

From the

Sideline: Note that only this chapter has a two-part structure with two introductory sections and two sets of lessons. It lays the foundation for both the grammatical principles and the analytical method to be developed in the succeeding chapters. If your students demonstrate quick mastery in identifying kinds of sentences, which may be entirely review, move on to part 2. You should chorally analyze at least one set of sentences with them, though, to lay the foundation for the analytic approach.

To the Source:

■ declarative

The word *declarative* comes from the Latin word *declarare*, meaning “make clear, reveal, disclose,” from *de*, “totally,” and *clarare*, “to clarify.”

To the Source:

■ interrogative

The word *interrogative* comes from the Latin word *interrogare*, from *inter*, meaning “between” and *rogare*, meaning “to ask, to question.”

Part 1: Kinds of Sentences

Ideas to Understand^B

^BSee p. 5 for this note.

Alfred, Lord Tennyson uses all four kinds of sentences in the last stanza of his poem “The Charge of the Light Brigade.” This poem is about a real tragedy that happened in the 1850s during the Crimean War. A small group of British cavalry, or soldiers on horseback, charged into the midst of their enemy, and they were fired on from three sides by soldiers with muskets and small cannons. The outnumbered riders were extremely brave, but sadly many of them died. Tennyson wanted everyone to remember their courage and loyalty. That is a lot of meaning and emotion to pack into a small space, and Tennyson accomplishes it by using all four kinds of sentences:

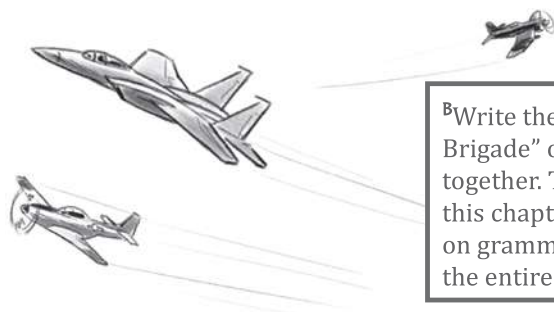
When can their glory fade?
Oh, the wild charge they made!
All the world wondered.
Honor the charge they made!
Honor the Light Brigade,
Noble six hundred!

You might remember that the *declarative*[■] *sentence* declares something. A declarative sentence states (or declares) that something is a fact. In his poem, Tennyson makes known that people from all over the globe noticed this battle: “All the world wondered.” A declarative sentence ends with a period.

Can you define an *interrogative*[■] *sentence*? It is a question. Tennyson asks the question: “When can their glory fade?” He isn’t really expecting the reader to answer, but he is asking the reader to think about the riders and their sacrifice as having long-lasting significance. You can easily spot an interrogative sentence because it ends with a question mark.



1. Alfred, Lord Tennyson, “The Charge of the Light Brigade,” in *Favorite Poems Old and New*, ed. Helen Ferris (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 564–565.



^BWrite the six-line excerpt from “The Charge of the Light Brigade” on the board and refer to it as you read this section together. The few details about the poem that are provided in this chapter will be enough for a streamlined lesson focused on grammar. To plan a complementary literature lesson, see the entire poem in the Curious Child’s Literary Appendix.

Think about the third kind of sentence. An *imperative*[■] sentence expresses a command or a request. To help you remember what *imperative* means, think of an emperor giving commands. The word *emperor* has the same Latin root as *imperative*. Imperative sentences assume that a person is being addressed—namely you! We call this an implied subject: The subject is “you” even though the word does not appear in the sentence. Tennyson calls to the reader to take notice when he writes: “Honor the charge they made!” He is really saying, “*You* honor the charge they made!” An imperative sentence often ends with an exclamation point but sometimes with a period.

An *exclamatory*[■] sentence is one that expresses strong feelings or emotions. This kind of sentence uses words and punctuation that communicate the strength of the author’s exclamation. Tennyson wants you to feel the power behind the message “Oh, the wild charge they made!” If he were speaking to you, he would say this sentence with a heavy sigh, expressing great admiration. He is amazed at how these men pushed forward into battle even against all odds. Exclamatory sentences end with an exclamation point. Keep in mind that it might be easy to confuse an exclamatory sentence with an imperative sentence since they both can end with an exclamation point. Remember, exclamatory sentences express strong feelings, and imperative sentences give a command.

To the Source:

■ imperative

The word *imperative* comes from the Latin word *imperare*, meaning “to command, to requisition,” from *in*, “into, in,” and *parare*, “prepare, order, arrange.”

To the Source:

■ exclamatory

The word *exclamatory* comes from the Latin word *exclamare*, which means “cry out loud,” from *ex*, “out,” and *clamare*, “to cry, shout, call.”

