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ONE HUNDRED FIFTY YEARS OF
GRAMMAR TEXTBOOKS

By

HENRY LESTER SMITH
KATHLEEN DUGDALE
BEULAH FARIS STEELE
ROBERT STEWART MOULDERHINNEY

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H.L.S.
K.D.
B.F.S.
R.S.McE.

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Fig. 1. Frontispiece in Dilworth's *New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740).

ONE HUNDRED FIFTY YEARS OF GRAMMAR TEXTBOOKS

Chapter I Introduction

NO NATION, so far as is known, attempted to study its language until after the time of Aristotle. The Greeks, who were probably more advanced intellectually than any other people of the time, were the first to feel the need for greater knowledge and understanding in this field, and consequently the first to try to analyze their language. Their original attempt at such a study resulted in what might more accurately be called a glossary than a grammar. It was a book which seems to have been designed primarily for the purpose of assisting students in reading the works of Homer and other well-known Greek writers. Later, however, the complete Greek grammar was developed. This text was so thorough in its treatment of the subject that it became the model for grammars of all other European languages.¹

For many years the Greek text was the only book of its kind in any tongue. The Romans, whose language had already been developed to a high point of excellence, were among the first to realize that a study of their own language, similar to that of the Greeks, would be of value. Since the plan of the Greek grammar was the only guide they had for such a text, they followed very closely its organization and terminology. Latin, of course, did not always fall easily into the classifications and rules used by the Greeks, and the Latin grammar that resulted was therefore rather awkward and inadequate in its presentation of many phases of the subject.²

Later, when other countries began to work out grammars for their own languages, they patterned after the Latin texts as well as the Greek, and their presentation was often more cumbersome and involved than that of the Romans. In English grammars even today there are traces of this impractical, traditional method of teaching a language.

What was perhaps the first book to be published to help the student learn English was actually in Latin. This book, *Grammatica Anglicana*, was written by P. G. (believed to have been P. Greenwood), in 1594. It contained short discussions of letters, syllables, and parts of speech, and attempted to point out in what ways English differed from Latin. It also listed a vocabulary of Chaucerian words, and was the first text to include a treatment of parsing, which it termed "analysis."³

¹Hoyt, Franklin S., "The Place of Grammar in the Elementary Curriculum," *Teachers College Record* 7:3, November, 1906.

²*Ibid.*, p. 4.

³Monroe, Paul, ed., *A Cyclopedia of Education*, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1912, Vol. III, p. 132.

In 1624 John Hewes wrote what he called an exposition for Lily's *Latin Grammar* rules, under the title *A Perfect Survey of the English Tongue*. In this book Hewes led up to a study of the Latin by beginning with a groundwork of English expressions.⁴

A few years later, Simon Daines published a text in English, giving it a title which was all-inclusive: *Orthoepia Anglicana; or the first principall part of the English Grammar Teaching the Art of right speaking and pronouncing English, with certaine exact rules of Orthography, and rules of spelling or combining of syllables, and directions for keeping of stops or points between sentence and sentence. A work in itself absolute, and never known to be accomplished by any before: No lesse profitable than necessary for all sorts, as well Native as Foreigners, that desire to attaine the perfection of our English Tongue. Methodically composed by the industry and observation of Simon Daines, School-master of Hintlesham in Suff. Lond. 1640.*⁵

About this time two other texts were published in the field, both of which were designed especially for the use of foreigners who wished to learn the English language. The first of these was a grammar by Ben Jonson, which was published posthumously. The other, J. Wharton's *A New English Grammar*, marked a turning point in the teaching of English, as it attempted, according to the author, to teach the English grammar a student needed before beginning the study of Latin.⁶

For the next 75 to 100 years very few grammars were published. Although education in the United States was by this time well established, no grammar used in England was republished in this country until late in the eighteenth century. The earliest text to be so honored was Thomas Dilworth's *A New Guide to the English Tongue*. Although this was a small book, containing only about 150 pages in all, it was divided into five parts, the first two dealing with spelling, the third with grammar, and the last two with prose and verse. While the book was published in England as early as 1740, the first American edition did not come out until 1770.⁷ The text was very popular in its day and is still looked upon as one of the outstanding English grammars used in the schools of this country. *A Short Introduction to English Grammar*, by Robert Lowth, was another early text (1762) published in England, and later printed in the United States. However, the American edition of this book did not come out until 1811.⁸ Lowth was among the first to stress good use rather than grammatical rules in English.

Probably the first grammar of any consequence to be written by an American and published in the United States was the second part of Noah Webster's *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*.⁹ This text appeared in three volumes, the first being a spelling book and the

⁴Ibid., p. 132.

⁵Ibid., pp. 132-3.

⁶Ibid., p. 133.

⁷Library of Congress Catalog, Vol. 40, p. 51.

⁸Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 133.

⁹Ibid., Vol. V, p. 757.

last a reader, following the style of Dilworth's book except that the parts were published under separate covers. The grammar book, or second part, was first published about 1783 and was used extensively for a number of years. The other two parts were published soon after the grammar.

Webster's text was superseded by Lindley Murray's *English Grammar*, probably the most popular grammar ever published in this country. Murray, a lawyer from Pennsylvania, was in England at the time he completed his text, and the first edition of the book was published in that country in 1795. However, within five years an American edition had been printed in Boston.¹⁰ The text enjoyed a wide sale, running through more than 50 editions of the book and 120 editions of the abridgement, with new editions being printed as late as 1866. For many years it was almost the only grammar used either in England or in America, and its worth was so generally recognized that it was commonly accepted as authority in settling disputes concerning usage or syntax.

The principal value of Murray's text was that it simplified the presentation of the subject and contained discussions aimed to clear up points on which there had previously been some question. However, it still was not too appealing to children, as it contained much of the controversial, puzzle element. In spite of this, it proved to be a definite step forward in the teaching of English grammar and won for Murray the title of "the father of English grammar."¹¹

While the need for simplifying the study of English grammar had been felt for some time, it had been difficult to break away from tradition. The old scholastics looked upon the subject as a form of training in logical thinking, and they felt that any simplification would lessen its value in this respect. Nevertheless, a change gradually took place, with much unnecessary material being dropped out, fine distinctions omitted, and explanations made clearer and more appropriate.

In the early days of our country's history, grammar took its place beside arithmetic as a subject for lively discussion and intellectual debate among the more learned. Just as the person who could solve difficult or trick questions in arithmetic won the much-cherished title of "arithmeticker," so was the person looked up to who had a thorough understanding of grammar rules and who could apply them in parsing or in clearing up problematic points in construction.¹² It was an honor to be known as one who could hold his own in a discussion concerning controversial issues in grammar.

This interest in the subject was not felt in the schools until much later, however. Although the provision for public education had been made mandatory in Massachusetts as early as 1642, grammar was considered an accepted part of the offering in very few schools in the country until early in the nineteenth century. Even then the subject was often little understood by pupils and teacher.

¹⁰Library of Congress Catalog, Vol. 104, p. 633.

¹¹Johnson, Clifton, *Old-Time Schools and School-Books*, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1904, p. 365.

¹²Monroe, *op. cit.*, p. 134.

The study of English grammar gained rapidly in popularity during the nineteenth century. By 1810 it was included in the curriculum of many of the schools and by 1823 it was given almost as much attention as the study of Latin. For a number of years thereafter it almost entirely dominated the English curriculum, sometimes superseding spelling in the upper grades of the elementary school.¹³ Even though composition was added about 1850, grammar continued to hold its important position for at least 75 years.

Up to 1875, the usual common-school curriculum included little more than geography, arithmetic, reading, spelling, and grammar. Arithmetic and grammar were given more time and thought than any of the other subjects in the upper grades and were considered the core of the curriculum.¹⁴

In keeping with the theory of mental discipline which became so widely accepted during the latter part of the nineteenth century, grammar became a disciplinary subject. Later, however, when studies disproved its value in this respect, the amount of technical grammar taught in the schools was significantly reduced.

The content of the English curriculum broadened considerably during the early twentieth century, with technical grammar receiving less and less emphasis. In 1936 the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English recommended that grammar be taught only from a functional point of view. This was one of the first official steps toward breaking away from the study of a purely technical grammar, although the trend had been in that direction for some time.

Thus grammar has passed through the various stages found in the development and growth of most of the subjects handed down to our schools from olden times. When first studied, the subject was treated purely from a philosophical point of view. Later it became more technical and scientific, and finally it was made as practical and functional as possible. Language as taught today has a strictly social basis, and therefore stress has been placed on the improvement of conversational English in its various ramifications rather than on technical rules and forms and on correct written English.

Most of the change in grammar texts has come within the last 150 years, the period covered by this analysis. Although Murray's *English Grammar* was the first to show the way toward simplification and toward a stressing of the language of our own country rather than of a foreign tongue, it still contained much that was traditional. The textbooks included in this study have been analyzed for the purpose of tracing the trends through the years — trends that have been evident not only in the content and method of the texts but also in their physical make-up. It is believed that all these changes have been in the direction of presenting the material more appealingly, more simply, and more practically.

¹³*Ibid.*, p. 134.

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. 134.

Books Analyzed in This Study

Books included in this study have been selected as being as nearly representative as possible of the grammars of their day. In the hope of making a running account of changes in the teaching of grammar through the years, as exhibited by the textbooks of the day, an attempt was made to analyze one book for each five-year period. This plan, of course, could not always be carried out. In selecting texts representative of the first half century covered, there was the difficult problem of availability, for not many of the grammars published in those early days are now in existence. In some five-year periods no grammars of consequence were published, while in others more than one well-known text appeared in the field. Then too, among books of the present century, success as judged by the publisher was usually given precedence over date of publication as a factor in the selection of a text for this study. Publishers were asked to indicate the most popular of the grammars they had put out, and selection was made in the light of their replies.

So far as possible, duplication of authors and of publishers was avoided, in order that a broader viewpoint in the teaching of grammar might be represented. Because of this policy, some publishers are represented by recent books and others by texts which are now out of date. However, all the grammars used have been highly thought of in their day. Since there have been many recent grammars written, it was difficult to make a selection from among them. It is recognized that the recent texts included in this study are not the only good ones on the market today, but it is believed they are representative of the best in modern English grammars.

The organization of data for this study was handled in much the same way as was that for the summary analysis of arithmetic texts, a study published by the Bureau of Cooperative Research and Field Service in 1945.¹⁵ Each of the grammar books or series of books was given a number, with the texts arranged according to the date of original publication. While it was not always possible to secure first edition copies for this analysis, the original date of publication was used because it was believed that the basic principles concerning content and method were seldom changed when later editions of a text were put out. Therefore, in spite of the fact that minor changes were sometimes made when a text was republished, fundamentally the text was more representative of the grammars published at the time it was first written than of those of a later date.

If the text was published in more than one volume, the most elementary of the books is listed as "a," the next most elementary as "b," and so on.¹⁶ The list of texts included in the study, with their number and letter designations, follows:

¹⁵Smith, Henry Lester; Eaton, Merrill T.; and Dugdale, Kathleen. *One Hundred Fifty Years of Arithmetic Textbooks*, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXI, No. 1, January, 1945, 153 pp.

¹⁶When material from any of these texts has been quoted or photographed in this study, the book from which it was taken has been indicated by the number of the text, followed by the page on which the material occurs. For example, a reference on page 14 of the fourth grade text in the *Adventures in English* series would be identified as (27b:14). In all cases in which material was taken from books under copyright, the permission of the publishers holding the copyright has been obtained.

1. Dilworth, Thomas. *A New Guide to the English Tongue*. W. Ross, Philadelphia, 145th ed., 1784. (1st ed., London, 1740; 1st ed. published in America, 1770)
2. Murray, Lindley. *English Grammar*. Boston, 9th ed., 1815. (1st ed., Holgate, near York, England, 1795; 1st ed. published in America, 1800)
3. Comly, John. *English Grammar Made Easy to the Teacher and Pupil*. Kimber and Sharpless, Philadelphia, 15th ed., 1826. (2nd ed., 1805)
4. Kirkham, Samuel. *English Grammar*. E. Morgan and Co., Cincinnati, 1843. (1st ed., 1823 or earlier; 5th ed., 1827)
5. Brown, Goold. *The Institutes of English Grammar*. Samuel S. and William Wood, New York, 1856. (1st ed., 1823)
6. Smith, Roswell C. *English Grammar on the Productive System*. W. T. Truman, Cincinnati, 1850. (1st ed., 1832)
7. Bullions, Peter. *The Principles of English Grammar*. Robinson, Pratt and Co., New York, 5th ed., 1843. (1st ed., R. Carter, New York, c.1834; 2nd ed., 1837)
8. Butler, Noble. *A Practical Grammar of the English Language*. John P. Morton and Co., Louisville, Ky., 1846. (1st ed., Morton and Griswold, 1845)
9. Pinneo, Timotheus Stone. *Pinneo's Analytical Grammar of the English Language*. Sargent, Wilson and Hinkle, Cincinnati, 200th ed., 1868. (1st ed., 1850)
10. Greene, Samuel Stillman. *The Elements of English Grammar*. Cowperthwait, Desilver, and Butler, Philadelphia, 1856. (1st ed., c. 1853)
11. Kerl, Simon. *A Shorter Course in English Grammar*. Ivison, Blake-man, Taylor, and Co., New York, 1870. (17th rev. ed. of *An Elementary Grammar*, 1864)
12. Harvey, Thomas W. *Harvey's English Grammar. A Practical Grammar of the English Language*. Wilson, Hinkle and Co., Cincinnati, 1868.
13. (Reed-Kellogg series)
 - 13a. Reed, Alonzo, and Kellogg, Brainerd. *Graded Lessons in English*. Charles E. Merrill Co., New York, 1929. (1st ed., 1875)
 - 13b. Reed, Alonzo, and Kellogg, Brainerd. *Higher Lessons in English*. Maynard, Merrill, and Co., New York, 1893. (1st ed., 1877)
14. Whitney, William Dwight. *Essentials of English Grammar*. Ginn and Heath, Boston, 1877.
15. Tweed, Benjamin F. *Grammar for Common Schools*. Lee and Shepard, Boston, 1886.
16. (Hyde series)
 - Hyde, Mary Frances. *Practical Lessons in the Use of English*. D. C. Heath and Co., Boston.
 - 16a. *State Series*, 1896.
 - 16b. *Second Book*, 1897. (1st ed., 1888)
17. Wisely, John Benjamin. *A New English Grammar*. The Inland Publishing Co., Terre Haute, Ind., 1896.

18. (Scott-Southworth series)
 - Scott, Fred Newton, and Southworth, Gordon A. *Lessons in English*. Benj. H. Sanborn and Co., Boston.
 - 18a. *Book One*, 1913. (1st ed., 1906)
 - 18b. *Book Two*, 1912. (1st ed., 1906)
19. (Robbins-Row series)
 - Robbins, Carolyn M., and Row, Robert Keable. *Studies in English*. Row, Peterson and Co., Chicago, 1916. (1st ed., 1907)
 - 19a. *Book One, Language*
 - 19b. *Book Two, Grammar and Composition*
20. (Pearson-Kirchwey series)
 - Pearson, Henry Carr, and Kirchwey, Mary Frederika. *Essentials of English*. American Book Co., New York, 1915. (1st ed., 1914)
21. Lewis, William Dodge, and Lynch, Helen M. *Grammar to Use*. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1933. (1st ed., 1918)
22. (Essential Language Habits series)
 - Charters, Wallace Werrett; Cowan, Esther M.; and Betz, Annette. *Essential Language Habits*. Silver, Burdett and Co., New York, 1929. (1st ed., 1923)
 - 22a. *Book One*
 - 22b. *Book Two*
 - 22c. *Book Three*
23. (The Open Door Language Series)
 - Scott, Zenos E.; Congdon, Randolph; Peet, Harriet E.; and Frazee, Laura. *The Open Door Language Series*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
 - 23a. *First Book, Language Games and Stories*, 1928. (1st ed., 1926)
 - 23b. *Second Book, Better Everyday English*, 1928. (1st ed., 1927)
 - 23c. *Third Book, Success in Speaking and Writing*, 1928.
24. (Daily-Life Language Series)
 - Lyman, R. L.; Johnson, Roy Ivan; Dearborn, Frances R.; Bear, Mata V.; and McGregor, A. Laura. *Daily-Life Language Series*. Ginn and Co., Boston, 1934.
 - 24a. *Book One* (by Lyman, Johnson, Dearborn, and Bear)
 - 24b. *Book Two* (by Lyman, Johnson, and Bear)
 - 24c. *Book Three* (by Lyman, Johnson, and McGregor)
25. Daringer, Helen Fern. *Grammar for Everyday Use*. World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y., 1938.
26. (Step by Step in English series)
 - Bair, Frederick H.; Neal, Elma A.; Foster, Inez; Storm, Ollie P.; and Sanders, Vernon T. *Step by Step in English*. The Macmillan Co., New York.
 - 26a. *Fun with Words* (by Bair, Neal, Foster, and Storm), 1940
 - 26b. *With Tongue and Pen* (by Bair, Neal, Foster, and Storm), 1940
 - 26c. *Words and Their Use* (by Bair, Neal, Foster, and Storm), 1940
 - 26d. *Better English Usage* (by Bair, Neal, Foster, and Storm), 1940
 - 26e. *Knowing Your Language* (by Bair, Neal, and Sanders), 1941
 - 26f. *Strength Through English* (by Bair, Neal, and Sanders), 1944. (1st ed., 1941)
27. (Adventures in English series)
 - Burleson, David Sinclair; Cash, Laurie; Burleson, Christine; and Merrill, Anna D. *Adventures in English*. Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

- 27a. *Grade Three* (by Burleson and Cash), 1944. (1st ed., 1941)
- 27b. *Grade Four* (by Burleson and Cash), 1944. (1st ed., 1939)
- 27c. *Grade Five* (by Burleson and Cash), 1943. (1st ed., 1940)
- 27d. *Grade Six* (by Burleson and Cash), 1943. (1st ed., 1940)
- 27e. *Grade Seven* (by Burleson), 1943. (1st ed., 1942)
- 27f. *Grade Eight* (by Burleson, D. S., Burleson, C., and Merrill), 1946. (1st ed., 1944)

Twenty-seven grammars were analyzed. The oldest in the group, Dilworth's *A New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740), was published more than half a century before the beginning of the period covered by this study (1795 to 1945), but it is included here because it is a good example of the English texts which influenced early grammarians in our country. All the other grammars analyzed were published within the 150-year period studied, the earliest of these being Murray's text, which first appeared in 1795.

For purposes of comparison, the books (other than Dilworth's) were divided according to date of publication, into three 40-year periods and a 30-year period from 1915 to 1945, with from five to eight books included for each period. Without question, many good grammars were written other than those analyzed in this study but it was of course impossible to include all. While the generalizations or trends in textbook style and procedure pointed out in this study are based solely on the grammars analyzed, they are thought to be reasonably true of all the grammar texts of the times.

Chapter II

Purposes of the Grammars Analyzed

THROUGHOUT the 150-year period covered by this analysis, the general purpose of grammar textbooks has been that of presenting a usable grammar in an understandable form. However, the early texts were far from what could be classified as either usable or understandable according to modern standards. In the first place, today's idea of usability is entirely different from that of early times; and in the second place, understandability, which is, of course, closely associated with simplification of terminology and methods of presentation, is determined in modern teaching on the basis of the child's rather than of the adult's needs.

