause. Write the subordinating conjunction along the dotted line.



About the Title

The title of this series was inspired by a passage in a small book by Josef Pieper titled *Abuse of Language—Abuse of Power*. In the book, Pieper writes,

[T]he well-ordered human existence, including especially its social dimension, is essentially based on the well-ordered language employed. A well-ordered language here does not primarily mean its formal perfection, even though I agree . . . that every correctly placed comma is decisive. No, a language is well ordered when its words express reality with as little omission as possible.¹

Language is the means by which we make sense of reality. It is the medium by which we perceive truth. Therefore, a well-ordered language—one that best represents reality with as little distortion as possible—would provide the best access to truth. Language education, then, should be focused on developing as complete and accurate an understanding of language as possible.

While the pursuit of truth through language involves careful thinking (logic) and eloquent expression (rhetoric), the youngest students must first acquire a solid foundation in the structure and function of the language itself (grammar). Mirroring the well-ordered nature of language, effective educators employ an approach to language instruction that is itself well-ordered, structured, and disciplined. Critics of a well-organized and disciplined approach often confuse its form with the disposition of those who employ it. The disciplined approach to language study can be employed through intimidation and aggression, but it can just as easily be administered with love and compassion. The disciplined approach—often mischaracterized as “drill-and-kill”—actually respects the humanity of the student because it acknowledges that children learn differently than mature adults do.

For children to feast upon the rich cuisine of that which is good, true, and beautiful, they should first be shown how to taste, savor, and digest what they encounter. Without

1. Josef Pieper, *Abuse of Language—Abuse of Power* (San Francisco: Ignatius Press, 1992), 36.

proper instruction that will cultivate their taste, students may turn from the “feast” in disgust, reject further sustenance, and perhaps never return. By acquiring a well-ordered language, students will also acquire that taste for language that will lead them to the great feast that awaits. To impart this taste is to avoid one of the greatest errors of modern educational theory, which is the assumption that children can learn without first acquiring those tools of learning that we call the language arts.

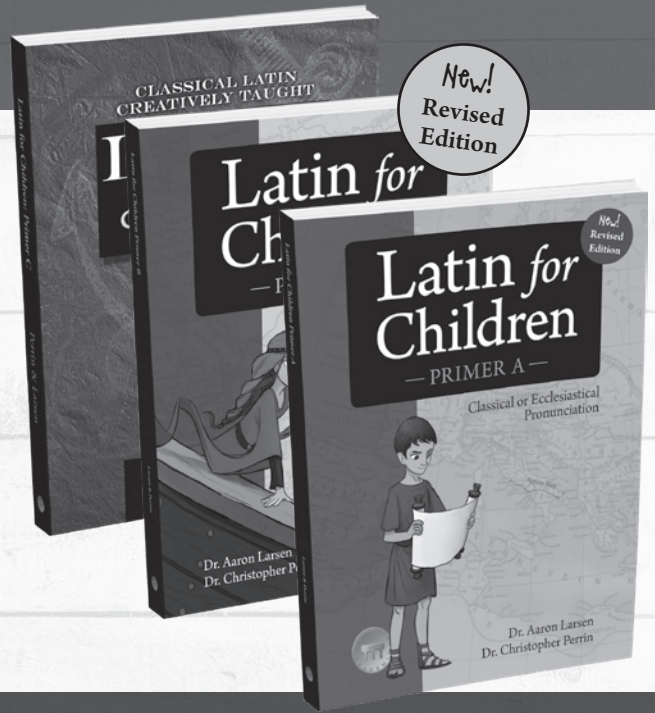


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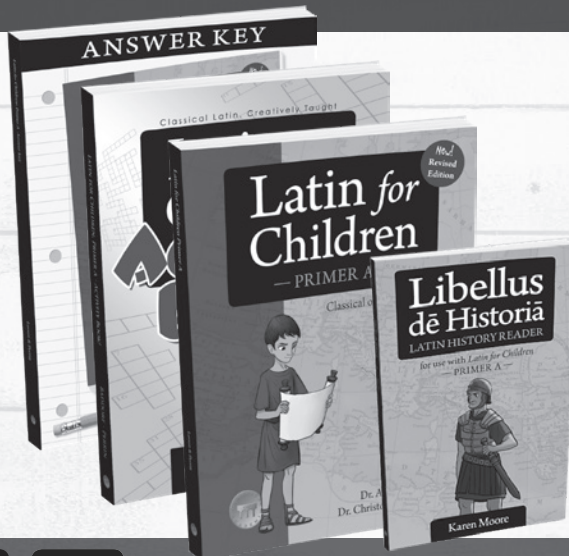
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Writing Rhetoric

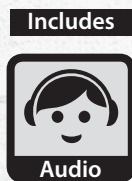
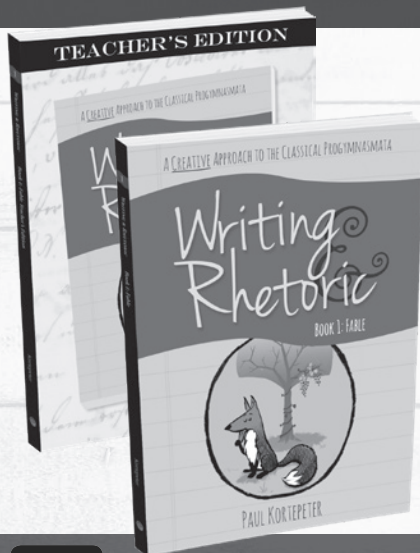
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