II Pause for Punctuation

All sentences begin with a capital letter and end with an end mark.

- ◇ A *declarative sentence* ends with a period.
- ◇ An *interrogative sentence* ends with a question mark.
- ◇ An *imperative sentence* sometimes ends with a period and sometimes with an exclamation point.
- ◇ An *exclamatory sentence* ends with an exclamation point.

^CThe goal is to identify the words as a sentence and what kind of sentence it is. You and your students will follow three steps during this initial analysis:

1. Read the sentence orally.
2. Identify the sentence as a sentence by definition.
3. State what kind of sentence it is and why.

If choral analysis is review for your students because they have completed *WOL Level 1*, you can move on to Part 2 of this chapter *after* you analyze either these four sentences together or the four included in Lesson A. Don't skip them. They are the first bricks in the foundation of the grammar and of the analytic approach. It's important to reestablish the basics.

To the Source:

■ analyze

The word *analyze* comes from the Greek word *analu-sis*—*ana* means “up, throughout” and *lusis* means “unloose, release, set free.”

Terms to Remember

When learning about something new, it is important to understand the words that describe it. Think about a model airplane with all its pieces—the propeller, wings, fuselage (body), and landing gear. It's much easier to assemble it when you know the names of its parts, what those parts do, and how the parts function together. This same idea applies to grammar. By learning definitions for grammar terms, you will gain a better understanding of how grammar works. Be sure to memorize the definitions in each lesson.

- ◇ Eight Parts of Speech (1–1)
- ◇ Sentence (1–2)

Song Lyrics:

The numbers in parentheses refer to the track/audio file number for each song. For the lyrics to all of the songs in *WOL2A*, please see the Song Lyrics section starting on p. 197.



Sentences to Analyze^C

To analyze[■] is to take something apart or loosen its parts to understand it better. For example, the fully assembled model airplane, which is pictured on the outside of the box, will only be completed if you can lay out all the pieces and figure out what their purposes are. In this chapter, we begin to analyze sentences by identifying the kinds of sentences. You may already be familiar with this first step for taking sentences apart in order to understand them, but this will be a good review for you. Later, we will identify all the parts of speech and parts of a sentence, including elements not covered in *WOL Level 1*. Each chapter will introduce another part of the analysis, building on what we know, but every sentence analysis begins with this identification of its sentence type.

The following examples show how to analyze the four kinds of sentences. You read the sentence; you identify it as a sentence; you identify what kind of sentence it is. Note that all of the statements in gray are to be said aloud and memorized.^D

^DWrite each of the sentences on the board. In part 2 of this chapter and in every other Sentences to Analyze section throughout the book, you will model how to mark the sentence while the students orally analyze it. For this initial stage, however, there are no markings, but it is important to say the analysis aloud and to memorize it since each chapter builds on the previous ones.

Declarative Sentence: The six hundred men rode boldly.

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “The six hundred men rode boldly.”
- b. “This is a *sentence* because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.”
- c. “It is a *declarative sentence* because it makes a statement.”

Interrogative Sentence: Where did the six hundred men ride?

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “Where did the six hundred men ride?”
- b. “This is a *sentence* because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.”
- c. “It is an *interrogative sentence* because it asks a question.”

Imperative Sentence: Ride your horses into the battle.

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “Ride your horses into the battle.”
- b. “This is a *sentence* because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.”
- c. “It is an *imperative sentence* because it gives a command.”

Exclamatory Sentence: Ah, they rode right into the Valley of Death!

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “Ah, they rode right into the Valley of Death!”
- b. “This is a *sentence* because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.”
- c. “It is an *exclamatory sentence* because it expresses strong feelings.”



Part 2: Principal Elements



Ideas to Understand

You've learned that a sentence expresses a complete thought and that there are four kinds of sentences. Now, can you name what is specifically required for a group of words to be a sentence and not just a group of words? Every sentence is made up of two principal elements: the subject and the predicate. Just as an airplane can't fly without both its engine and its wings, a sentence is not a sentence without both of its principal elements. They are the necessary parts. The subject names what the sentence is about, while the predicate tells us something about the subject, such as what it is doing or being.

Let's look at how Henry Wadsworth Longfellow uses subjects and predicates in his poem "The Tide Rises."

The tide rises, the tide falls,
The twilight darkens, the curlew calls;
Along the sea-sands damp and brown
The traveler hastens toward the town,
And the tide rises, the tide falls.²

curlew: a shorebird that has a down-curved bill

The first three words, "The tide rises," not only express a complete thought but also contain both principal elements. These words could be a sentence all by themselves. The subject *tide* is the focus of the sentence: *tide* is what the sentence is about. The predicate *rises* tells the reader something about the subject: *rises* is what the subject is doing. In other words, *tide* (subject) *rises* (predicate).