In the days of Thomas Dilworth, whose text was written half a century before the opening of the period covered by this analysis, the ultimate objective in studying grammar was that of enlightening the world. In the preface to *A New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740), Dilworth stated that:

"The knowledge of *Letters* (says the celebrated Dr. Watts) is one of the greatest Blessings that ever God bestowed on the Children of Men: By this *Means*, we preserve for our own use, through all our Lives, what our Memory would have lost in a few Days, and lay up a rich Treasure of Knowledge for those that shall come after us. By the Arts of *Reading* and *Writing*, we can sit at Home and acquaint ourselves with what is done in all the distant Parts of the World, and find what our Fathers did long ago, in the first Ages of Mankind. By this *Means* a *Briton* holds Correspondence with his Friend in *America* or *Japan*, and manages all his Business. 'Tis this which brings all the past Ages of Men at once upon the Stage, and makes the most distant Nations and Ages converse together, and grow into Acquaintance. And it is *this*, by which God has discovered his Power, and Justice, his Providence, Mercy, and Grace, that we, who live near the end of Time, may learn the Way to Heaven and ever-lasting Happiness." (1:vi)

Here we see a rather philosophical idea of advantages to be gained from a knowledge of the English language. While the general principles of educational progress and greater understanding of one's fellowmen are recognized as outcomes of ability to read and write correctly, they are expressed in a much more practical and more personal way in the modern texts. For example, in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), the idea is narrowed down to keep the goal within the child's experience:

The purpose of this book is to help you to know and to use language even better than you do now. You will find that an increased knowledge of language will help you as you study other subjects, as you work and play with your classmates, as you listen to the language of adults, and even as you think for yourself. (26e:v)

understanding

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Although there is a wide difference in point of view in these two statements, the change has come about very gradually. Lindley Murray, whose *English Grammar* (1795) was the first text in this analysis to be published within the period from 1795 to 1945, gave far greater stress to the practical side of grammar study than did earlier writers in the field, saying:

On the utility and importance of the study of Grammar, and the principles of Composition, much might be advanced, for the encouragement of persons in early life to apply themselves to this branch of learning; but as the limits of this introduction will not allow of many observations on the subject, a few leading sentiments are all that can be admitted here with propriety. As words are the signs of our ideas, and the medium by which we perceive the sentiments of others, and communicate our own; and as signs exhibit the things which they are intended to represent, more or less accurately, according as their real or established conformity to those things is more or less exact; it is evident, that in proportion to our knowledge of the nature and properties of words, of their relation to each other, and of their established connexion with the ideas to which they are applied, will be the certainty and ease, with which we transfuse our sentiments into the minds of one another; and that without a competent knowledge of this kind, we shall frequently be in hazard of misunderstanding others, and of being misunderstood ourselves. It may indeed be justly asserted, that many of the differences in opinion amongst men, with the disputes, contentions, and alienations of heart, which have too often proceeded from such differences, have been occasioned by a want of proper skill in the connexion and meaning of words, and by a tenacious misapplication of language. (2:6)

Murray saw the value of good English, but he agreed with earlier grammarians that the important points in the study of grammar were a thorough understanding of its development and a knowledge of the principles on which it is based. These points were stressed in his book rather than actual usage of correct English, which was presumed to be a natural outgrowth of such understanding and knowledge. By the time another 50 years had passed, authors were putting more stress on usage. Greene (1853) said that "it is the study of the language, rather than the technical forms of grammar, that should claim the first attention of the teacher" (10:vii), and Harvey (1868) also pointed out that the teaching of grammar should not be an end in itself but that its purpose should be to give one the ability to speak and write correctly. Harvey, in his preface, made a statement that was boldly progressive for one of his times:

The whole plan of the work is in accordance with the educational doctrine that accuracy and facility in the use of language, both spoken and written, are the ends to be secured by the study of grammar: that to secure these ends, a thorough acquaintance with the elements, forms, structure, and laws of our mother tongue, is indispensable; and that a practical knowledge of these can be acquired only by patient, persistent exercise in the analysis and synthesis of syllables, words, and sentences. (12:iii)

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), whose text was popular for more than two generations, brought out the same point, but went still further, admittedly giving the study of technical grammar a subordinate position and stating that the purpose of their work was "to make the Science of the Language, of which all the essentials are thoroughly presented, tributary to the Art of Expression" (13b:4).

Whitney (1877) was one of the first to recognize that the immediate needs of the child should claim the attention of the textbook writer. He tried to pull away from the impersonal method of attack that had been used in earlier texts and to give the children a type of grammar they could use in their school and home life.

I have endeavored to put before the learner those matters which are of most essential consequence to him, those which will best serve him as preparation for further and deeper knowledge of his own language, for the study of other languages, and for that of language in general. That the leading object of the study of English Grammar is to teach the correct use of English is, in my view, an error, and one which is gradually becoming removed, giving way to the sounder opinion that grammar is the reflective study of language, for a variety of purposes, of which correctness in writing is only one, and a secondary or subordinate one . . . it should be a pervading element in the whole school and home training of the young, to make them use their own tongue with accuracy and force. (14:iii)

Hyde (1888-1896) brought out the "use" angle in the teaching of grammar still more forcefully when she said "the aim is to lead the pupil to use habitually the right expression" (16a:iv), adding that "pupils must be trained not only to write correctly, but also to hear correctly" (16a:v). This was the first time in the books studied that hearing correctly was given as an objective. Hyde also mentioned that "the reasons why certain forms are right and others wrong are, for the most part, omitted" (16a:iv). Here again the "use" result of the teaching of grammar was being stressed rather than the technicalities back of that result.

Early in the twentieth century, the idea of making grammar useful to the pupil took a little more practical angle. While great strides had been made toward developing a text that would teach the child to use correct forms in expressing himself, the ultimate aim of having him express himself properly after he was grown was always more prominent than the idea of teaching him to say correctly the things he wanted to say in his everyday life while still a child. Scott and Southworth's *Lessons in English* (1906) was the first text in the group studied to center the interest on teaching the child to say well the things he wants to say now, that is, "to help children to talk and write more freely about the many things that they see or know" (18a:iii), and to get them to notice more things and to want to talk about them, thus using the study of language to expand their information and enlarge their vocabularies.

In 1917 the National Council of Teachers of English set forth certain purposes and principles in the teaching of grammar, as follows:

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A sane attitude toward the teaching of grammar would seem to be to find out what parts and aspects of the subject have actual value to children in enabling them to improve their speaking, writing, and reading, to teach these parts according to modern scientific methods, and to ignore any and all portions of the conventional school grammar that fall outside these categories. In general, the grammar worth teaching, is the grammar to use — function in the sentence — and the grammar to be passed over is the grammar of classification — pigeonholing by definition. Language, it is well known, is learned mainly by imitation, largely unconscious, and children constantly use in their speech hundreds of expressions, many of them highly idiomatic, which only the linguistic scholar, familiar with the history of the language, can explain. Children should be set to examining only those grammatical forms and constructions whose use they can plainly see, and they should pursue such examination with the conscious purpose of learning how to make better sentences. Any other aim is mere pedantry. (21:iv)

Lewis and Lynch attempted to make their *Grammar to Use* (1918) conform with these standards, stating in their preface that:

Perhaps the distinctive characteristic of the book is the emphasis which it places upon function as the basis for determining the classification and use of grammatical elements . . . The word, phrase, or clause is what its function in the sentence makes it. If the child can be made to understand clearly the nature of a sentence and of the work each part of speech does in a sentence, his most serious grammatical troubles will disappear. (21:v)

Almost immediately authors began "to arrange the material in the text so that it may be used in connection with the language work of the pupils outside the language recitation" (22a:iv), and textbook content was expanded to embrace many kinds of out-of-school activities.

In *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), the authors stated that "since the chief use that the majority of people have for English is in the give-and-take of everyday conversation, the book lays particular emphasis on this phase of the subject" (23a:iv).

This point is also emphasized in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934), which states that "ability to use language effectively in the practical activities of daily life is the goal of language instruction" (24b:v).

For a while this trend seemed to be running away with itself, so that the teaching of social relationships, etiquette, and "fun" outshone the real goal of instruction in grammar. But in the more recent texts a sounder basis is beginning to appear in the teaching of "functional" English. Today, while the child's interests and activities are still of vital concern, the actual purpose, that of teaching good English usage, is kept prominent, an idea expressed in the preface to the *Adventures in English series* (1939-1944):

It seeks above everything else to dramatize the freshness and vitality of the child's own eager use of language, so that he will spontaneously participate in the direct study which makes for good usage. (27a:iii)

This series of language books is typical of the attitude of modern textbook writers in that it attempts to build up such an interest in and desire to use good English that the pupils actually want to learn more about grammatical constructions.

Thus, one of the purposes of authors of grammar texts has consistently been that of presenting a usable grammar. In the early days, usability was interpreted as meaning that rules and definitions were made clear and that examples were accurate and to the point. The more modern of the texts, however, take usability to mean the presentation of a type of grammar that is functional for the child in his everyday life as well as a preparation for adulthood.

The second major purpose of grammar textbook writers was that of presenting a grammar that was understandable. In the early days this presented quite a problem, for the terminology was technical and the examples were involved, often beyond the comprehension of the average adult and certainly beyond that of the child. For many years the authors recognized the need for a simplification of material but were so tied down by tradition that it took decades for the trends toward a more practical grammar to become evident.

Dilworth's grammar (1740), which was written half a century before the opening of the period covered by this analysis, included only those phases of the subject which he considered to be fundamental and essential. No claim was made that the field had been covered thoroughly, nor did the text include the long discussions of controversial issues found in other grammars of the day. The material covered was designed for the common people of England, to enable those who "are intended to rise no higher, to write their *Mother-Tongue* intelligibly, and according to the *Rules of Grammar*" (1:vi) — for those who needed only a little grammar to enable them to read and write simple material, rather than for the potential writers, historians, and members of Parliament, who would necessarily have to be well versed in the more complicated phases of the subject. Grammarians ever since Dilworth's time have been writing textbooks with this as one of their purposes.

Lindley Murray (1795) was ahead of his times in realizing that a technical text was impractical as a means for teaching grammar to young people. In the introduction he stated:

In books designed for the instruction of youth, there is a medium to be observed, between treating the subject in so extensive and minute a manner, as to embarrass and confuse their minds, by offering too much at once for their comprehension; and, on the other hand, conducting it by such short and general precepts and observations, as convey to them no clear and precise information. A distribution of the parts, which is either defective or irregular, has also a tendency to perplex the young understanding and to retard its knowledge of the principles of literature. A distinct general view, or outline, of all the essential parts of the study in which they are engaged; a gradual and judicious supply of this outline; and a due arrangement of the divisions, according to their natural order and connexion, appear to be among the best means of enlightening the minds of youth, and of facilitating their acquisition of knowledge. (2:3)

Almost every text thereafter made some reference to its attempt to make grammar understandable. Comly (1805) stated very simply in his title that he was attempting to make his grammar easy, while Kirkham (1823) wrote a very flowery statement concerning the simplicity of his text:

By some this system will, no doubt, be discarded on account of its simplicity; whilst to others its simplicity will prove its principal recommendation. Its design is an humble one. It proffers no great advantages to the recondite grammarian; it professes not to instruct the literary connoisseur; it presents no attractive graces of style to charm, no daring flights to astonish, no deep researches to gratify him; but in the humblest simplicity of diction, it attempts to accelerate the march of the juvenile mind in its advances in the path of science, by dispersing those clouds that so often bewilder it, and removing those obstacles that generally retard its progress. (4:9)

Kirkham also brought out the point that his book was "designed for the use of schools and private learners" (4:title page). In those times, pupils often had to study at home, without the aid of a teacher, since schools were not common. Textbooks that were written clearly and simply were, of course, of more value to students trying to learn their grammar under these conditions.

Although Bullions (1834) was a great admirer of Lindley Murray and based his own grammar on Murray's, he was one who believed firmly in making grammar as understandable to the student as possible. As a consequence he attempted to put out a textbook that was an improvement over Murray's *English Grammar* "by correcting what is erroneous, retrenching what is superfluous or unimportant, compressing what is prolix, elucidating what is obscure, determining what was left doubtful, supplying what is defective, and bringing up the whole to that state of improvement to which the labours of eminent scientific and practical writers of the present day have so greatly contributed" (7:iii).

Kerl (1864) stated in his volume that he "hopes he has produced more nearly just such a manual as the great majority of public schools throughout our country now require" (11:3). By this time books were being prepared with the idea of their being used in class work. A number of references had been made in texts published before this time to the effect that the book was designed for "all classes of learners." This included those of different ages and stages of progress as well as those either studying alone or attending school.

By the beginning of the twentieth century grammarians had broken away from the technical type of textbook and were attempting to make grammar more functional. Scott and Southworth (1906) made a very simple statement concerning the purpose of their text, which shows this trend:

To place before the student an orderly and intelligible statement of the principles that determine the structure of words and sentences, and at the same time to furnish exercises for practice in the application of those principles. (18b:iv)

The trend toward a functional grammar was important in bringing about the teaching of a more usable grammar — the kind that grammarians have striven for throughout the years. This purpose, of presenting a textbook both understandable and usable, is well summed up by Daringer (1938) in the preface to her text:

To present the minimum fundamental principles of sentence structure and usage so simply that they can be easily understood, and to show so clearly how the principles apply to everyday speech and writing that there can be no question of their usefulness. (25:iii)

All the modern textbook writers have held this as one of the purposes of their grammars, and all have shown great progress in this respect.

Here and there among the texts analyzed another idea was expressed as to the usability of the text, but few of these ideas were found consistently. For example, Murray (1795) considered character building as a possible outcome of the teaching of grammar. With this in mind, he chose illustrative materials which he believed would lead to this end. Among the purposes mentioned in the preface to his book, he included:

He [the author] wishes to promote, in some degree, the cause of virtue, as well as of learning; and with this view, he has been studious, through the whole of the work, not only to avoid every example and illustration, which might have an improper effect on the minds of youth; but also to introduce, on many occasions, such as have a moral and religious tendency. His attention to objects of so much importance will, he trusts, meet the approbation of every well disposed reader. If they were faithfully regarded in all books of education, they would doubtless contribute very materially to the order and happiness of society, by guarding the innocence, and cherishing the virtue of the rising generation. (2:7)

Hyde (1888-1896) touched upon this subject in the statement that she was including selections "designed to awaken a love of nature or to deepen some moral impression" (16a:iii). However, in the other texts, while there is evidence of an attempt to present examples and illustrations that will express moral precepts, such as Biblical quotations, proverbs, fables, and so forth, no mention was found in the prefaces of the fact that this was done with a definite purpose in mind.

Although the idea was not actually expressed in many of the prefaces, there was evidence throughout the period covered by the study that authors had attempted to help develop pupils to meet life's responsibilities and problems. The more modern attitude toward the subject is found stated by the authors of *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), when they said:

Pupils work at all times under the inspiration of expressing ideas of inherent interest . . . Moreover, it [the text] develops in the members of a class a spirit of cooperation, and ability to lead, both of which are essential characteristics of the future citizens of our country. (23c:iii)

Bullions (1834), whose grammar was claimed to be a rewriting or an "improvement" of Murray's, was the only one of the authors in this study to state that an object of his grammar text was to "render it a profitable introduction to classical studies" (7:v). He went on to say:

While all languages differ from each other in their mode of inflexion, and in some forms of expression peculiar to themselves, usually denominated *idioms*, their general principles are, to a very great extent, the same. It would seem, therefore, to be proper, in constructing grammars for different languages, that the principles, so far as they are the same, should be arranged in the same order, and expressed as nearly as possible in the same words. Were this carefully done, the study of the grammar of one language would be a very important aid in the study of another; . . . (7:v-vi)

In his attempt to carry out his idea of making a grammar more useful in this respect, Bullions published a series of grammars, using the same general arrangement of subject matter and the same terminology in all three. In this series were included his *Principles of English Grammar*, a Greek grammar, and a Latin grammar.

Quite recently, Burleson and Cash (1939-1944) expressed this aim in much the same way, but with a little more stress on developing ability in future citizens than in building character. This is in keeping with the trends of the times.

The authors of this book have sought to make its exercises definitely practical, believing such approach to be the most efficient in helping young people to think and express themselves clearly while at school, and to work, later, with purpose and competency in any field of endeavor. (27f:iv)

Hyde (1888-1896) was the first author in this study to state as one of the aims of her text that of cultivating an appreciation for good literature (16a:iii). For a time this seemed to be rather popular as a purpose in teaching language. Scott and Southworth (1906) stated that they attempted "to create a liking for good literature by presenting worthy selections to be read, studied, copied, and learned" (18a:iii), and later Pearson and Kirchwey (1914) mentioned that the material included in their text was "designed to engender respect for the mother tongue and sensitiveness to its beauty" (20a:v). However, little more was said about the subject in the texts studied until the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) included among its objectives that of giving guidance in literary appreciation (27c:iii). While this aim is perhaps more nearly related to the teaching of reading than of language, in many courses of study today reading and language are closely interwoven.

Although the theory of mental discipline was widely accepted during the latter part of the nineteenth century, and grammar was considered one of the principal subjects through which pupils could gain growth in ability to think, only one or two of the texts included in this study stressed the point as one of their aims:

As a means of discipline nothing can compare with a training in the logical analysis of the sentence. To study thought through its outward form, the sentence, and to discover the fitness of the different parts of the expression to the parts of the thought, is to learn to think. (13a:7)

Other theories that were popular among educators at one time or another did not show up very clearly in the grammars studied, nor did the authors mention that they were attempting to present their material in line with the ideas of these various groups.

On the whole, the trends toward usability and understandability in the texts were by far the most pronounced and the most consistent of the purposes mentioned. They have been evident from the time when grammar was taught purely as a technical and scientific subject to the present time. Grammar study has now become language study, a subject useful in our daily living, and the main purpose of grammar teaching has become that expressed by Burleson and Cash (1939-1944) in their *Adventures in English* series:

Language is more than sounds and symbols. Man has breathed into it life and intelligence. The rhythm of creation animates it. The authors hope that this book will help the young learner to sense that rhythm and give him confidence and competence to share increasingly in its power. (27b:iii)

Chapter III

Physical Make-up of the Books

THE first feature a person notices about a book is its general appearance, and therefore this phase of the analysis of grammar texts is discussed before those of content and method. Some individuals see only the size of the book and the color and design of the cover when considering its more material characteristics. Others, however, notice also such factors as size of print, use of illustrations, and so forth. In the textbooks analyzed, all these points and others, too, have been studied, as each of them plays a part in determining the physical make-up of the text.

Number of Volumes in Text

The earlier textbooks included grammar for "the different classes of learners" (2:title page) within the covers of one volume. Although authors sometimes mentioned that they had designed their texts for young people, until the middle of the nineteenth century no evidence was found of any actual distinction between the material offered for beginners and that which was planned for older students.

Pinneo (1850) was the first author in the group studied to include the more elementary phases of grammar in one textbook and then to prepare a separate text for more advanced students. However, in the preface to the text analyzed in this study, *Pinneo's Analytical Grammar of the English Language*, he stated that, while the book was intended to succeed his *Primary Grammar*, it was designed "to be complete in itself, and does not necessarily require an acquaintance with its predecessor, although such acquaintance will essentially facilitate the study with all learners, and with young pupils is especially important" (9:5).

At about the same time, Greene also made a distinction between elementary and advanced students, although the text analyzed in this study is not an example of a two-book series. In the preface to *The Elements of English Grammar* (1853), Greene opened with the statement that "the design of this new work — for it is essentially new — is to combine in one treatise all the distinguishing features of the 'Analysis' and 'The First Lessons'" (10:iii). In carrying out this statement, he included in the front of the book 36 pages of material titled "Introductory Course for Beginners," with detailed instructions as to how the subject matter should be presented by the teacher.

Among the texts included in this study, that written by Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) was the first to appear in two volumes, the one designed for younger pupils and the other for the upper grades. A few years later Hyde put out a two-book series, and, by the turn of the century, most grammars designed for the elementary grades were published in two or more volumes. The only texts included in this study which appeared in only one volume after that date were that by Lewis and Lynch (1918) and that by Daringer (1938), both of which were designed for the upper grades only and have been included here be-

cause they have been very popular as texts and because they cover approximately the same grammar teaching as do the other books analyzed.

By 1923 authors were beginning to designate the exact material to be taught in each separate grade. The *Essential Language Habits* series, which appeared at this time, and *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) and *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934), which followed, were published in three volumes each, with each volume designed for two grades, Part 1 for the lower of the two grades and Part 2 for the higher. These books were necessarily very long, the more advanced volume of each series having more than 400 pages.

Although the last of these three series mentioned was put out in three volumes, it contained a statement in the preface that it was published "in a three-book and in a book-a-grade edition" (24a:iii). This was therefore the first of the texts to take up with the six-book organization of elementary grammar texts. Grammars put out in this form were naturally easier to handle. This advantage and the fact that children enjoy having a new book each year may have been the principal reasons why the last two textbooks analyzed, *Step by Step in English* and *Adventures in English*, were published in six volumes each, one for each grade from the third through the eighth.

Size of Book

Length and breadth. — Although the range in length and width of the books seems to indicate a wide variation in size, with the exception of two or three books, differences were minor. In fact, there was less than an inch difference in either the length or the width of most of the texts analyzed.

Comly's grammar (1805) was much the smallest of the books, 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ by 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches, while the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) was the largest, 8 by 6 inches. Dilworth's and Murray's grammars, which were published before Comly's, were also small, but only one other text was less than 7 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches in length. In width, texts did not become standardized until much later, however. None of the books was more than 5 inches wide until the Hyde series in 1888-1896, but after this date all were more than 5 inches wide and all but two were from 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 6 inches in width.

Books within a series were almost always the same size. The only significant difference was that in Reed and Kellogg's text (1875-1877) and this was due to the fact that the two books used in this analysis were from editions published several years apart. The only other series in which there was any difference was that of Hyde (1888-1896), a difference of less than a quarter of an inch each way.

Number of pages. — The number of pages in each book has also become more or less standardized. This probably has been the result of studies concerning the most convenient size of books. However, the tendency toward standardization relates to individual books only. There was wide variation in number of pages in the texts when all volumes in a series were considered.

Although the number of pages in the books ranged from 113 in Tweed's (1886) to 485 in the advanced text in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934), almost all books contained between 200 and 250 pages. There was a slight trend toward including more pages to the book, though it was not very pronounced. Only four of the earliest 20 books had more than 300 pages, while 12 of the latest 20 had more than 300, three of these having more than 400 pages each.

Texts published in more than one volume almost invariably contained more pages in the volumes for the upper grades, although the difference was not great. On the whole, the volumes with the largest number of pages were the three-book series, in which work for two separate grades was included. These contained from 1,000 to 1,200 pages, when all three books were considered, while the six-book series contained only from 1,600 to 1,800 pages.

Cover of Book

Material. — Leather covered cardboard was a popular material for covering textbooks in the early days. Three of the earliest grammars analyzed in this study were bound in leather and six others had a backbone of leather.

Paper covered cardboard came into use early in the nineteenth century and was very popular for a number of years. Of the analyzed texts published during the first 65 years of that century, all except one were covered in this way. Before the use of paper for covers went out of vogue, textbook writers were taking advantage of the fact that it could be easily printed, and books appeared with a great deal of information on their outside covers.

Cloth, which was much more durable than paper, appeared first in 1868 as a book covering among the texts studied. Cloth was evidently found to be a very satisfactory material for this purpose, for it was used on all textbooks from that time to the present day.

Color. — All the leather covered texts were tan and, while attractive in appearance, were not particularly interesting or inviting to the young mind. The paper covers of the early days, too, were far from gay, as there seemed to be an attempt not to stray too far from the browns of the leather covers. Not one of the books with a paper cover was in a color that would stand out as different on a shelf of books. Some were tan, while others were dull gray, dusty rose, or light gray-blue.

Even after cloth came into use, there still was a tendency to use the traditional drab colors. None of the books appeared with a bright cover until the late 1800's. Although the 1893 edition (the one analyzed) of Reed and Kellogg's advanced text was in bright red, no information was available as to the color of the original edition (1877). Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar* (1877) broke away from the pale dull colors and was bound in dark green, while Tweed's (1886) appeared in a rather dark red. These were the first to use deeper, richer colors.



Fig. 2. Textbook covers typical of various periods.

Hyde was the first to use truly gay colors. Her elementary text appeared in a rich dark red and the advanced grammar in a turquoise blue. Except for these, books were either dark or somber in color until about 1920. The *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) appeared in bright orange, and from that time on a good deal of color was used in all texts.

In the earlier series, books were bound alike, with the exception of the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) and the Hyde series (1888-1896). However, as has been mentioned before, in both of these series, the books analyzed were of different editions, a fact which may account for their difference in appearance.

The three books in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) were the first to appear in different colors in the same edition. These were in gray-blue, tan, and rust, colors which blended nicely, so that the books showed that they belonged together, yet were different enough to make each stand out individually.

From this time on, color became very popular for textbook covers. Daringer's text (1938) was in two shades of red; and each book in the two six-book series appeared in a different color. *Step by Step in English* (1940-1941) was in rather soft shades — a rosy cream, light blue, pale green, and so forth, while *Adventures in English* (1939-1944) looked more like the type of text its name indicates, with books in turquoise, bright orange, clear yellow, vivid green, etc.

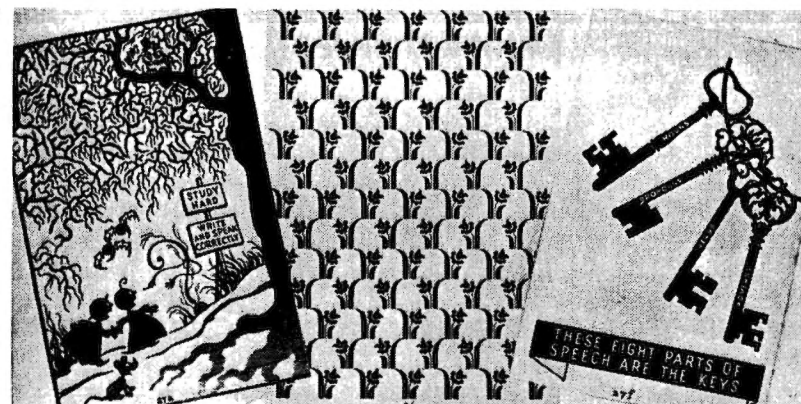
Design. — Of the texts analyzed, the first to have any print on the cover was that by Smith (1832). This gave only the name of the book, author, and publisher, with a narrow scrolled border around the edge. After 1845, however, when the first text with a picture on the front appeared, no other texts had plain covers.

Pictures on early covers always concerned school situations. Butler (1845) used a picture of a schoolmaster lecturing to his students, with several kinds of print above and below the sketch, some rather large and startling. The cover of Kerl's text (1864) was also well covered with print and pictures, as can be seen in Figure 2.

Pinneo's *Analytical Grammar of the English Language* (1850) and Greene's *Elements of English Grammar* (1853) had plain borders but no pictures. Instead, they were almost entirely covered with print. Greene included the name of the series, the title of the text, a very long and detailed subtitle taking nine lines as it was set up, the name of the author, his degrees and title in his present position, the name of the publisher and place of publication, and the names and addresses of 11 other firms, probably places where printing was done or material distributed for Cowperthwait, Desilver, and Butler.

Harvey's grammar (1868), which was the first to have a cloth cover, brought to an abrupt end the fad of giving extensive information on the cover. No print was attempted on the cover to this text, but a border design was made by pressing the cardboard filling in a scroll design.

About this time decorative borders became very popular. Some books were very ornate in this respect, with a boxed section in which



(approximately one fourth size)

Fig. 3. Inside covers of recent texts.

the title and author of the book were given. Later, the design was used only at the top and bottom of the page. Tweed's text (1886) was an excellent example of this style, the border being about an inch wide. However, border designs did not continue to be popular for long, and covers became more simple and more interesting. On some only the title of the book and the author were given; on others even less information than this.

In more recent texts an effort has been made to use more originality in designing covers. On the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) was a picture of two scribes with large quill pens, one on either side of a portal; the covers of *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) were made to look like hinged doors, and other texts used a small decorative sketch of some kind. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) put only the name of the text (the name of each volume in the series was different) on the cover, printed in script.

On the covers of almost all the early texts the print was in black, although now and then gold was used on the backbone when it was made of leather. Gold was the first color, also, to be used in printing the front cover, but it was not until after the beginning of the twentieth century that anything but black was used for this purpose. About the same time that Robbins and Row (1907) used gold, Pearson and Kirchwey (1914) published a text whose covers were printed in bright red, and from this time on colored ink was used rather extensively. In the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) and in the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) colors were used to make similar or identical designs look different. While no design appeared on the cover of the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), the name of the book on each volume was enlivened with a deep blue purple ink instead of black.

Back cover. — The very early books had plain back covers but, with the advent of paper-covered cardboard for material, it became popular to use this space for printing a great deal of advertising. Sometimes other books written by the same author were listed, and sometimes other texts in the same series or other publications of the publisher were given. With the advent of cloth-covered covers, however, backs again became plain and, except for a small publisher's symbol or a very simple border to correspond with that on the front, practically none of the backs contained either printing or design.

Inside cover. — In the days when extensive and detailed information was printed on the covers of texts, this material was sometimes carried over to the inside cover. Kerl's grammar (1864), however, was the only one of the texts included in this study to follow this procedure. On the whole, inside covers were plain, but with the present tendency to make textbooks as attractive and colorful as possible, interesting inside covers are coming into favor. The only two texts to decorate their inside covers were the two most recently published (see Figure 3). The earlier of the two used a conventional tulip design, corresponding in color with that of the outside covers of the books. Each book in the other series had a different drawing in color, symbolic of the learning of correct English. In all books, the front and back inside covers were alike.

Appearance of Page

Wide differences were found in the general attractiveness of the printed page in these texts. Since students were not required to attend school or to learn grammar in the early days covered by this study, grammars were written primarily for those who were already interested in the subject. The subject matter, therefore, was of much greater importance than the physical form in which it was presented. Authors crowded as much material as possible on each page, almost in encyclopedic form, with little thought as to its appearance or even as to its readability. Later, however, when it became necessary to attract the child's attention as well as to present the subject matter, much thought was given to the appearance of the page.

Margins. — Increase in the width of margins was, of course, a contributing factor in the improvement of grammars. Early texts had very narrow margins. In two or three of the books studied, the top and side margins were not more than a quarter of an inch in width and the lower margin was only about half an inch. Lower margins in the more recent texts, however, increased to from three quarters to more than an inch and side margins averaged about three quarters of an inch. Because of these differences, the size of the printed page has not varied much. Brown's text (1823) and Smith's (1832), for example, had almost as many square inches of print per page as had the most recently published of the texts, although the proportions of the page were slightly different, the more modern pages being broader and somewhat shorter.

Size of type. — The early books contained far more print to the page than did later texts, because the size of type was so much smaller (see

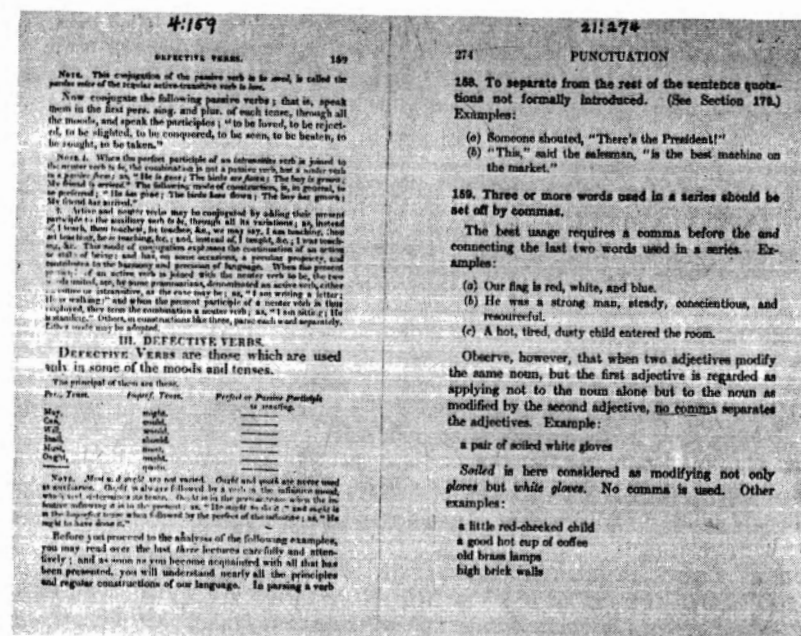


Fig. 4. Examples of old and new textbook pages, showing differences in size of print and general appearance of the page.

Figure 4). It was not uncommon for them to have as many as 10 lines to the inch, averaging about 120 words in a one-inch strip across the page, and most of them had at least seven lines (70 words) to the inch. Footnotes or notes inserted in the text were sometimes even smaller than this. In Brown's (1823) and Smith's (1832) grammars some notes were as small as 15 or 16 lines (250 to 275 words) to the inch, and were very difficult to read without a magnifying glass.

The size of type was often used to indicate different kinds of material. Comly (1805), for example, stated that "such parts as appear most necessary to be committed to memory are exhibited in a larger type" (3:3), and Bullions (1834) explained in the preface to his book that "very young pupils, or mere beginners at any age, should be required to study only the *leading parts* which are generally distinguished in the Grammar by a *larger type*" (7:viii). Greene (1853) used different sizes of type in much the same way as did Bullions, stating clearly in his preface that "the paragraphs in large type are intended as a *first course*, to be committed to memory by the learner. The Remarks in smaller type are intended as a *second course* for the more advanced pupil" (10:viii).

No mention was made in the texts to the effect that the use of larger type for the younger children was the result of actual educational research. Perhaps it came only as the result of a discovery by

teachers that children read the larger type and often skipped the smaller. However, the increased use of larger type apparently brought to the attention of book makers the fact that frequent insertions of small type had a "deadening" effect on the appearance of the page. Then, too, by the middle of the nineteenth century authors were beginning to present their grammar in a continuous building up from one item to the next, and the use of different sizes of type tended to break the continuity of thought they desired.

In the grammars of the last half century, those for the lower grades often had only about five lines (45 to 50 words) to the inch, and even the more advanced books in the series seldom had more than six lines to the inch. Standardization in this respect has been brought about partly through experimentation as to the size of type most easily read and partly, as has been said, through a desire on the part of textbook writers to make the pages of their books look uncrowded and inviting.

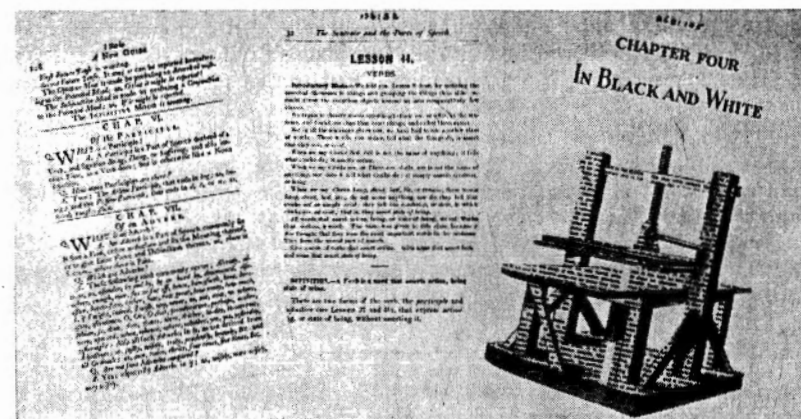
Kind of type. — The kind of type also had a great deal to do with readability. Up to the early part of the nineteenth century italics was very popular and, although the main part of a book was written in Roman type, rules, definitions, and stressed words or sentences were almost always printed in italics. Dilworth (1740) went so far as to print his entire four-page preface in this kind of type.

Greene (1853) used italics in somewhat the same way as early writers used small type. He stated that he "thought it best to indicate the prominent idea in the paragraphs to be committed to memory by *Italics*, rather than to insert printed questions" (10:viii). However, it was not long after this that much of the italics in textbooks was supplanted by bold-face Roman type. According to Kerl (1864), "bold-face type, which we were the first to adopt for school-books, in 1858, has been since adopted almost universally for such books" (11:66). It is still very popular, the most recently published of the texts analyzed, *Adventures in English* (1939-1944), having used it to set forth all the rules and principles in the books to aid in efficient teaching and rapid review.

In general, Roman type has been used for headings in texts throughout the period covered by this study. Sometimes this was in light face, sometimes in bold. In the earlier years headings were almost always in capitals, some large and some small, but a few of the recent texts have used capitals and lower case in bold face for their lesser headings.

Another kind of type, Tempo, which has recently become very popular because of its simplicity and greater readability, was used for the principal headings in Daringer's *Grammar for Everyday Use* (1938). Daringer also varied her headings by setting chapter and subdivision heads flush with the left-hand margin instead of centering them. Her headings were short and concise and had an unusually large amount of space around them, the neatness and openness of the page making the book very inviting.

Spacing of material. — A great deal of progress has been made in this respect. In the old texts one of the greatest drawbacks to making



(approximately three tenths size)

Fig. 5. Chapter heads in old and new texts.

the books attractive was that of leaving too little space between items. The page had a crowded, cluttered appearance that was confusing to the reader. One item followed another in such close proximity that it was difficult at times to tell that the subject matter had changed, and new chapters began immediately following the close of the preceding chapter rather than at the top of the following page (see Figure 5).

In the newer texts far more open space was provided. Headings were not crowded, space was left between topics and even between paragraphs dealing with the same topic, so that each point stood out clearly. Chapters always began on a new page, and in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) there was even a title page for each chapter.

Illustrations. — Another means of making books more attractive was the use of illustrations. Surprisingly, the earliest of the texts analyzed, Dilworth's (1740), was well illustrated with what were probably wood cuts. The author's picture was in the front of the text, several chapter headings were decorated, and toward the end of the book a number of fables were illustrated. Up to the time of Reed and Kellogg, 135 years later, no other text studied included pictures, except that now and then a letter form was illustrated. Hyde (1888-1896) was the only other author before the beginning of the twentieth century to enliven a text with illustrations, but after that date pictures were found in almost all the texts.

At first the only illustrations included were for instructional purposes. In composition, pupils were sometimes asked to write a story about a picture with a human interest element of some kind, while in letter writing, the illustrations usually concerned the spacing and arrangement of the parts of a letter or of the address on an envelope.

The idea of illustrating grammars expanded to include many other types of material. Clever ideas for illustrating rules or definitions were

used as teaching aids; maps, charts of various kinds, cartoons, and so forth were used in discussions of different topics; and the last two series of grammars analyzed contained many illustrations for the sole purpose of making the books more cheerful and attractive.