Notice how the poem continues: *tide* (subject) *falls* (predicate); *twilight* (subject) *darkens* (predicate); *curlew* (subject) *calls* (predicate). Even though Longfellow uses poetic license in these first two lines and punctuates with commas, each of these short groups of words are separate declarative sentences that could end in periods. They each express a complete thought, and they each include both principal elements.

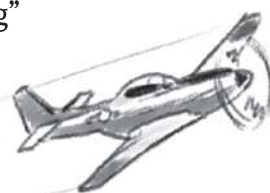
Usually the subject of a sentence is a noun, such as *tide*, *twilight*, or *curlew*. A noun is a word that names a person, place, thing, quality, or

poetic license: the freedom to bend or break grammatical rules for artistic reasons

2. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, "The Tide Rises, the Tide Falls," in *The Harp and Laurel Wreath*, ed. Laura M. Berquist (San Francisco: Ignatius Press, 1999), p. 65.

idea. The word *subject* comes from the Latin word *subjectus*, meaning “dependent upon or under the power of.” The subject is dependent upon the predicate. The word *predicate* comes from the Latin word *praedicare*, meaning “to proclaim or declare publicly.” The predicate proclaims something or makes something known about the subject. In English, there are three different predicates: predicate verbs, predicate nominatives, and predicate adjectives. In this chapter, we will focus on predicate verbs, such as *rises*, *falls*, *darkens*, and *calls*, which are all action verbs. In later lessons, we will explore the other two types of predicates.

Keep in mind that an action verb might be accompanied by a helping verb. There are twenty-three helping verbs: *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *be*, *being*, *been*, *have*, *has*, *had*, *do*, *did*, *does*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *should*, *would*, *could*, *shall*, *will*, *can*. When one or more helping verbs and the main action verb stand together, they are known as a verb phrase. A verb phrase, such as “is rising” or “had been falling,” is the simple predicate in a sentence. Later you will learn how a **complete predicate** may contain other elements as well.



Terms to Remember

Keep listening to the grammar songs to cement all the definitions in your memory. You’ll need them as you break apart and construct sentences.

- ◇ Principal Elements (1–3)
- ◇ Noun (1–5)
- ◇ Verb and Helping Verb (1–6)

Sentences to Analyze^E

When you build a model airplane, it is essential to lay out the parts and understand how each one will function in the completed aircraft. Analyzing a sentence is similar to this because it is the process of taking a sentence apart so you can understand the whole better. You already know how to do the first part of the analysis. Now it is important to analyze the principal elements.

^ENow it is time to add markings to the analysis of sentences, which may be familiar to students who have completed *WOL Level 1*. Still, don’t skip this step. These first markings are foundational to the approach and will be followed immediately with the students’ introduction to diagramming. Write on the board the sentences “Tides fall” and “Tides are falling,” which includes a helping verb. Model how to mark them as your students analyze them orally.

Follow these steps:

1. Read the sentence orally.
2. Identify the sentence as a sentence by definition.
3. State what kind of sentence it is and explain why.
4. Identify the subject and explain how you know what it is.
5. Identify the predicate and explain how you know what it is.

S PV
Tides fall.

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “Tides fall.”
- b. “This is a sentence because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought.”
- c. “It is a declarative sentence because it makes a statement.”
- d. “This sentence is about *tides*. So, *tides* is the subject because it is what the sentence is about.” (Since *tides* is the subject, underline it and place a capital letter *S* above the subject.)
- e. “This sentence tells us that tides *fall*. So, *fall* is the predicate because it is what the sentence tells us about *tides*.” (Since *fall* tells us something about *tides*, double underline the predicate and place a capital letter *P* above the predicate.)
- f. “It is a predicate verb because it shows action. There is no linking verb because predicate verbs do not need linking verbs.” (Since *fall* shows action, place a capital letter *V* to the right of the letter *P*.)