The Robbins-Row series (1907) was the first to introduce color into its illustrations, but only a few of the books analyzed used more than one color and black and white, except in the case of one or two full-page colored pictures in some of the texts.

The only grammar to use a great deal of color was the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), which included many illustrations, both in color and in black and white. Some of these extended to the edges of the page, leaving no margins, the book as a whole being very bright and attractive.

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944), which was the most recent one analyzed, used only one or two colors in each book for most of its illustrations. This may not have been the original intention of the authors, as the war started during the time that this series was being published and war shortages may have made it necessary to keep to a more simple printing job. The quality of paper in this last set of books showed the effect of the war.

Attractiveness of Book as an Interest of Authors and Publishers

Although in many old textbooks statements were carried to the effect that the author or publisher had attempted to make the book as attractive as possible from a physical point of view, none of the older grammars analyzed happened to contain any comment of note concerning the make-up of the text. The constant improvement found in the appearance of the texts was almost the only evidence of interest taken in this matter, but the change from the dull, uninviting grammars of the past, with their small type and crowded pages, to the gayly colored books of today, with their easily read print and their interesting illustrations, is sufficient proof that there has been a very real desire on the part of both authors and publishers to make their books more readable and more attractive.

Chapter IV

Introductory and Supplementary Content

Introductory Content

IN THE front of every textbook, in fact of every book, there are several pages given over to information that concerns the book but is not an actual part of its subject matter. These pages usually include the title page, the preface, and the table of contents. Sometimes, but not often, other material was also found in this part of the texts.

Title page. — Judging by the grammars analyzed, a title page has always been considered a vital part of a textbook, as every one of the grammars studied included one. The information given on this page, however, has become very much simplified through the years.

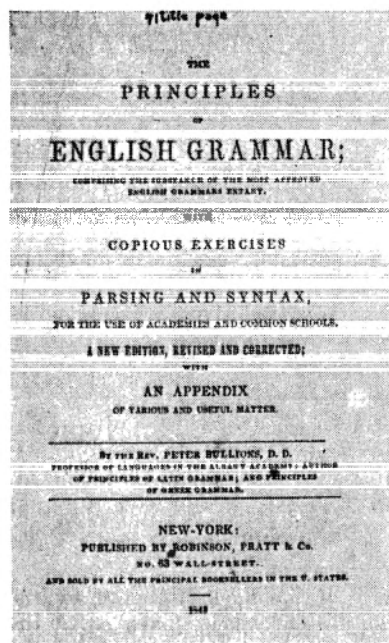
Some of the title pages in old textbooks were almost entirely covered with print, much of it very small (see Figure 6). At the top of the page was the name of the textbook series to which the text belonged. It seems that publishers in those days put out their educational publications under a series title, textbooks in all subjects being included under this title. This use of the term "series" is very different from that in modern grammars which included only the volumes designed for the various grade levels of a certain text.

Below the series name was the title of the book, followed by the subtitle, which sometimes took a great deal of space. Then came the author's name, his degrees, his present position, and the names of the more prominent of the books he had written. This statement was sometimes followed by a quotation, either in Latin or in English, or by the edition of the book being printed, or by both. At the bottom of the page were given the name of the publisher, the addresses of his various distribution offices, and sometimes the date of publication.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, textbook authors had begun to realize that this very uninteresting, scholarly looking page was not encouraging to the pupil, especially to the one who did not enjoy studying. They therefore enlivened title pages a little by leaving out some of the information or by transferring it to another page. The dropping of subtitles brought about a big improvement in the appearance of the page. Quotations were omitted, as also were names of additional publications, the various addresses of the publisher, and sometimes even the date.

In 1914 the Pearson-Kirchwey series added to the attractiveness of the title page by placing a full-page colored picture facing it. One or two other texts, including the most recently published, adopted this idea also. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) used the very original idea of having the title page cover both sides of the spread page. An attractive picture in several colors extended from the left-hand page over on the right-hand one, while some of the information was

given on the left-hand page. In this series only the series title, the book title, the names of the authors, and the name of the publisher were given on the title page.



(one half size)

Fig. 6. Title page of an old text.

later, attempted a similar thing in *A Shorter Course in English Grammar* (1864).

In 1845 authors added the term "practical" to the title of Butler's text, and two or three other grammars in the next half a century also used this word.

Butler was also the first to use the word "language," in *A Practical Grammar of the English Language* (1845), but he did not allow it to replace the word "grammar." This change in title came about the time that authors were first giving evidence that they were becoming conscious of the fact that ability to use the grammar learned was even more important than was a knowledge of scientific grammar alone.

The first text to use the term "English" in the title without including either the word "grammar" or the word "language" was that of Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877). The use of the term "English" was very popular in the early 1900's and again very recently, but between about 1920 and 1940 most of the texts used the word "language" instead. The word "grammar," which had been such a favorite in the early days, was used in the main title of only two of the texts published after 1896.

Hyde (1888-1896) was the first author to bring out in the textbook title the idea of teaching grammar for "use." Lewis and Lynch

Title of text. — Through the years there has been a comparative uniformity in the titles of grammar texts. The formality of the earlier texts sometimes led to a rather sedate sounding title, such as Dilworth's *A New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740), but on the whole there was a straightforwardness and simplicity about the titles that led to a sameness through the first century covered by this study. Only five of the texts published during this time failed to use the term "English grammar" in their main titles. Murray (1795) and Kirkham (1823) included no other words in their titles, but other authors indicated that their texts covered the "institutes," "principles," "elements," or "essentials" of English grammar.

Comly catered to those who were seeking an easier way of learning their grammar by giving his text the title *English Grammar Made Easy to the Teacher and Pupil* (1805), and Kerl, much

(1918) and Daringer (1938) followed Hyde's example, and the title to the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) was also worded in such a way as to stress the same idea.

It was not until the last 20 years covered by this study that titles to grammars began to take on life and originality. About this time *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) used a title supposed to invite students to look into the text, that of *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) emphasized the practicality of its grammar, and that of *Adventures in English* (1939-1944) tried to make the series attractive from the point of view of opening up new experiences in English for the pupils.

Subtitle of text. — The style of subtitles to texts has undergone much more change than has that of the main titles. In the early days covered by this study, texts usually had very long and detailed subtitles. The most extreme of these was that of Dilworth (1740), whose book was published half a century before the opening of the 150-year period of this analysis. This subtitle gave almost as much information as is often found in the table of contents, and perhaps was planned for this purpose, since the book did not include a table of contents.

A
NEW GUIDE
TO THE
ENGLISH TONGUE:
In Five Parts.
CONTAINING

- I. Words, both *common* and *proper*, from one to six Syllables; The several sorts of *Monosyllables* in the *common* Words being distinguished by Tables, into Words of two, three, and four Letters, &c. with six short Lessons at the End of each Table, not exceeding the order of Syllables in the foregoing Tables. The several sorts of *Polysyllables* also, being ranged in proper Tables, have their Syllables divided, and Directions placed at the Head of each Table for the Accent, to prevent *false Pronunciation*; together with the like Number of Lessons on the foregoing Tables, placed at the End of each Table, as far as to Words of four Syllables, for the easier and more speedy Way of teaching Children to read.
- II. A large and useful Table of Words, that are the same in *Sound*, but different in *Signification*; very necessary to prevent the writing of one Word for another of the same *Sound*.
- III. A short, but comprehensive, *Grammar* of the *English* Tongue, delivered in the most familiar and instructive Method of *Question* and *Answer*; necessary for all such Persons as have the Advantage only of an *English* Education.
- IV. An useful Collection of *Sentences* on *Prose* and *Verse*, *Divine*, *Moral*, and *Historical*; together with a select Number of *Fables* adorned with proper *Sculptures*, for the better Improvement of the Young Beginners. And,
- V. *Forms of Prayer* for Children, on several Occasions.

The *Whole* being recommended, by several *Clergymen* and eminent *Schoolmasters*, as the most useful *Performance* for the Instruction of *Youth*. (1: title page)

More than half of the other analyzed grammars published before 1850 had long subtitles. Kirkham's *English Grammar* (1823), for example, was typical:

In familiar lectures, accompanied by a compendium; embracing a new systematic order of parsing, a new system of punctuation, exercises in false syntax, and a system of philosophical grammar, in notes: to which are added an appendix, and a key to the exercises, designed for the use of schools and private learners. (4: title page)

Besides listing the principal phases of the content of the texts, these long subtitles almost invariably included a statement as to the type of pupils for whom the text was prepared. In the early days, schools were not common and in many localities students did not have an opportunity to attend. It was necessary, therefore, for those without this opportunity, to study alone or possibly with a tutor, if such were available. It was to the advantage of authors to write texts that could be used without the aid of a teacher; and authors often stated, as did Kirkham, that their grammars were planned "for the use of schools and private learners."

But it was not only schools that were scarce in the early days; suitable textbooks for those attending school also were hard to get. Some authors wrote their own, making their books available, of course, to other teachers. Comly (1805) was one of these. In the subtitle to his text he stated that it was "originally compiled for the use of West-Town Boarding School, Pennsylvania" (3: title page). This was good advertising. If the school was good, the book would sell, and if the book was good, the school received a better name from those who knew the text.

As schools increased in number, and the majority of children began to attend, books were no longer designed for "private learners." However, authors continued to mention that their texts were designed for schools or for use in the school room. With the coming of the two-book series, more specific information was given concerning the grade level of students for whom the books were planned.

About the middle of the century subtitles began to lose their popularity. Some grammars went so far as to omit them entirely, and those that continued their use made them very short. By the beginning of the twentieth century, subtitles had been dropped almost entirely.

Reed and Kellogg, whose grammar was the earliest one analyzed that was published in more than one volume, called their elementary volume *Graded Lessons in English* (1875) and their advanced text, *Higher Lessons in English* (1877). All the other series of texts, however, either gave a common name to the separate books or used a series name, with each book having an individual title. In many cases this title was merely the grade designation or the number identifying the position of the book in relation to the other volumes in the series, as mentioned above. The first series to use an individual title on each volume was the Robbins-Row series (1907), but the titles were very simple and matter-of-fact, *Book One* being *Language*, and *Book Two*, *Grammar and Composition*.

In only three texts were different titles given to each volume; but in each series an improvement was made over the one before in the amount of imagination shown in naming the books. The last series to use this plan was the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), which used titles in keeping with the age and interest of the child, beginning with *Fun with Words* for the third grade and ending with *Strength Through English* for the eighth.

Preface. — Although every text included material that could logically fall under the heading of "Preface," and most books so termed it, a few of the authors substituted what they called an "Introduction" or included, either as a part of the preface or in place of it, a few paragraphs titled "Suggestions to the Teacher" or "To the Pupil."

Prefaces ranged in length from one to five pages; the only exceptions being that of Brown's *Institutes of English Grammar* (1823), which was ten pages long, and that of Greene's *Elements of English Grammar* (1853), which covered six pages. The more recently published books had shorter prefaces, only one since 1914 giving more than three pages to this part of the text. In this study the volumes in recent series have been considered individually in determining the length of prefaces. Since in some series this section of the book was repeated *in toto* and in others in part in the different volumes, the sum of pages given to such material in all the books of a series did not give a true picture of the relative amount of discussion of this kind. On the whole, much less repetition was found in the more recently published series. In some of them, in fact, there was no repetition whatever.

One of the principal items found discussed in prefaces was that of the *purpose* of the textbooks. These have been discussed in more detail in Chapter II of this analysis. Other points brought out were those of justification for the book or phases of its content, the source of information used as a basis for the content, an explanation of the organization of material, a discussion of the method of presentation of material, suggestions as to the most advantageous ways of using the text, and the grades for which the text was designed.

Throughout the years, authors have justified the writing of a grammar text by pointing out the needs which it would fill. Dilworth (1740) included such a statement in his text, but, like those in most of the older grammars, it emphasized the wrongs being committed and the obligation the author felt for correcting these. He said in part:

As all Learning gradually ascends from the first Knowledge and use of *Letters, Syllables, and Words*, what better Work can the Instructor of *Youth* undertake than endeavour to propagate the *Knowledge*, prevent and rectify the *Mistakes*, and root out the ill *Habits* contracted by many in a wrong *Method*, either thro' the Ignorance or neglect of the *Teacher*. (1:A2)

In recent books authors have said the same thing but presented it from a much friendlier and more constructive point of view. There was no longer the implication of great error or lack on the part of the pupil.

The assumption was that the child already had a start in learning the things he should know in his study of English, that he felt the need for help and would welcome any information or suggestions the text could provide, and that the author wanted to give him all the assistance possible. The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) explained how it could help the student as follows:

The book advances the pupil in his study of English in six ways — by helping him, namely, to have something to say and to say it well, to avoid common errors in speech, to listen intelligently, to write clearly, to develop critical standards by which to judge stories, motion pictures, and radio programs, and to gain greater skill and joy in reading. (27e:iii)

Sometimes authors justified the space given to certain phases of content, pointing out the advantages of such material. Gould Brown (1823), for example, stated that:

A Key to the *Oral Exercises in False Syntax*, is inserted in the Grammar, that the pupil may be enabled fully to prepare himself for that kind of class recitations. (5:xii)

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), in the preface of their text, listed three good reasons why they had given so much space to the study of the sentence.

The large space allotted to the sentence is necessary, because (1) the offices and relations of words are many and diverse, and they must be mastered by analysis and synthesis before the inflections can be understood; (2) because Arrangement must be studied, and the relations of clauses in the complex and the compound sentence must be understood in order to secure variety, force, and clearness of expression; and (3) because, in reading, the pupil cannot express the subordination of the dependent clause to the independent and the co-ordination of independent clauses, till he can detect the relation of these elements at a glance. (13b:5)

Pearson and Kirchwey (1914) were also among those who gave an explanation for the emphasis they put on a certain phase of content, saying that "since children must inevitably learn the language through the spoken word, prominence is given throughout the book to oral work" (20a:v).

In the older texts, justification of content took also another form, that of giving the source of statements made in the texts. As Brown (1823) said, "Grammar unsupported by authority, is indeed mere fiction" (5:iv). In the early days certain persons were recognized as well-informed leaders in the field of grammar, and textbook authors interested in impressing people with the authenticity of their texts often named the grammarians from whom they had obtained the facts given. In explaining the source of their information, many of the books gave credit to Murray or to one of his contemporaries, while Murray himself included such statements as the following:

The rules and observations respecting Perspicuity, &c. contained in the Appendix, and which are, chiefly, extracted from the writings of Blair and Campbell, will, it is presumed, form a proper addition to the Grammar. (2:5)

As the content of grammar texts became more simplified, the backing of technical grammarians grew less important, and consensus of opinion on a certain phase of the work was given more weight. Brown (1823) was among the first to state in his preface that he had attempted to find out what others thought should be included in a grammar textbook. He stated that:

He [the author] has studiously endeavoured to avail himself of all the light they have thrown upon the subject. For his own information, he has carefully perused more than two hundred English grammars, . . . (5:iv)

This plan of Brown's in determining the content to be included in a grammar text is still in favor today, as is evidenced by such statements as the following, found in the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944):

The materials in this book, the methods of presentation, and the basic philosophy behind it are fruits of long experience in the classroom. They also represent the careful appraisal and winnowing of authoritative courses of study. (27a:iii)

Murray (1795) realized the problems involved in writing a grammar acceptable to all when he said, in the preface of his text:

The subject is attended with so much intricacy, and admits of views so various, that it was not possible to render every part of it unexceptionable; or to accommodate the work in all respects, to the opinions and prepossessions of every grammarian and teacher. If the author had adopted that system which, on the whole, is best suited to the nature of the subject, and conformable to the sentiments of the most judicious grammarians; if his reasonings and illustrations, respecting particular points, are founded on just principles, and the peculiarities of the English language; he has, perhaps, done all that could reasonably be expected in a work of this nature; and he may warrantably indulge a hope, that the book will be still more extensively approved and circulated. (2:8)

Misunderstandings would probably have been less numerous had it not been for the fact that grammarians delved so deeply into the intricacies of technical construction. Such matters were of vital concern to the early students of grammar, and controversies were common even as late as 1864, when Kerl wrote his *Shorter Course in English Grammar*. However, by this time the discussion had come to center in the type of content to be included in the texts and the method of presentation rather than around the more detailed technicalities of the subject. Kerl commented on these differences of opinion in the preface of his text:

The great diversity of opinion, on the subject in general, is certainly something to amuse, if not dishearten, the man who undertakes to make a new grammar. What one teacher approves, another condemns; and what proves a failure with one, is a success with another. (11:3)

Even as recently as the early 1900's authors were criticizing other men's grammars, inferring in their criticism that the weaknesses pointed out had been corrected in their own texts. Robbins and Row (1907) objected particularly to the kind and amount of grammar included in elementary textbooks in a statement made in the preface to their text:

The most prevalent, serious mistake, in this connection (teaching of English grammar in elementary schools) has been the attempt to teach grammar too early in the school course. English grammar is a highly abstract science, because it is the study of thought expressed in symbols. The analysis of language is, therefore, the analysis of thought and the modes of its expression. Grammar has been called the logic of the common schools.

A second common error in text-books on grammar for elementary schools has been the attempt to teach too much; that is, to analyze elements too minutely, to tease out over-nice distinctions and, hence, to make unnecessary classifications. Important fundamental conceptions have been obscured by the mass of details. The really vital problems have been treated in a superficial way, and the result, commonly, has been confusion, misapprehension, and often disgust with the very name "grammar." (19b:3)

In later books adverse criticism was often inferred rather than stated. Such inference usually was found in constructive comments on the advantages of the book being prefaced. Sometimes these concerned the organization of the text, as in the following:

The use of the natural unit is a unique feature. The conventional synthetic unit is avoided. The natural unit is the only unit for language study. It is not confined in an artificial compartment held together only by a label. It reaches to every part of the course and joins tissues with every other unit. It is both structural and functional.

Such an organization leads the pupil to feel the vitality of language. It makes his study a vital part of his everyday affairs. At the same time it captures the spirit of adventure, and traditional obstacles become challenges to discovery.

From the teacher's point of view, the natural unit has every advantage. It permits flexibility of emphasis; insured adaptability to variable conditions of locale and teaching circumstance; and guarantees interest in drill for skill as a natural part of creative endeavor. (27b:iii)

A discussion of the organization of a text sometimes led to an explanation of the method to be used by the teacher in presenting the material; for example, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), in a section of the preface entitled "Brief Suggestions to Teachers," gave general directions as to the method to be used:

Encourage pupils to take initiative in the work and to feel responsibility for their own progress. Use the tests and the composition score to help them in measuring their work.

See that the work in conversation and composition is done under the stimulus of communicating ideas, but prevent aimless talking. Each lesson should be both an expression of thought and a training in form. (23b:iv)

One other type of information, the grade or grades for which the book was designed, was found rather generally in the prefaces. Since the grading of grammars was not started until about the middle of the 150-year period covered by this study, the early grammars analyzed stated only that they were designed for "all classes of learners" (5:iii), "for the use of the more advanced scholar, as well as of the mere beginner" (7:viii), or for "the schoolroom" (11:4). However, after texts began to appear in more than one volume, authors were more specific in naming the grades for which their books were planned. Many stated in the opening sentence of the preface that the book was designed for "grade three" or "grades seven and eight." With the exception of one or two of the more recent texts, the preface of almost every grammar after 1890 contained this information.

Acknowledgment. — Few authors failed to acknowledge the help they had received from other grammarians, from teachers, and from publishers in the development of their texts. In some books, the acknowledgment was given in the preface, but in more recent texts it was often printed on a separate page, immediately following the preface.

Table of contents. — Only three of the grammars contained no table of contents, and all these were published within the first 40 years covered by this analysis. Three other texts contained an alphabetized index in the front of the book instead of a chronological list of the contents, but the other 21 grammars had at least one page in each volume given to a table of contents.

This material was given from 1 to 14 pages of space in each book, with the earlier texts giving it less space than the later ones. Of the 13 grammars published before 1875, 11 gave it two pages or less; but during the next 60 years there was a strong tendency to make the table of contents very detailed. During this time the average length of such material was six pages. More recently the trend has been away from long tables of contents and in the last three series analyzed only about four pages in each volume were given to them.

The organization and arrangement of subject matter in the grammars showed up more clearly in the tables of contents than in any other part of the books (see Figure 7). Most of the early texts were divided into four main sections usually called parts, covering *orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody*. These were subdivided into numbered chapters, each part being numbered separately. Murray's *English Grammar* (1795) was typical in this respect. Under orthography were three chapters, "Of the Letters" (2:13), "Of Syllables, . . ." (2:35),

Index. — Of the grammars analyzed, none published during the first half of the 150-year period contained an index in the back of the book, although two or three had what they termed indexes in the front. Since 1886, however, an index has been so consistently included that it might almost be considered a standard part of every grammar textbook today.

Some of the indexes were so detailed that they took as much as 10 to 15 pages, the average length being about seven pages to the volume. In almost every case they were printed in a double column and were in smaller type than the rest of the book.

Appendix. — When included at all, appendixes were usually rather long, most of them being 20 or 30 pages in length, and one, that in Murray's text (1795), containing 60 pages. However, only nine of the 27 texts contained an appendix, and four of these nine books were published before 1835. It is evident, therefore, that there was not much consistency of opinion concerning the advantages of carrying appendix material in grammar texts.

Nor did authors agree as to the kind of information to be put in the appendix. Some of the earlier ones included rules and definitions, or a "key" for exercises in false syntax given in the text, but most of them, especially the later ones, used the appendix to give the pupil or teacher additional exercises, increased vocabulary training, or more advanced, technical material than was carried in the main part of the book.

Advertising. — Being dependent upon public approval for their financial success, textbooks have been brought to the attention of those who might use them by having their strong features pointed out. Sometimes authors have done this in a subtle way, through the prefaces to the texts, but at other times they have expounded the merits of their works in a much more obvious form.

In the early days the author of a grammar always did his own advertising. Kirkham (1823), under the separate heading of "Advertisement," showed considerable pride in the "gales of patronage which have wafted it [an earlier edition of his grammar] along" (4:7), and promised the public continued improvement in future editions of the book.

The most common method of advertising used by authors of the texts published early in the nineteenth century was that of printing in their books letters of recommendation from teachers and school administrators of note. Murray (1795) and Greene (1853) each included eight pages of such material, some in the front of the book and some in the back, Greene's text extending it even to the outside of the back cover. These recommendations were often very flowery.

Concerning Murray's *English Grammar*, Dr. Abercrombie said that "the unwearied exertions of this gentleman have done more towards elucidating the obscurities, and embellishing the structure of our language, than any other writer on the subject" (2:345-346), and Evan stated that it "nearly superseded every thing else of the kind, by concentrating the remarks of the best authors on the subject" (2:345). The *Annual Review* was among a number of magazines to publish recommendation of Murray's work:

Mr. Murray's Grammar, Exercises, and Key to the Exercises, form altogether, by far, the most complete and judicious analysis of the English language, that has hitherto been published. The rules for composition are excellent; the examples are selected with taste and judgment; and the execution of the whole displays an unusual degree of critical acuteness and sagacity.

Annual Review, 1802. (2:339)

Kirkham (1823) printed only a few recommendations, but he claimed to have had more than six hundred others "equally flattering with these" (4:3). Eber Wheaton, Principal of Mechanick's Society School, said, among other things, that in Kirkham's text "the lectures are ample, and given in so familiar and easy language, as to be readily understood, even by a *tyro* in grammar" (4:5), and Samuel Blood, Principal of Chambersburgh Academy, recommended the book especially for those who "are destitute of the advantages of an instructor" (4:4), stating in his introductory paragraph that:

It is now almost twenty years since I became a teacher of youth, and, during this period, I have not only consulted all, but have used many, of the different systems of English grammar that have fallen in my way; and, sir, I do assure you, without the least wish to flatter, that yours far exceeds any I have yet seen. (4:4)

Of the texts analyzed, Greene's (1853) was the last to include recommendations of this type. For some time after this, authors presented their "talking points" in the preface, bringing out the fact that they had made a definite effort to write textbooks that filled a felt need. Harvey (1868) was among those who handled his advertising in this way:

Actuated by a desire to render the labor of the class-room more pleasant and effective, by furnishing an attractive means for instruction in a useful branch of study, the author ventures the hope that this treatise will commend itself to the favorable notice and consideration of his fellow-teachers. (12:iv)

However, with the passing of compulsory school attendance laws in the various states of the Union, competition became very great among textbook writers. Judging from the decided improvement in the appearance of texts, publishers grew more and more interested in the popularity of their books. Great effort was made to get texts adopted for use in the schools of different states, and much advertising material was sent out to school administrators and teachers concerning new textbooks. This material was a modern version of the old-type recommendations, but it came from the publisher rather than from the author himself, and it was distributed usually by mail or in person by sales representatives instead of being printed in the text.

In 1923, the *Essential Language Habits* series came out with advertising matter printed on a separate sheet of paper, book-page size, and pasted lightly inside the front cover of the book. On this sheet were

The newer point of view is clearly evident in the wording of this foreword. Authors are no longer trying to encourage pupils to study by promising them rich future rewards. Instead, they are attempting to make their books inviting in appearance and to show pupils that they can have more fun and do more things in their everyday life if they learn more about their language.

While some authors are not as effective as others in attracting the pupils' attention because they still use the language of an adult speaking "down" to a child, there has been a consistent attempt on the part of these writers to help the pupil enjoy the text.

Chapter V

Subject-Matter Content

MANY changes have been made in the content of grammar texts, but most of them can be accounted for by the trend toward making grammar more useful in everyday life, and the consequent addition of various types of content.

Up to about 1850 language study was almost entirely a study of grammar and grammatical constructions. Much of the subject matter was a hand-me-down from Greek and Latin grammars and was not necessarily applicable to the English language, but, because it had always been included, textbook writers hesitated to omit it. For this reason a great deal of involved and sometimes unnecessary material was found in the early texts.

While grammar has continued to make up the greater part of language study, it has not entirely dominated textbooks as it did in the early 1800's. Composition came into texts about the middle of the century, and from this developed story telling, letter writing, and many other types of socially useful activities involving a knowledge of correct grammar. As these new topics appeared, some of the old ones disappeared, but the major topics, such as sentence structure and parts of speech, continued to be included in textbooks, the difference being principally in the relative emphasis given to each type of content and the point of view from which each topic was approached.

In collecting the data for this study concerning various types of content, the number of pages on which a certain topic was mentioned was determined for each text, rather than actual measurement of space. This method of determining the relative emphasis given a topic by the different texts gave a general idea of the amount of repetition in a book, for, if many pages were given to a topic, it could be assumed that the author either reviewed the subject often or presented it a little at a time, each time adding to knowledge already gained. The method does not, however, give an accurate idea of the amount of material included under each topic, for in the early books instruction was concentrated on a few pages while in the later ones a topic was sometimes merely mentioned on a page given to one or more other topics. Nevertheless, even a space count does not give a true picture of the amount of information given on a subject, because texts vary greatly in the number of examples and exercises used. It is for this reason that it is believed that the number of mentions is as accurate a way of determining relative emphasis as is the number of inches of space used.

Tabulating the material called for the making of many decisions. Certain content, for example, might be classed as parts of speech by one analyst, as parsing by another, as sentence structure by still another, and so forth. No two persons would classify the material in exactly the same way. Also, constant overlapping was found. Instruction on pronouns, for instance would be listed under pronouns, and certain types

of material found in this division might also be listed under rules, definitions, examples, exercises, or review. In the same way, material on the planning of a program for a club meeting would be counted under club meetings, programs, and perhaps, public speaking. Percentages of pages on which various topics are mentioned therefore add up to more than 100, but this does not lessen their value in showing the relative amount of space given to each topic.

In making up the tables, the study was divided into 40-year periods, all texts published up to 1835 being in the first period, those published between 1835 and 1875 in the second period, those between 1875 and 1915 in the third, and those between 1915 and 1945 (a 30-year period) in the fourth period. Percentages of pages given to a subject were found by determining the total number of pages given to the topic in all books of a certain period and dividing this number by the total number of pages in the texts of that period. In setting up the tables, the various types of content have been arranged in order of emphasis in all texts published during the 150-year period.

The content of the grammars was divided into five major classifications which included all except a very small percentage of miscellaneous material. Four of these classifications corresponded closely with the four major divisions of the early texts. Orthography is termed "the study of words" and includes all the content falling under this heading in the early texts as well as vocabulary building, which has been given a great deal of emphasis in later texts. Etymology is called "parts of speech" and deals only with this phase of grammar. Syntax is included under the heading "the sentence" and consists of punctuation and capitalization as well as the various phases of sentence construction. Prosody is termed "prose and poetry" and includes not only the rules of versification and other content found in early texts but also the composition work that has entered the texts during the past 150 years. The fifth major division, socially useful material, covers a type of content that is new to textbooks but that has gained rapidly in popularity and is found in almost all recent texts. It consists of instruction in all kinds of daily-life situations in which a knowledge of correct English is necessary. The relative amounts of emphasis given to these five divisions in the grammars analyzed are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES IN GRAMMAR TEXTBOOKS ON WHICH EACH OF THE FIVE MAJOR PHASES OF CONTENT WAS MENTIONED

Major division	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books*
The sentence.....	51	64	56	46	51
Parts of speech.....	49	63	48	35	43
Prose and poetry.....	8	7	42	46	30
The study of words.....	21	10	7	14	13
Socially useful material.....			8	18	12

*In this and succeeding tables, the percentage in this column is based on all pages of all books analyzed. It sometimes varies considerably from what would seem to be an average of the period percentages because the total number of pages varies from 1,457 in the first period to 7,371 in the last period.

Wide variance was found in the emphasis given to different kinds of content at different times. The sentence and the parts of speech have always been given a great deal of space, but there has not been as much difference in the percentage of mention of these divisions from one period to the next as in the case of the other divisions of grammar. The tendency has seemed to be to reduce the emphasis on these two phases, both having been given the greatest stress in the second period with less emphasis in each succeeding period.

Prose and poetry did not receive a great deal of space in the early grammars, but since 1875, when Reed and Kellogg introduced the idea of giving students a great deal of practice in composition writing, it has been mentioned on more than 40 per cent of the pages in texts.

The study of words was given most emphasis in the first period, when the study of grammar was taken up from such an analytical point of view that even single words were analyzed into their various syllables and much stress was placed upon the formation of words. Interest in this phase of word study lagged considerably in the next two periods, but in the last one words were again stressed. In this period, however, the emphasis was upon the use of words rather than upon their derivation.

Socially useful material was found in every period, but in the first two periods less than one half of one per cent of the pages of texts contained anything falling in this classification. In the third period this type of material gained rapidly and by the fourth period was found on 18 per cent of the pages. In all the grammars included in this study, socially useful material was given almost as much attention as was the study of words, although it did not really enter texts until about 1875.

The Sentence

The study of the sentence has been given more space in textbooks than has any other major phase of grammar instruction. This has been true not only of the textbooks as a whole, but also of those in each of the four periods when analyzed separately, the smallest percentage of pages given to the subject in any period being 46 per cent in the last period. The largest amount, 64 per cent, was given in the second period, when syntax received unusual emphasis. The relative amounts of space allotted the various phases of sentence study are given in Table II.

TABLE II. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE OF THE STUDY OF THE SENTENCE WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH SENTENCE STUDY WAS MENTIONED

Phases of sentence construction	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Sentence construction.....	22	24	61	46	45
Syntax.....	69	62	28	14	30
Parts.....	7	12	28	17	18
Punctuation.....	16	6	12	2	18
Capitalization.....	2	3	9	13	9
Form.....	4	6	8	4	6
Kinds.....	1	5	6	6	5
Arrangement.....	3	1	2	1	2

According to Table II, in all periods sentence construction and syntax received by far the most attention in the study of the sentence, while the form, kinds, and arrangement of sentences were given very little emphasis. Punctuation was stressed more than syntax during the last period but syntax was considered far more important during the second period. A great deal of variation was found in amount of emphasis given the more important phases of sentence study.

Sentence construction. — Sentence construction, which included the correction, completion, and contraction or expansion of sentences, was given much more emphasis than was any other phase of the study of the sentence. Syntax was not included as a part of this phase, because in almost all study of syntax the completed sentence was given and the student was asked to analyze it or explain its various parts. It therefore did not logically fall under the heading of sentence construction.

Comparatively little stress was placed upon sentence construction in the first two periods. This was undoubtedly because of the way in which grammar was presented at that time, for the deductive method of teaching is based on the setting up of rules, definitions, and correct examples for the student to memorize and copy, rather than on any creative work of the pupil. While material was included in the texts under the heading of sentence construction, it was not the type of teaching content included under that heading in later texts. Greene (1853) described it thus:

Under the head of Construction, the learner commences with the foundation of the sentence, and from this most favorable point of view he witnesses the progress of its structure, from its commencement to its completion. As the parts are added one by one, he notes the effect of each, and feels that each supplies a want and fills a vacancy demanded by the unfinished structure. In no other way so well can the peculiar force of the elementary parts be appreciated. Having learned to combine every form and condition of the elements, whether with their relations expressed or unexpressed, he commences, under the head of Analysis, the opposite process of taking the structure in pieces, and pointing out all the peculiarities of its parts . . . (10:vii-viii)

Here the grammarian was taking the initiative, setting up the sentences, adding clauses or phrases, and then explaining to the student what was being done. The student's place in the picture was always either that of onlooker, watching the development of the sentence, or that of critic, studying the sentence to see that it had been put together correctly. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were the first to make any extensive attempt to help the student express his own thoughts in correct form. In their preface they explained their stand on this subject.

Every principle learned by the pupil is fixed in his memory and, above all, in his *practice* by varied and exhaustive drill in composition. He is constantly required to compose sentences, to arrange and rearrange their parts, to contract, expand, punc-

tuates, and criticise them — the analysis furnishing him materials for the synthesis, and the synthesis supplementing the analysis. Even if the study of grammar were only to lodge in the memory the forms and principles of the language, we contend that this could be done effectively only by work in composition — this, and this only, can make them permanent possessions. (13b:4)

In teaching sentence construction, Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) used many different kinds of exercises, such as:

Construct one sentence out of each group of the sentences which follow: (13a:157)

Change these general terms to specific words, and note the gain in energy: (13b:290)

Name these figures of speech, and then recast each sentence using plain language, and note the loss of beauty and force: (13b:291)

The idea of giving the pupils "skill in the use of the sentence as an instrument in expressing their thought" (17:5) grew rather rapidly, and has become a very important part of language teaching. The proportion of pages on which sentence construction was mentioned jumped from 24 per cent in the second period to 61 per cent in the third. Pupils were taught that a thought could be expressed in a variety of ways. The *Essential Language Habits* series (1923), for example, showed the pupil five different ways of expressing approximately the same idea:

Never call attention to unpleasant remarks.
Do not pay attention to disagreeable remarks.
When people speak unpleasantly, pay no attention.
You should not notice disagreeable remarks.
Unpleasant remarks should be ignored. (22b:247)

It was at about this time that authors began to emphasize the importance of expressing thoughts in an interesting manner as well as putting them in correct English. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) attempted to do this by showing the pupil the difference between a mere statement of fact and an interesting sentence.

Now look at the statement of fact and then at the sentence that was used to express it:

Statement of fact: *An electric light is easy to turn on.*

Sentence: *The flip of a finger brings to modern man the light he reads by.*

The statement of fact does not make a good beginning sentence because it is so well known that it does not arouse the reader's interest. (26f:42)

It is evident from this change in point of view in teaching sentence construction that in the early days the study of the sentence began with the parts of speech and the details of the sentence and went from there into the more complex grammatical constructions necessary in

forming a correct sentence, while in later texts the sentence was considered the unit of language and was presented to the student as the means of expressing his thoughts accurately and interestingly.

Syntax — While syntax was given far more emphasis than all the other phases of the sentence during the first two periods, it dropped to 28 per cent of the pages on which the sentence was discussed in the third period, when sentence construction increased so much in popularity, and decreased still further, to only 14 per cent, in the last period.

According to Brown (1823):

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

The *relation* of words, is their dependence, or connexion, according to the sense.

The *agreement* of words, is their similarity in person, number, gender, case, mood, tense or form.

The *government* of words, is that power which one word has over an other, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The *arrangement* of words, is their collocation, or relative position, in a sentence. (5:124)

Dilworth (1740) defined syntax a little differently, but with even more emphasis on the use of the correct forms of the various parts of speech, as well as on the proper arrangement of these words.

Q. *What is Syntax?*

A. It is the disposing of Words in their right *Case, Gender, Number, Person, Mood, Tense, and Place*, in a Sentence.

Q. *Give an Example.*

A. *Good Boys are not beaten*; here the Words are placed according to *Syntax*: Whereas, should I say, *Beaten not are Boys good*, it would be unintelligible; because here is no *Syntax* in this Sentence. (1:114)

In the early grammars the study of syntax always included a set of rules of syntax. In the present analysis, these rules have been discussed more extensively in the section dealing with rules. In books taking up the subject in detail, every part of the sentence and every part of speech in the sentence were accounted for in respect to their form, position, and agreement.

Many of the grammars included both analysis and synthesis in their presentation of syntax, and a few also included parsing, although, except in texts in which analysis and parsing were considered together, parsing was discussed in connection with etymology.

Examples and exercises on each rule of syntax were also given. In the early days most of these exercises were in the form of what was known as "false syntax," or sentences containing errors which the pupils were to detect and correct.

With the introduction of synthesis as the opposite of analysis in the study of syntax, the construction of sentences first entered text-

books. It was a number of years, however, before the study became more than a formal following of set rules. When the change came, it came very rapidly, as has been noted in connection with the discussion of sentence construction. After the beginning of the third period, when the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) was published, the emphasis changed, and only one book (Whitney's, in 1877) put out after that time followed the old plan of including its study of the sentence under the heading of "syntax."

A certain amount of syntax, or the breaking down of sentences in order to study their construction, was found in every textbook, even in those published very recently, but it was not classified under that name in the newer grammars. While it might seem to be a part of the work on sentence construction, the two phases have been taken up separately here because of the wide difference in point of view and the sudden shift in the study of the sentence which took place about 1875.

Parts of the sentence. — Although every text included some mention of the parts of the sentence, this phase of the subject was not stressed until Greene's text (1853) appeared. After this, the majority of the grammars, especially Reed and Kellogg's (1875-1877), gave the matter considerable attention.