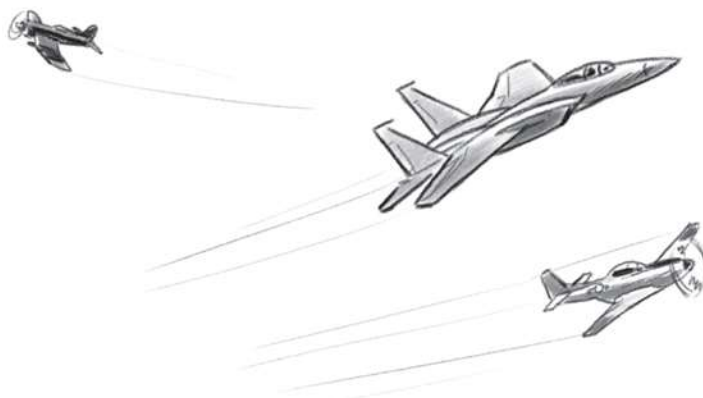
When analyzing predicate verbs with helping verbs, you double underline both the helping verb and the predicate verb. Then you write a lowercase *hv* above the helping verb.

S hv PV
Tides are falling.

- a. (First, read the sentence aloud.) “Tides are falling.”

From the

Sideline: Identifying the predicate and then identifying it as a predicate verb are separate steps because in subsequent chapters students will analyze sentences that include linking verbs rather than predicate verbs. The separate steps at this early stage therefore establish the analytic structure that will be necessary later for marking *lv* rather than *PV*.



From the

Sideline: The Sentence Bank at the end of each chapter in the teacher's edition includes scripts for analyzing additional sentences as well as answer keys for the diagrams.

- b. "This is a sentence because it is a group of words that expresses a complete thought."
- c. "It is a declarative sentence because it makes a statement."
- d. "This sentence is about *tides*. So, *tides* is the subject because it is what the sentence is about." (Since *tides* is the subject, underline it and place a capital letter *S* above the subject.)
- e. "This sentence tells us that tides *are falling*. So, *are falling* is the predicate because it is what the sentence tells us about *tides*." (Since *are falling* tells something about *tides*, double underline the predicate—both the action verb and the helping verb—and place a capital letter *P* above the action verb.)
- f. "It is a predicate verb because it shows action. There is no linking verb because predicate verbs do not need linking verbs." (Since *falling* shows action, place a capital letter *V* to the right of the letter *P*.)
- g. "Are is the helping verb because it helps the verb." (Now place the lowercase letters *hv* above *are*.)



^FDraw the diagram of each sentence on the board. Explain and demonstrate the meaning of the terms *baseline*, *horizontal*, and *vertical*.

Sentences to Diagram^F

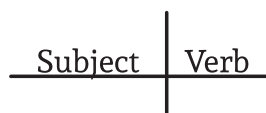
Another way to analyze a sentence is to **diagram** it. A diagram of a sentence is basically a drawing of the sentence that shows the function of each word in the sentence and its relationship to the other parts of the sentence. Diagramming helps you to visualize, or form a mental picture of, how the different parts of a sentence work together. Imagine how a model airplane takes shape as its pieces are assembled. Each piece has a place and function, and the pieces all work together to make it whole. As you build the model, you refer to its directions, which usually include drawings. Those pictures depict the model clearly and simply, making plain the purpose of each piece.

From the

Sideline: Use hand signals to reinforce the meaning of *horizontal* and *vertical*. Have the students put their arms straight out when they say “horizontal” and their arms straight up when they say “vertical.”

In a similar way, the sentence diagram is a picture of a sentence. It shows the specific places where the parts, such as the subject and predicate, fit. When you diagram a sentence, you draw it so that you can clearly see the relationships between the parts. First, draw a straight horizontal baseline. Write the subject of the sentence on the left side of the horizontal baseline. Then, draw a vertical line that crosses the baseline, and write the predicate verb, along with a helping verb if there is one, on the right side. The first letter of the first word in the sentence is always capitalized in the diagram.

The vertical line crosses the horizontal line because it shows a clear division between what the sentence is about (the subject) and what that subject is doing (the predicate verb or verb phrase). As you learn to diagram longer sentences in later chapters, you will draw other lines as well to depict different elements. However, every diagram of every sentence, no matter how long that sentence is, includes the basics you are learning right now: a horizontal line crossed by a vertical line dividing the principle elements.



In the sentence “Tides fall,” the word *tides* is the subject and is placed on the left side of the horizontal baseline. A vertical dividing line separates the subject from the predicate. The word *fall*, which is the predicate verb, is placed on the right side of the baseline.

From the

Sideline: If you haven’t yet discussed the introduction to the student edition, now may be a good time. It draws the students’ attention to the many different ways that diagrams are used in life to help people understand reality. It also explains the relationship between orally analyzing a sentence and diagramming it.

Tides	fall
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In the next sentence—“Tides are falling”—the word *tides* is the subject, and is placed on the left side of the baseline, while the helping verb *are* and the action verb *falling* are placed together on the right side of the dividing line.

Tides	are falling
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