Every text published after 1823 divided the sentence into a subject and a predicate. According to Daringer (1938):

The shortest sentence you can think of and the longest one you find in an encyclopedia are alike in one respect. Each has a subject and a predicate. (25:11)

The simple subject, called the "bare subject" by Robbins and Row (1907) and the "subject substantive" by the N.E.A. Committee (19b:31), and the simple predicate, called the "base of the predicate" (25:12) by Daringer (1938), were discussed in connection with subjects and predicates in almost every book. In the older books, the complete subject and predicate were referred to as the "complex" subject and predicate.

The direct object was mentioned in Comly's (1805), Kirkham's (1823), and Brown's (1823) texts, and in all published after 1864. The indirect object did not enter grammars until Greene (1853) introduced it, but both direct and indirect objects were taught in all texts published during the third and fourth periods. Subject complements were discussed in only five or six of the books, and independent members of the sentence were found in three texts before the twentieth century and in all except three since that time.

Modifiers were discussed in every text, but were not called by that name until about 1845. In the early books modifiers seldom included more than adjectives and adverbs, but most of the later books included phrase and clause modifiers as well.

Phrases were discussed in all texts except Dilworth's (1740), Kirkham's (1823), and Butler's (1845) and were given particular emphasis in the third period, when they were mentioned on nearly 14

per cent of the pages on which sentences were taught. The definition for a phrase has changed during the years, so that material included under this heading in the early days did not exactly correspond with that in later texts and the two therefore are not wholly comparable. Murray (1795) defined a phrase as "two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes part of a sentence, and sometimes a whole sentence" (2:138). The acceptable definition today, however, is that given by Lewis and Lynch (1918): "A group of related words, without a subject and predicate, doing the work of a single part of speech" (21:173).

Pupils were taught to identify a phrase, to show its use in the sentence, and to expand single words into phrases or reduce phrases into single words.

Except for the substantive and the adverbial types, phrases were not broken down into classifications until after about 1850. Since then, adjective, adverbial, infinitive, participial, and prepositional phrases have been discussed in the majority of the texts, and substantive phrases were included in most texts of the third period. In general, these classifications were the only ones used, although one or two books also included absolute, appositive, or independent phrases.

Clauses were also discussed in most of the grammars, the only ones to omit the subject being Dilworth (1740) and Kirkham (1823). Here, too, there is a difference between the old and new interpretation of the term. Murray (1795) said, in this respect:

A relative pronoun possesses the force both of a pronoun and a connective. Nay, the union by relatives is rather closer, than that by mere conjunctions. The latter may form two or more sentences into one: but, by the former, several sentences may incorporate in one and the same *clause* of a sentence. Thus, "thou seest a man *and* he is called Peter," is a sentence consisting of two distinct clauses, united by the copulative *and*: but, "the man *whom* thou seest is called Peter," is a sentence of one clause, and not less comprehensive than the other. (2:127)

Not until about 1850 did authors come to agree about the kinds of clauses and, consequently, the kinds of sentences. Much practice has been given in the texts of the last century in the recognition of clauses of various kinds, of their use in the sentence, and of their effectiveness when placed in different places in the sentence. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) gave a good example of the latter in illustrating the different kinds of noun clauses:

Direction. — *Vary the following sentence so as to illustrate the six different kinds of noun clauses:—*

- Model. — 1. *That stars are suns* is the belief of astronomers.
 2. Astronomers believe *that stars are suns*.
 3. The belief of astronomers is, *that stars are suns*.
 4. The belief *that stars are suns* is held by astronomers.
 5. Astronomers are confident *that stars are suns*.
 6. *That stars are suns* being the belief of astronomers we accept the theory. (13b:129)

Beginning in 1834, most of the texts distinguished between the principal and the subordinate clauses in discussing complex sentences, and after 1853 almost every grammar divided clauses into adverbial, adjective, and substantive classifications. The relative clause was mentioned in seven texts published between 1853 and 1918 but in no others. Such classifications as conditional, elliptical, interrogative, parenthetical, and objective were also found in one or two of the texts but were not mentioned in the others.

Punctuation. — According to Comly (1805), "punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense and an accurate pronunciation require" (3:154).

Considerably more space has been given to punctuation in the later books than in the early ones because the topic was originally set up separately from any instruction in sentence structure. It usually consisted merely of a list of rules, with perhaps a few examples of correct use but often without exercises. There was some disagreement among grammarians as to whether it should be considered a topic under syntax or under prosody. Murray (1795), however, set it up as a separate section, saying that "the nature of the subject, its extent and importance, and the grammatical knowledge which it presupposes, have induced us to make it a distinct and subsequent article" (2:257).

Although many texts followed Murray's plan, Kerl (1864) noted the disadvantages of this method and suggested that "punctuation is but a kind of finish to syntax, and is probably best taught in connection with the parts requiring it" (11:97). A little later, Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) carried this idea still further, saying that "rules for Punctuation are given where they are needed, since the marks are as much a part of the sentence as are the words themselves — the sentence is not written till it is punctuated" (13b:5). The use of punctuation in helping to express a thought clearly has been stressed increasingly as the years have gone by, the last text analyzed stating that:

Punctuation is a guide to thought.

The more clearly we express our written thoughts, the less punctuation we need.

Punctuate for meaning, not for decoration. (27d:209)

In discussing the development of the use of punctuation marks, the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) said that only points and straight lines were originally used (27d:208). However, by the time the first books analyzed in this study were published, many more had been added. More than half the grammars included 11 punctuation marks, though not always the same, and all included at least eight. The only exception was Whitney's (1877) text, which mentioned only the apostrophe. Four of the marks, the colon, comma, question mark, and period, were found in every text except Whitney's, and the semicolon was also included until very recently, when one or two texts omitted it. The exclamation point and apostrophe were carried in most of the texts,

but there was not complete agreement among grammarians as to the importance of other marks, such as the hyphen, dash, single quote, parenthesis, etc.

Several of the oldest of the texts took up punctuation marks from the point of view of the length of the pause indicated, as did Dilworth (1740):

- Q. *What are the proper Pauses for these Stops?*
 A. The proper *Pause* or *Rest* of each of these Stops may be thus measured: The Time of stopping or resting at the *Comma*, is the time of saying *One*; at the *Semicolon*, *One, One*; at the *Colon*, *One, One, One*; and at the *Period*, *One, One, One, One*, before you begin the next Clause or Sentence. (1:88)

Many of the early writers also included, usually as a part of punctuation, certain characters and diacritical marks. This was common until the time of Harvey (1868), who was the last to list many of the characters and the only one to give as many as eight diacritical marks. Thirteen different characters were taught at various times, but no text included more than 11 of them. Among these were such things as the asterisk, the section sign, the caret, the paragraph sign, and the use of italics. No text published in the last 75 years included more than three of these, and several recent grammars did not mention the subject at all. In the case of diacritical marks, practically no instruction of this kind was found in texts published after 1868. Before that time eight or nine of the grammars included accents of different kinds, the diaeresis, cedilla, etc.

Capitalization. — Capitalization was included in every text except Whitney's (1877). In the early books it usually appeared as a separate topic, although Smith (1832) discussed it under prosody, Bullions (1834) under syntax, and Butler (1845) and Lewis and Lynch (1918) under punctuation. In the more recent texts it has been taught whenever the occasion arose: in the teaching of the sentence, capitalization of the first word in a sentence was taught; in teaching proper nouns, capitalization of the word was a part of the instruction given; in the teaching of poetry, pupils were shown that each line began with a capital; etc.

Rules have always held a very prominent place in the teaching of capitalization. Dilworth (1740) summed them up in only two statements:

- Q. *Where are the Capital Letters to be used, and where the Small Letters?*
 A. The *Capitals* are to be used in the Front of Sentences, and in the Beginning of Verses; of all proper Names of Persons, Places, Rivers, &c. of Arts and Sciences; of Dignities, Festivals, and Games; and of all Words put for proper Names, or that have any great *Emphasis* in a Sentence: Also after a *full Stop*, and at the Beginning of a *Quotation*, tho' it be not immediately after a *full Stop*: Likewise whole Words, and sometimes Sentences, are written in *Capitals*, and then something is expressed extraordinary great. They are sometimes used in the Titles of Books, for Ornament-

sake: And always the Pronoun *I*, and the Interjection *O*, are written in *Capitals*; and in all other Places the *Small Letters* must be used.

- Q. *When Capital Letters are placed single in a Sentence, what do they stand for?*
 A. Sometimes they stand for whole Words; as *B.A.* Bachelor of Arts: *B.D.* Bachelor in Divinity: *D.D.* Doctor in Divinity, or the like; as you may find more at large at the End of this third Part: Or else they stand for Numbers, and are called *Numeral Letters*. . . . (1:82-83)

Although 24 rules for capitals were mentioned in all the texts combined, those given by Dilworth were the most important. Dilworth did not exactly follow his own rule, however, as he capitalized every noun in many of his statements. This style was a carry-over from continental languages and may have been used here in keeping with his rule concerning capitalization for emphasis. More different rules (21) were found in the first period than in any other, the last period containing only 15. All except six of the texts contained at least 11 rules each. By 1875, however, a tendency to break away from the use of so many capitals was making itself felt. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) brought this out:

The usage of newspapers and of text-books on geography would probably favor the writing of the class names in the examples above with initial capitals: but we find in the most carefully printed books and periodicals a tendency to favor small letters in such cases.

The principle we suggest may be in advance of common usage; but it is in the line of progress, it tends to uniformity of practice and to an improved appearance of the page. About a century ago every noun began with a capital letter. (13b:28)

Although rules on the subject decreased in number, the space given to capitalization increased steadily through the years. In the first year only 2 per cent of the pages on which the sentence was discussed gave information on capitals, while in the last period this amount had increased to 13 per cent. One reason for this difference was the concentration of the subject in the early texts, where it was taught by listing rules, definitions, and examples rather than by showing its use when the occasion arose in teaching sentence structure, etc.

As has been said, Whitney (1877) did not mention capitals. Wisely, too, gave them practically no consideration, mentioning only the use of a capital at the beginning of the sentence. All except one of the other texts included the use of a capital in writing the pronoun "I" and proper nouns; all except two books, both in the first period, included the use of a capital at the beginning of a quotation; and all except three mentioned the capitalization of the interjection "O" and titles of books.

Among the less commonly mentioned uses of capitals were those of capitalizing for the sake of emphasis, using a capital for the first word of an example or of itemized material, using capitals in writing Roman numerals, and capitalizing the names of festivals. More than a third of the texts included instruction in the writing of initials with capitals, and all the later books stressed their use in writing abbrevia-

tions. The study of abbreviations was included in all except three texts, many of the older grammars giving a page or more to lists of abbreviations, but the use of capitals in connection with abbreviations was found in only one text before the twentieth century.

Form. — The form of sentences was mentioned in every grammar, but was never given space on more than 8 per cent of the pages on which the sentence was mentioned. Both simple and compound sentences were included in every text, but the complex sentence did not enter grammar teaching until Pinneo (1850) introduced it. Murray had listed what he called a complex sentence, but what he was referring to was a sentence with a compound subject and predicate.

Although ellipsis was included in only about half of the books, it was mentioned in every period and was found in the first as well as the last texts analyzed. A few grammars also included what they called loose sentences, compact or contracted sentences, and abridged sentences, but these terms were at no time particularly popular.

Kinds. — The kinds of sentences were given very little attention in the first period, but were mentioned on an average of 5 or 6 per cent of the pages on which sentences were discussed in the other three periods. Most of the texts included the study of the interrogative sentence. However, except for Murray (1795), who included the declarative and imperative sentence, and Brown (1823), who listed the declarative sentence, no other text mentioned the kinds of sentences until Greene (1853) included all four kinds. Up to that time a standard classification of sentences had not been settled upon, nor had the terminology. Murray (1795) listed three kinds of sentences:

There are three sorts of simple sentences; the *explicative*, or explaining; the *interrogative*, or asking; the *imperative*, or commanding.

An explicative sentence is when a thing is said to be or not to be, to do or not to do, to suffer or not to suffer, in a direct manner: as, "I am; thou writest; Thomas is loved." (2:137-138)

Greene's (1853) explanation of the four kinds of sentences closely followed that of most of the later authors:

A sentence, considered as an entire structure either *declares* something, asks a *question*, expresses a *command*, or contains an *exclamation*.

A *declarative* sentence is one which declares something; as, "The truth will prevail."

An *interrogative* sentence is one which asks a question; as, "Wilt thou be made whole?"

An *imperative* sentence is one which expresses a command; as, "Put up thy sword into its sheath."

An *exclamatory* sentence is one which contains an exclamation; as, "How art thou fallen!" (10:144)

After the middle of the century, every text discussed the declarative, exclamatory, and interrogative sentences and, except for three published early in the 1900's, all included the imperative.

Arrangement. — The natural and inverted order in sentence structure was discussed in almost every text except those published between 1820 and 1850. Dilworth stated that transposition "is the placing of Words out of their natural Order, to render the Sound of them more agreeable to the Ear" (1:115). In several of the books of the first period, emphasis was placed upon sound in the arrangement of the sentence. This was probably because many people were unable to read and write and therefore received their instruction and information by ear.

Murray (1795) stressed the logical order of expressing a thought:

This appears to be a proper place to observe, that when different things have an obvious relation to each other, in respect to the order of nature of time, that order should be regarded, in assigning them their places in the sentence; unless the scope of the passages require it to be varied. . . .

The following sentence is a beautiful example of strict conformity to this rule. "Our sight fills the mind with the largest variety of ideas, converses with its objects at the greatest distance, and continues the longest in action without being tired or satiated with its proper enjoyments." This passage follows the order of nature. First, we have the variety of objects mentioned, which sight furnishes to the mind; next, we have the action of sight on those objects; and lastly, we have the time and continuance of its action. No order could be more natural or exact. (2:291)

The study of the arrangement of sentences was taken up from a new angle in the latter half of the nineteenth century. Clarity became the principal concern of those teaching sentence order, and the proper placing of phrases and clauses was given considerable attention. Sentences like "Balboa discovered the Pacific ocean climbing to the top of a mountain" (13a:116) and "One should not drink lake water without being boiled" (19b:280) were found in almost every text.

Every grammar published after 1850 included material of this kind, but, until recently, the arrangement of sentences for the sake of sound or strength seemed to have been dropped from the study of grammar. In the last few of the grammars, however, this has re-entered the field of language study, and students are again given instruction in arranging their sentences so that they will be smooth and effective.

Parts of Speech

In the early years covered by this study, there was considerable disagreement among grammarians concerning the number of parts of speech in the English language. The eight recognized today had been rather universally accepted before the opening of this study, but some authors were still including the participle and the article as separate parts of speech. The first of these was considered a verb form by all but two or three authors; the second was listed as an adjective by all except one author after 1834, but before that time was called a separate part of speech in almost every text.

Kirkham (1823) threw some light on the historical and philosophical background of this problem:

OF THE PHILOSOPHICAL CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

According to the method in which philosophical investigations of language have generally been conducted; all our words should be reduced to two classes; for it can be easily shown, that from the noun and verb, all the other parts of speech have sprung. Nay, more. They may even be reduced to one. Verbs do not, in reality, *express* actions; but they are intrinsically the mere *names* of actions. The idea of action or being communicated by them, as well as the *meaning* of words in general, is merely *inferential*. The principle of reasoning assumed by the celebrated Horne Tooke, if carried to its full extent, would result, it is believed, in proving that we have but one part of speech.

Adnouns or *adjectives* were originally nouns. *Sweet, red, white*, are the *names* of qualities, as well as *sweetness, redness, whiteness*. The former differ from the latter only in their *manner* of signification. To denote that the name of some quality or substance is to be used in connexion with some other name, or, that this quality is to be *attributed* to some other name, we sometimes affix to it the termination *en, ed, or y*; which signifies *give, add, or join*. When we employ the words *wooden, woollen, wealthy, grassy*, the terminations *en* and *y*, by their own intrinsic meaning, give notice that we intend to *give, add or join*, the names of some other substances in which are found the properties or qualities of *wood, wool, wealth, or grass*.

Pronouns are a class of nouns, used instead of others to prevent their disagreeable repetition. Participles are certain forms of the verb. Articles, interjections, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, are contractions or abbreviations of nouns and verbs. . . .

This brief view of the subject, is sufficient to elucidate the manner in which, according to Horne Tooke's principles, the ten parts of speech are reduced to one. (4:36-38)

Table III gives the relative amount of space given in each of the textbooks to each of the parts of speech found in grammars today. In the table, the article is included as a form of the adjective and the participle is included as a form of the verb. The percentages are based on the total number of pages on which parts of speech are mentioned

TABLE III. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PART OF SPEECH WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH PARTS OF SPEECH WERE MENTIONED

Part of speech	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Verb.....	62	40	46	47	48
Noun.....	33	20	36	26	29
Adjective.....	25	20	26	21	23
Pronoun.....	24	16	21	24	22
Adverb.....	10	10	16	14	13
Preposition.....	14	8	11	7	9
Conjunction.....	13	6	9	8	8
Interjection.....	4	3	3	3	3

in each book. Thus the relative emphasis on each part of speech may be determined. Here again, since more than one part of speech might be found on the same page, the percentages add up to more than 100.

As can be seen from Table III, verbs were given the most emphasis in every period, and nouns came next. Interjections were always given the least space, probably because their use in the sentence called for so little explanation and their form never changed. There has not been a great deal of difference in the percentage of pages on which the various parts of speech have been given through the years. The conjunction and preposition have been given less space in recent books than in early ones, while the adverb has been given more space, but there has been little variance in the amount given to the more prominent parts of speech.

While mention was made in some of the books that "the thing that determines whether a word belongs to one part of speech rather than to another is the work that it does in the sentence" (21:36), this point was not given much emphasis until comparatively recently, when functional English began to be stressed.

Verb. — In every period studied, the verb was given approximately twice as much space as any other part of speech. This is understandable in light of the many forms, uses, and irregularities of this part of speech.

According to Dilworth (1740), "a *Verb* is a Part of Speech that betokeneth *Being*; as, *I live: Doing*; as, *I love: Or Suffering*; as, *I am loved*" (1:98). A definition similar to this was found in many of the early texts, but in the recent books verbs were more often defined as "words which express action, or being, or a condition" (27d:74).

The percentage of space given in the texts analyzed to the principal phases of verbs is given in Table IV.

TABLE IV. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE IN THE STUDY OF VERBS WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH VERBS WERE MENTIONED

Phase	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Tense.....	25	36	19	11	18
Mood.....	32	42	15	1	15
Number.....	26	20	7	10	12
Person.....	25	19	6	6	10
Voice.....	25	16	7	5	10

In all the grammars analyzed, tense was mentioned on 18 per cent of the pages on which verbs were discussed. During the last two periods it has been given more space than any other phase of the study of verbs.

Throughout the years, textbook writers have been in fairly close agreement as to the number of tenses, almost all of them listing six. Dilworth (1740) stated that there were three:

Q. *What is a Tense?*

A. It is the Distinction of *Time*.

Q. *How many Tenses are there?*

A. Three: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Present,} \\ \text{Past} \\ \text{To-come,} \end{array} \right\}$ viz. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Present Tense,} \\ \text{Preterperfect Tense, and the} \\ \text{Future Tense.} \end{array} \right\}$

(1:99)

Hyde (1888-1896) also mentioned only three, the present, past, and future, but hers were sufficiently comprehensive to take in all six of the tenses named by the other authors. The chief problem in regard to tense seemed to be in settling upon names for the tenses. The many changes that have been made through the years and accepted by one or more grammarians provide an excellent example of the gradual development of nomenclature before it is finally accepted as standard. The various tense names used through the years are discussed rather fully in the section of this study dealing with terminology.

Mood was given far more attention than any other phase of verbs in the first two periods, but after that it lost in popularity very quickly, and in the last period was mentioned on only 1 per cent of the pages devoted to verbs. In fact, the subject was scarcely mentioned in any of the books published after 1918, and was not included at all in either *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) or the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941).

Dilworth (1740), whose grammar was set up more nearly according to the organization of the old Latin grammars than were any of the other texts, included six moods — the indicative, subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, potential, and optative (or wishing). The first five of these moods (sometimes called "modes") were included in every text published before 1870 with the exception of Kerl's (1864), which omitted the infinitive as a mood. After 1870 the infinitive was no longer included in the discussion of mood and the potential was found in only two of the later texts.

There was some question in the minds of grammarians concerning mood. Murray (1795) commented that "grammarians have not only differed in opinion, respecting the extent and variations of the subjunctive mood, but a few of them have even doubted the existence of such a mood in the English language" (2:103). About 50 years later, Butler stated that "there seems to be no sufficient foundation for either the subjunctive or the potential" (8:65). The trend in the teaching of these moods seems to indicate that grammarians are taking up with Butler's ideas on this matter, for in some of the recent texts only the indicative and imperative moods have been included.

Number in connection with verbs was given far more consideration during the first period than at any later time, but the singular and plural forms of verbs were discussed in every grammar included in the study. All texts published since the Hyde series appeared, in 1888-1896, have stressed number in connection with the agreement of verbs

with their subjects. Early texts did not consider this point so important but emphasized the forming of plurals.

All texts except the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) included first, second, and third person in relation to verbs. Dilworth (1740) mentioned also an impersonal person, and three or four other authors included what they called a unipersonal person, but neither of these terms was found in a text published later than 1886.

Voice, called "signification" in a few of the very old books, was also included in every text. In the first period it was given five times as much emphasis as in the last period, the decline in emphasis being steady throughout the years. The active and passive voices were included regularly, and neuter was found in a few, especially in the earlier texts. Bullions (1834), in explaining his own division of verbs according to voice, outlined the stand taken by some of the other grammarians, which was rather enlightening:

2. Mr. Kirkham, and Mr. Smith, divide verbs also into *Active, Passive, and Neuter*. Under the term *active*, they include all verbs which denote action of any kind, whether transitive or intransitive; and under the term *neuter*, those only which denote being simply, or an *inactive state of being*.

3. Mr. Brown divides verbs into four classes, called *Active-transitive, Active-intransitive, Passive, and Neuter*. If we unite the second and fourth of these, which ought never to be divided, we have the division of Murray. Unite the first and second, and we have the division of Kirkham. For further remarks on these classifications, see Appendix, III. 5. (7:29)

The conjugation of verbs, which includes all the phases already discussed, was given considerable space in the earlier texts. According to Murray (1795), "the conjugation of an English verb in form, through all its moods and tenses, by means of auxiliaries, so far from being useless or intricate, is a beautiful and regular display of it, and indispensably necessary to the language" (2:110).

Sometimes the conjugation of one verb would cover several pages, with each tense in each mood being given. Between about 1850 and 1875 some of the texts gave even more information than this, presenting the conjugation in several forms, especially the emphatic ("I do love"), the interrogative, the negative, and the progressive ("I am loving"). None of these forms has appeared in a text published since 1935, and the interrogative and negative were found only once or twice in books published outside the period mentioned above.

Included in the conjugation of verbs were also the auxiliary verbs, the participle, the infinitive, the gerund, and the principal parts. These have all been discussed in almost all the texts, even in those in which the conjugation itself was not considered as a separate topic.

Since it is in the auxiliary, or "helping" verb, that difficulty in correct verb form often arises, this topic was taught in every one of the grammars and in some it was given considerable space. Some books included a complete conjugation of the auxiliaries, like that found in Greene's text (1853):

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural</i>		
1st. Per.	2d. Per.	3d Per.	1st. Per.	2d. Per.	3d Per.
<i>I</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They.</i>
Am	art	is	are	are	are
Do	dost	does	do	do	do
Have	hast	has	have	have	have
Present	Will	wilt	will	will	will
	Shall	shalt	shall	shall	shall
	May	mayst	may	may	may
	Can	canst	can	can	can
	Must	must	must	must	must
Past	Was	wast	were	were	were
	Did	didst	did	did	did
	Had	hadst	had	had	had
	Would	wouldst	would	would	would
	Should	shouldst	should	should	should
	Might	mightst	might	might	might
	Could	couldst	could	could	could

(10:73)

The participle was originally considered a separate part of speech, one of the nine or ten listed by a few of the early grammarians. Apparently there was considerable disagreement among textbook writers as to just how the participle should be classified. Butler (1845) said that "participles are intermediate between verbs and adjectives, as zoophytes are between animals and vegetables" (8:78). Several authors considered them as participial adjectives, but gradually the idea of listing them as verbals gained in favor, and for the past three quarters of a century they have always been included as a form of the verb used like an adjective.

In most of the texts, the three tenses of participles were included. The present participle was found in all except Butler's (1845) and Tweed's (1886) texts; the past participle in Brown's (1823) and in all grammars except Tweed's (1886) published after 1850; and the perfect participle in all texts up to 1850, and in about half of those published after that date, when it was more often referred to as the present perfect. Especially in the early days, authors sometimes used other names for the tenses of the participle — the preterperfect, the past perfect, the imperfect, and, rather commonly in the early 1800's, the compound perfect.

The dangling participle, which has been such a problem to teachers and pupils, was stressed in three of the texts published during the twentieth century but, surprisingly, was found in only two or three other grammars. The tendency seems to have been to give the subject more consideration in the later texts.

As has already been mentioned, the infinitive was originally considered a mood, but, in texts published during the last 75 years it has been listed as a verbal, or verb form, doing the work of a noun. It was included in all texts except the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-

1941). Usually the present and present perfect tenses were discussed; Whitney (1877) also included the progressive. While most authors listed no forms of the infinitive other than the tense forms, Murray (1795) included the passive, potential, independent, and subjunctive forms. Except for the passive form of the infinitive, which was mentioned in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) and the Lewis-Lynch text (1918), none of these forms was included by other authors.

The gerund, when first introduced by the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877), was referred to as a verbal or verbal noun. It has appeared in about half of the texts analyzed, all but four of which have been published since 1900.

The principal parts of verbs were included in only three of the texts of the first period but have appeared in every book published since 1832. In presenting principal parts, irregular verbs were given much more attention than regular verbs, although the latter were always included.

Teaching students to use the correct form of irregular verbs has always been a problem, and therefore all texts, with the exception of Dilworth's (1740), included the subject. Lists of the principal parts of irregular verbs were included, sometimes in extremely fine type in the early texts (see Figure 8).

In listing irregular verbs, all except six of the books included defective verbs and a few also included redundant verbs. According to Brown (1823), the irregular verb is one whose principal parts are not formed regularly; the defective verb is one which does not have all its principal parts, like *may*, *might*, or *quoth*, *quoth*,; and the redundant verb is "a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, *thrive*, *thrived*, or *throve*, *thriving*, *thrived* or *thriven*. Of this class of verbs, there are about ninety-five, besides sundry derivatives and compounds" (5:95).

Murray (1795) stated that "the whole number of verbs in the English language, regular and irregular, simple and compounded, taken together, is about 4300" (2:117-118). If this figure was accurate, then the number of English verbs has grown rapidly in the last 150 years. Murray also said that "the number of irregular verbs, the defective included, is about 177" (2:118), but Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) included 251, Brown (1823) listed 229, and Scott and Southworth (1906) named 226. In the first three periods covered by this study, the number of irregular verbs listed in texts averaged about 175 to the book, but none of the grammars published since 1923 has included more than 80 and the *Step by Step in English* series listed only 45.

Some of the old forms of past participles in the early texts were interesting. Kerl (1864), for example, included as irregular verbs those having two past forms, an old one which was still in use though somewhat outmoded, and a new one which was not yet universally accepted. Among these were found such verbs as the following:

XLVI. When is a verb called irregular? 531.

Will you name the present and imperfect tenses, also the perfect participle of
go? begin? am? arise? awake? bear?

(to carry.) bid? bite? break? choose
do? drink? eat? forget? have? know?
lie? (to lie down.) move? rise? see?
throw? weave? write?

* *Chelid.* is near *v. absolute.* Its compound, *corydall.* is still in good use.
 * *St. Lina.* is nearly obsolete. [Spitzen is nearly obsolete.]

A transitive verb, according to Daringer (1938), does not necessarily express action, but it must require an object to complete its meaning (25:245). In this study, all verbs were considered either transitive or intransitive, the latter classification including linking, or copulative, verbs which, in the early 1900's, were sometimes listed as a third type of verb. Some authors in the nineteenth century attempted to classify verbs in much the same way as they did nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. A few of the more interesting among these classifications were Whitney's (1877) causative and factitive verbs, Kerl's (1864) unpredicative verbs, Wisely's (1896) factitive and cognate verbs, and Robbins and Row's (1907) infinite verbs.

As in the case with other parts of speech, the emphasis in the more recent books has been on the selection of the correct word to use in a given situation rather than on mechanical drill on verb forms. For example, almost every one of the books published recently contained instruction on the correct use of "teach" and "learn," two words often confused in meaning. Stress has also been placed on the choice of descriptive verbs that would enliven and clarify one's statements.

Noun. — The noun was given more emphasis in the first and third periods than in the others, but it has always been an important part of speech, as judged by the number of pages on which it was mentioned in the textbooks analyzed. One of Murray's (1795) recommendations for his text was that it contained "copious lists of nouns arranged according to their gender and number" (2:7).

Perhaps the most complete definition of a noun found in any of the texts analyzed was that in Comly's text:

OF THE NOUN.

A noun is the name of any thing that we can see, hear, taste, smell, feel, or discourse of; as, *man, apple, fire, virtue, &c.*
Nouns are sometimes divided into proper and common.

A noun proper is the name of a particular person, place or thing; as, *William, London, Brandywine.*

A noun common is the name of a sort or species of things; as, *man, river, city.*

A noun which is the name of a company, or body of people, is called a *collective noun*, or *noun of multitude*; as, *family, assembly, committee.* (3:15)

In Table V is given the percentage that the pages on which each phase of the study of nouns were of the total number of pages on which nouns were mentioned.

TABLE V. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE IN THE STUDY OF NOUNS WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH NOUNS WERE MENTIONED

Phase of study	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Kinds.....	40	23	19	31	27
Case.....	59	31	19	10	21
Number.....	23	26	17	21	21
Gender.....	15	16	7	2	6
Person.....	6	9	2	1	3

The kinds of nouns were stressed more than was any other phase of the subject during the 150 years as a whole, although in the first two periods case was given much more prominence. In the last period the relationship was completely reversed, with the kinds of nouns being given three times as much attention as case.

Every text included both the common and the proper noun, and almost every one also listed the collective noun. Abstract nouns were found in all except one of the grammars to 1886 and in several of those published since that date. Surprisingly, however, concrete nouns were

not mentioned until Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) put them in their text. Only a few grammars published recently have mentioned them.

The reason that the case of nouns was given such unusual emphasis in the early texts was that case had been such an important part of the grammatical construction of the Greek and Latin languages. The effort made by textbook writers to fit the English language into the pattern of the Greek and Latin was particularly evident in Dilworth's (1740) declension of the noun "church":

Singular		Plural	
Nom.	A Church.	Nom.	Churches.
Gen.	Of a Church.	Gen.	Of Churches.
Dat.	To a Church.	Dat.	To Churches.
Acc.	The Church.	Acc.	The Churches.
Voc.	O Church.	Voc.	O Churches!
Abl.	From a Church.	Abl.	From Churches. (1:95)

The Latin names for the cases were found in very few of the texts, most of the grammars including only the nominative, objective, and possessive cases. Dilworth (1740) was the only author to include the vocative and ablative by those names. The terms "genitive," "dative," and "accusative" were found also in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) and in the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923), and the term "dative" was also used in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928).

The nominative of address, which has been included in all but one of the texts published during the twentieth century, was mentioned in only two other grammars: Murray's (1795) and Comly's (1805). It was not always omitted entirely from the texts, however, as some of the other books referred to it as the independent nominative.

Number, in connection with nouns, was discussed by every author except Smith (1832) and Wisely (1896). Much of the space given to this topic dealt with the formation of the plural, a subject discussed in this study in connection with the properties of words, and with the use of the singular and plural with the proper form of the verb.

The gender of nouns was mentioned on an average of about once in every six or seven pages in the early texts, but it has been given decidedly less space in the textbooks published since 1875. The main reason for its inclusion in any of the books is that, as Pearson and Kirchwey (1914) said, one must "know the gender of a noun because it determines the correct use of the pronouns, *he, she, and it*" (20b:138).

In many of the older books, lists were included of the masculine and feminine forms of certain irregular nouns. Typical of words found in such lists are the following, taken from Smith's grammar (1832):

319-1. By different words; as,

<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>	<i>Male.</i>	<i>Female.</i>
Boy,	Girl.	Milter,	Spawner.
Friar,	Nun.	Sloven,	Slut.
Hart,	Roe.	Stag,	Hind.
Husband,	Wife.	Wizard,	Witch.

319-2. By a difference of termination; as

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Actor,	Actress.	Hero,	Heroine.
Bridegroom,	Bride.	Landgrave,	Landgravine.
Czar,	Czarina.	Poet,	Poetess.
God,	Goddess.		

319-3. By prefixing a noun, pronoun, or adjective; as

A cock-sparrow,	A hen-sparrow.
A man-servant,	A maid-servant.
A he-goat,	A she-goat.

(6:44-45)

The three usual genders, masculine, feminine, and neuter, were included in every text except one or two of the more recent ones. Many of the older texts and two modern ones also included a "common" gender, which covered either masculine or feminine.

Almost all the grammars published before 1875 included first, second, and third person of nouns, but authors had much difficulty in explaining the topic. Harvey (1868) claimed that "a noun in the predicate is in the third person, though the subject may be of the first or second" (12:28). However, as authors began to break away from the Latin and Greek forms, there was a growing conviction among them that English nouns did not truly have person.

Adjective. — An adjective, according to the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944), "is a word which describes, limits, or modifies a noun or a pronoun" (27e:107). Dilworth (1740) gave adjectives practically no consideration, claiming them to be a kind of noun rather than a separate part of speech. Since his time, though, adjectives have been mentioned on an average of at least 20 per cent of the pages given to parts of speech.

The different authors have classified adjectives into various types, but there has never been complete agreement as to the number of classifications or as to what they should be called.

Descriptive adjectives were found in Kirkham's grammar (1823) but not again until Kerl's (1864). After this date, however, they were included in every text analyzed except the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934). The Robbins-Row series (1907) divided all adjectives into two classes, descriptive and limiting, but stated that the N.E.A. Committee gave 16 other classes and subclasses (19b:97).

Distributive adjectives were found in five books published between 1853 and 1906 but in only one other text. Demonstrative adjectives were mentioned in both Murray's (1795) and Kirkham's (1823) texts, but did not appear again until 1853, when Greene included them in his grammar. After this, they were mentioned in approximately half of the texts studied. Quantitative, or numeral, adjectives were discussed in almost all the texts. In a few, these were divided into cardinal and ordinal, and, in Whitney's (1877), even into fractional. Limiting adjectives, which might be included in this class, were first known as definitives. These

were found in most of the texts, especially during the second and third periods.

Pronominal adjectives, which, according to Harvey (1868), "are definitives, most of which may, without an article prefixed, represent a noun understood; as, *all men, each soldier*. . ." (12:40), were found in most of the books in the second and third periods, but were in only one appearing since 1915. Interrogative adjectives were included in six of the eight books in the third period but in only two other grammars, Butler's (1845) and the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923). Relative adjectives were found only in the third period, but five of the eight books published during this period included them.

Indefinite adjectives were found classified by that term in about a third of the books, most of the grammars published during the last half of the nineteenth century. However, the articles, which are considered adjectives, were discussed in every one of the texts analyzed, and in almost all of the books they were divided into definite and indefinite articles.

Proper adjectives were mentioned in only two books each in the first two periods, but between 1906 and 1938 every text published mentioned them. Although common adjectives would normally accompany proper adjectives in a discussion, they were omitted from many of the grammars that included proper adjectives.

Among the less commonly mentioned kinds of adjectives were the restrictive and secondary, included in Kirkham's (1823) text; the assumptive, appositive, and factitive, in Kerl's (1864); the identifying and intensive, in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914); and the diminutive, in the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877).

An interesting point brought out in the early books was the position of adjectives in the sentence. This was discussed only in the first three books published. It is believed, therefore, that it was definitely a carry-over from the old Latin grammars, in which position of words in the sentence was always given considerable attention.

The comparison of adjectives was found in all the books. Irregular as well as regular forms of comparatives and superlatives were included. Some of the unusual forms of comparison were also mentioned in a few of the texts. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) discussed double comparison (13b:226); Murray (1795) mentioned the use of "rather" in this connection, including also the statement that "the termination *ish* may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison, by which the signification is diminished below the positive: as, *black, blackish*, or tending to blackness. . ." (2:58).

In recent texts much space has also been given to the use of adjectives in making one's speech or writing more colorful and descriptive as well as more clear. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) was among those to bring out particularly well the use of adjectives in influencing opinion. In picking out expressive adjectives, they showed the difference in point of view of two radio speakers as brought out by the adjectives they used, one speaker claiming the candidate to be "firm, determined, strong-willed, and inflexible" and the other calling him "obstinate, stubborn, and mulish" (26f:95-96).

Pronoun. — Except for a slight decline in the second period, there has been little change in the amount of emphasis given to pronouns during the 150 years studied. The percentage of space given to the various phases of the pronoun is given in Table VI.

TABLE VI. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE IN THE STUDY OF PRONOUNS WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH PRONOUNS WERE MENTIONED

Phase	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Kinds.....	56	50	43	33	38
Case.....	25	16	18	18	17
Antecedent.....	19	33	19	10	15
Number.....	17	22	14	10	12
Person.....	15	13	11	8	10
Gender.....	12	9	11	6	8

In the discussion of pronouns, more than twice as much space was given to a study of the kinds of pronouns as was allotted to any other phase of the subject. Dilworth (1740) included only two kinds, "substantives and adjectives" (1:97), but he was the only author who was not in fairly close agreement with the other grammarians concerning the classification of pronouns.

The personal pronoun was found in all texts except Dilworth's (1740); the relative pronoun in all except the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914); the interrogative pronoun, which Comly (1805) said was the same as a relative pronoun except that its antecedent "cannot be determined till the answer is given to the question" (3:16), in all except the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941); the possessive pronoun in the very early texts and again in all published in the twentieth century, but not in many published during the middle 1800's; and the compound pronoun in all except three of the texts.

The reflexive pronoun first appeared in Greene's text (1853), but was never generally accepted as a form that should be taught, as it appeared in only six other books, most of them rather recent. A few grammars divided their classifications of pronouns still further. Among the rather unusual names of these groups of pronouns were the specifying pronouns, found in Kirkham's text (1823); responsive pronouns, in both Bullions' (1834) and Kerl's (1864) grammars; and identifying pronouns, in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914).

In the first and last periods, case was found on a greater percentage of pages devoted to pronouns than was any other phase of the subject except the kinds of pronouns. Here, as in the study of nouns, Dilworth (1740) applied all six Latin cases to English. However, except for Whitney (1877), who included the vocative, none of the other texts discussed more than three cases. In general, the three cases mentioned in modern textbooks were known as the nominative, the possessive, and the objective, but two or three of the most recent grammars have again adopted the terms "dative," "accusative," and "genitive."

For some time after the Greek and Latin vocative form was dropped from English grammars, the "independent case" (9:42) caused con-

siderable trouble, but, as Pinneo (1850) said: "This case is virtually acknowledged by all grammarians, but is most frequently called the *nominative independent*" (9:42).

The antecedent was always a rather important topic in the teaching of pronouns. It was given a great deal of space in the second period, being mentioned on one page out of every three, but dropped to only one in ten in the last period. In fact, the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) did not include it at all. While the stress was usually placed on agreement with the antecedent, the proper placing of the antecedent for the sake of clarity was also emphasized. As the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) stated:

Pronouns are very useful words. Our language would be clumsy and awkward without them. A pronoun must be used exactly, however, or its meaning will not be clear. When you use pronouns, be sure that your reader or listener will know exactly what each one of your pronouns means. (26c:181-182)

Number is being given considerably less emphasis than it was in the first two periods of this study, although it is still mentioned on about one page in eight. All books included both the singular and plural forms of pronouns.

The person of pronouns was also given less emphasis in the later texts, but first, second, and third person were discussed in every one of the grammars. In the early texts one topic which was always taken up in connection with person was that of the use of "thee," "thou," and "ye." By 1850, however, most of the texts were omitting these pronouns. Pinneo mentioned them in one of his "remarks":

Rem. 3. — *You* is generally used for the 2d person singular.* *Thou*, however, is still used by the religious denomination of Friends, and in the Scriptures, and in solemn, poetic, and burlesque style. (9:47)

Least in importance in the study of pronouns was their gender. Although the subject was at no time given much space, it was mentioned only about half as often in the later books as in the very early ones. All of the books included the masculine gender; all except Pinneo (1850) gave the feminine; and all except Bullions (1834), Pinneo (1850), and Tweed (1886) listed the neuter gender. During the second period, and again in the last period, two or three texts referred to the common gender, which had been called "either masculine or feminine gender" in some of the very early books.

Little difficulty was encountered in teaching the gender of the personal pronouns, of course, although it was interesting to note that in several of the old texts a note was inserted to the effect that "it" was used in referring to small children. This same idea carried over into the relative pronouns, Comly (1805) stating that "the relative pronoun *who* should only be applied to persons or intelligent beings; and *which* to little children, animals, or inanimate things" (3:85).

Adverb. — In the first period covered by this study, the adverb was given less space than was any other part of speech except the interjection, but it has gained in importance and is now allotted more space than either the conjunction or the preposition. The Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) included the study of the adverb more often than did any other text, mentioning it on approximately every third page. Three of the books in the first period included it on fewer than ten pages each, and Bullions (1834), Tweed (1886), and Wisely (1896) also gave it very little space.

The comparison of adverbs and a discussion of the various classes of adverbs were the two important phases of the subject always taken up in textbooks. Comparison of adverbs was handled in much the same way as was comparison of adjectives.

The classes given by different authors did not always agree, but most of those mentioned were included in the list given by Comly (1805):

1. Of *number*; as Once, twice, thrice, &c.
2. Of *order*; as First, secondly, thirdly, lastly, finally, &c.
3. Of *place*; as Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, everywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, therein, hither, thither, whither, upward, downward, forward, backward, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever, &c.
4. Of *time present*; as Now, to-day, &c.
5. Of *time past*; as Already, before, lately, yesterday, long since.
6. Of *time to come*; as To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth, by and by, presently, immediately, &c.
7. Of *time indefinite*; as Oft, often, oftentimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, yearly, always, when, ever, never, again, &c.
8. Of *quality*; as Much, little, sufficiently, enough, how much, how great, abundantly, &c.
9. Of *manner or quality*; as Wisely, foolishly, justly, quickly. Adverbs of quality are very numerous; and are generally formed by adding *ly* to adjectives or participles, or by changing *le* into *ly*; as bad, badly; cheerful, cheerfully; admirable, admirably; agreeable, agreeably, &c.
10. Of *doubt*; as Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance.
11. Of *affirmation*; as Verily, truly, certainly, yea, yes, indeed, really, &c.
12. Of *negation*; as Nay, no, not, not at all, in no wise, &c.
13. Of *interrogation*; as How, why, wherefore, whether, &c.
14. Of *comparison*; as Better, best, more, most, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, alike, &c. (3:67-68)

The majority of these kinds of adverbs were mentioned in the early texts, but not more than six kinds, and sometimes only two kinds have been listed in texts published since 1868.

Adverbs of manner, place, and time were found in most of the texts, beginning with Murray (1795) and ending with *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928). Adverbs of negation and affirmation were

included in most of the early books; in fact they were in all of those published during the first period, but they were gradually dropped and in the last period were found in none of the texts. Adverbs of degree were given considerable attention between 1845 and 1877 and again between 1906 and 1926, but they were mentioned in only two books not published within these dates. Adverbs of cause were included in texts only between 1853 and 1914.

During the second and third periods conjunctive adverbs were stressed, but they were found only once or twice in other periods. Adverbs of doubt, of order, of number, of quality, and of quantity appeared in the first two periods but were included by these names in very few books after that time. Relative adverbs and responsives were emphasized in the third period. Interrogative adverbs were found in about half of the grammars scattered through all periods.

Double negatives were mentioned in only two books in the first period, but were in most of those after that time, and were found in all texts published since 1900.

Some of the more unusual kinds of adverbs (so far as nomenclature is concerned) were found in Whitney's text (1877), which included potential adverbs and adverbs of measure, of motion, and of succession. Dilworth (1740) listed adverbs of wishing, and Bullions (1834) included adverbs of uncertainty. In recent texts the more formal names for the different classifications were dropped, most of the books referring to adverbs as words that tell how, when, where, to what extent, how much, and why.

As in the case of adjectives, textbooks published within the last period have emphasized the value of adverbs in making descriptions clear and vivid and in adding interest to a story.

Preposition. — As the years have gone by, the amount of emphasis given to the preposition has steadily decreased. Murray (1795) stated that "one great use of prepositions, in English, is, to express those relations, which, in some languages, are chiefly marked by cases, or the different endings of nouns" (2:123). Hyde (1888-1896) discussed prepositions in great detail, including long notes on some of the forms. In one such case, she explained the different points of view concerning the parsing of the word "of" in the sentence, "His original purpose was lost sight of" (13b:233), concluding her discussion with the statement that "Mr. Gould Brown pronounces this construction 'an unparsable synchysis, a vile snarl, which no grammarian should hesitate to condemn'" (13b:233).

Prepositions have not been broken down into kinds in texts published since 1877, but before that time most of the books divided them into two classes: prepositions separate from the noun, and inseparable prepositions, or prepositions joined to the noun. A few included compound prepositions, or those made up of two other prepositions, such as "into," "underneath," "upon," etc. Bullions (1834) explained that inseparable prepositions were "certain particles never found by themselves, but always in composition with another word. Those purely

English are *a, be, fore, mis, un*" (7:70). No attempt has been made in recent texts to divide prepositions into classifications of any kind.

Conjunction. — Conjunctions were given so much stress between 1795 and 1823 that the percentage of pages on which they appeared in the first period of this study was greater than that in any of the other periods.

Murray claimed that conjunctions were necessary only to the speech of the educated and intelligent:

Till men began to think in a train, and carry their reasonings to a considerable length, it is not probable that they would make much use of conjunctions, or of any other connectives. Ignorant people, and children, generally speak in short and separate sentences. The same thing is true of barbarous nations: and hence uncultivated languages are not well supplied with connecting particles. The Greeks were the greatest reasoners that ever appeared in the world; and their language, accordingly, abounds more than any other in connectives. (2:128)

Disjunctive conjunctions were included in the first eight books, but were found in only three of the texts published later than this. The opposite of these, copulative conjunctions, were included in most of the first 18 books, but did not appear after 1906. Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, on the other hand, were not found in texts until Greene introduced them in 1853. Greene's division of conjunctions was accepted by almost all textbook authors, only one book after this date failing to include it.

Dilworth (1740) included conditional conjunctions, and he and Whitney (1877) and the Scott-Southworth series (1906) included causals. Murray (1795) mentioned double and illative conjunctions, and conjunctions in pairs, and a few of the books published between 1850 and 1877 also included adjective, adverbial, adversative, alternative, and correspondent conjunctions. Recent books have not listed many kinds of conjunctions.

Interjection. — The interjection has been given less space than any other part of speech throughout the 150 years covered by this study. Lewis and Lynch (1918) gave it more emphasis than did any other text studied, mentioning it on nearly 7 per cent of the pages. However, many of the grammars mentioned it on only two to four pages.

Murray (1795) described the interjection and his reason for considering it a part of speech, as follows:

The interjection, indeed, seems scarcely worthy of being considered as a part of artificial language or speech, being rather a branch of that natural language, which we possess in common with the brute creation, and by which we express the sudden emotions and passions that actuate our frame. But, as it is used in written as well as oral language, it may, in some measure, be deemed a part of speech. It is, with us, a virtual sentence, in which the noun and verb are concealed under an imperfect or indigested word. (2:43-44)

Some of the interjections listed in the older textbooks are particularly interesting. Bullions (1834) included the following:

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! hey-dey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! &c. (7:71)

The interjection is much more useful in spoken English than in written English, but even here the modern texts warn students to avoid using it too often. Several of the newer texts contained statements similar to that found in the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944):

A very common fault in American speech is the excessive use of interjections — often very cheap and inappropriate ones, such as *gee whiz* and *boloney*, to say nothing of swearing. One way in which we can show our patriotism and pride in our language is to resolve not to swear or use expressions that really add nothing to the value of what we are saying. (27f:107)

Prose and Poetry

Prose and poetry, mentioned on 30 per cent of all pages in the textbooks analyzed, included four rather general subdivisions: composition, which involved the writing of material by the student; the study of prose, that is, the interpretation of literary selections or other written material or the study of its organization for the purpose of gaining an understanding and appreciation of good writing; the study of poetry; and figures of speech. The relative amounts of emphasis given these divisions in the various periods are shown in Table VII.

TABLE VII. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE OF PROSE AND POETRY WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH PROSE AND POETRY WERE MENTIONED

Phase	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Composition.....	3	10	55	50	48
Study of prose.....	33	8	15	36	29
Study of poetry.....	44	58	28	15	20
Figures of speech.....	33	31	2		2

More variation in the amount of emphasis given the various phases of a subject was found in prose and poetry study than in any other major division of grammar. Composition writing was seldom mentioned in texts of the first period but was found on half the pages of texts published after 1875. Figures of speech, on the other hand, dropped from at least one mention for every three pages to a negligible amount of emphasis in the last period.

Composition. — Composition as we think of it today did not enter texts until about 1850. Of the textbooks published earlier than this, only Bullions (1834) gave the subject any consideration worthy of note.

While Bullions stated that the "rhetorical divisions of a discourse" were "generally six in number, viz. the Exordium, the Narration, the Proposition, the Confirmation, the Refutation, and the Peroration" (7:159), he gave practically no explanation of the characteristics of these different divisions.

Emphasis on composition increased tremendously at the beginning of the third period, when Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) gave the subject a great deal of attention. Up to that time, much of the work that was called composition had been nothing more than sentence construction. Reed and Kellogg greatly broadened the field covered by this kind of composition:

In the supplementary Lessons on Composition the pupil is thoroughly drilled in the use of the marks of Punctuation, is made familiar with the cardinal virtues of Style, and is led on to the grouping of sentences into Paragraphs and of Paragraphs into Themes, to the construction of Frameworks for Themes, and to Letter-Writing. (13b:5)

Only four books in the first two periods discussed paragraphing, but the subject was found in five books published in the third period and in all those in the fourth. Proper margins and paragraph indentions were included in most of the texts published after 1875. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were among the first to stress the paragraph, but they usually tied it up with the mechanical make-up of composition, as is seen in the directions they gave:

Direction. — Weave these facts into as many paragraphs as you think there should be, using the variety of expression insisted on in Lesson 150, and write on the margin of each paragraph the special topic, and over the whole, the general subject of the Theme: . . . (13b:298)

In connection with the paragraph, the topic sentence was discussed by a few of the texts, especially in the last period. Books published between 1896 and 1926, and one or two later texts, gave considerable attention to the use of an outline. In this connection, the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) likened the writing of a composition to the building of a house and the outline to the blueprint. This text stressed the need for organization, saying: "Get the habit of putting your thoughts in order, no matter what you think, or say, or write" (27d:27).

Clearness and forcefulness in writing were mentioned in a few books throughout the study, especially in the last period. Accuracy, naturalness, and variety were also stressed in the later books. Interest and vividness, too, were considered by recent texts as among the more important qualities of a good composition, but were not even mentioned until 1900 in the grammars studied.

Of the four more common forms of composition, narration and description were given the most space. While these forms were found in only two books in each of the first two periods, they were included and given far more emphasis in most of the texts of the last two periods.

Exposition, on the other hand, was found in only four books published before 1907 and argumentation in only two put out before 1914 and in three published after that date.

In teaching narration, the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) was the first to include pictures for the pupils to describe or to use as a basis for a composition. Hyde (1888-1896) included a number of illustrations for this purpose and put story writing on a more creative basis (see Figure 9). Scott and Southworth (1906) included also questions to guide students in telling the story or to get the most out of a picture. The development of creative ability became an important part in story writing and books attempted to develop this ability.

In teaching the writing of description, emphasis was usually placed on the use of an appropriate and effective vocabulary. *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) stressed this by having the students pick out the characteristic traits of whatever they planned to describe. They pointed out that "almost everything in nature has striking characteristics by which it may be told. An English sparrow is recognized by its twittering and quarreling; a fox by its bushy tail and sly ways; a bear by its savage growl and awkward walk" (23c:13). The student was then asked to pick out the characteristic movements of various animals.

Perhaps the topics suggested for themes will throw more light on the changes in the teaching of composition than will general discussion of the subject. Bullions (1834) listed more than a hundred "selected from Parker's *Exercises in Composition*," among them such topics as "Ardor of Mind," "Government of the Affections," "Life is Short," and "Idleness Destroys Character" (7:188). By the time Reed and Kellogg's text (1875-1877) appeared, about 40 years later, topics were not, as a rule, so moralizing, and gave the student a chance to write in a lighter vein. However, the pupil was still usually held down to assigned topics like "The Missions of Birds" and "A Descent in a Diving Bell" (13b:305), rather than given the opportunity to use his imagination.

The trend, however, was toward encouraging originality by allowing pupils more freedom in the selection of their theme topics. Hyde (1888-1896) suggested that "whatever the pupil is interested in, whether it be a topic connected with his reading, geography, history, or some other lesson, will afford him a good subject for composition" (16a:v). A quarter of a century later, when educators were beginning to encourage pupils to look outside of their classroom experiences for topics, the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) included such assignments as "Pretend that you are a peppermint cane in a candy store. How do you feel when you see a little boy getting ready to buy you? Where does he take you? How do you help in making someone happy?" (22a:137).

Recent texts have tried to develop the whole pupil in their teaching of composition. Not only have they given him the opportunity to select his own subject for a composition, but the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) even gave him a formula to go by in deciding whether the subject he chose was suitable for him.

"The Home Run Which Won the Game." Is that a good subject for me?

Test 1. *Personal experience?* Yes, I was in the play.

Test 2. *Interesting?* Yes, the play won the game.

Test 3. *Definite?* Yes, I can tell it in a short time. (24c:20)

Study of prose. — The study of prose was given about the same amount of emphasis in the last period as in the first, but between the two periods it was included far less often. Before 1835 much of the instruction concerning prose dealt with the subjects of clearness, perspicuity, precision, propriety, purity, strength, and unity. These phases of the subject were not given much consideration in the second and third periods, except in Reed and Kellogg's text (1875-1877), but were again taught in the books of the twentieth century.

At first the study of prose was more nearly a study of grammar than of writing because it involved a tearing apart rather than a building up of well written sentences and paragraphs. Quotations from writers were included in a few of the texts to illustrate effective writing or correct paragraphing, but not many of these were used until about the middle 1800's.

Many stories were included in texts, some purely for the sake of adding interest, but most for the sake of helping the child to recognize well written prose and to appreciate the factors in its development. The first text to include stories was Reed and Kellogg's (1875-1877), but almost every grammar since that time has included a number of them, nearly one sixth of the pages in the Robbins-Row series (1907) and the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) containing material of this kind.

A few fables were quoted in recent texts as examples of story writing. Biography was found in five grammars, four of them published since 1920, and essays and orations were also included now and then in recent texts. All of these were quoted for the sake of showing the student some phase of prose writing — the logical arrangement of thought, the development of the interest element, the creation of a certain atmosphere, and so forth. Discussion of the factors usually followed the quoted material.

A new type of prose included for study was that of children's compositions. These were first put in textbooks early in the twentieth century and became very popular, for in this way the authors of the texts were able to show the student what not to do as well as what to do and to show him the results of poor writing and the way in which they affect the finished product.

Study of poetry. — The study of poetry was another subject given much more emphasis after 1875 than earlier. The difference in percentage of pages given to poetry was mostly due to the fact that several phases of the subject were included in the later books, while in the early ones little more than versification was discussed.

At first, the study of poetry was always placed under the heading "Prosody," a term never found in modern texts. According to Dilworth (1740), prosody, or the study of the principles and methods of versification, "teacheth the true Pronunciation of Syllables and Words, according to their proper *Quantities*, and *Tones*, or *Accents*" (1:91). In the



(approximately two fifths size)

Fig. 9. Illustrations used in early composition teaching.

teaching of the subject, perspicuity, precision, propriety, purity, strength, etc., were stressed in texts up to 1834, and the mechanical form of poetry was taught in detail through the first two periods covered by this study.

The greatest emphasis on versification came during the second period, although the subject was found in most of the grammars of the first period. After 1868 it was dropped almost completely for 30 or 40 years. The study of rhyme and of the stanza re-entered texts early in the twentieth century, and, in the last two books analyzed, versification, including such topics as accent, blank verse, meter, pauses, rhyme, and the stanza, was again given considerable attention.

Although Dilworth (1740) and Comly (1805) did not mention poetic feet and only one of the authors after 1868 included the topic, several of the early grammars discussed as many as eight kinds, always including anapaest, dactyl, iambus, and trochee. Greene's text (1853) was particularly detailed in this respect.

Poetic license was mentioned only once after 1868, having received its greatest emphasis in the second period. Brown (1823) listed 36 "of the most striking peculiarities in which poets indulge," such as "They use concrete terms to express abstract qualities" (5:333) and "They abbreviate verbs" (5:334).

Scanning was popular during the second period but was scarcely mentioned by any other authors and was not found in any of the texts of the last period.

Classical poetry received its greatest emphasis in the second period and the least in the last period, when it was almost dropped from texts. Children's poetry was included in only three texts in the first two periods, and in each of those only one or two poems were found. Since that time, however, only three texts have failed to include children's poetry, about one third of all teaching in the field of poetry being based on this type of poem.

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were among the first to present the study of poetry from the point of view of teaching the child the meaning of a poem rather than merely teaching him the form. They included selections from well-known poets (13b:148), for the pupil to translate into prose. Hyde (1888-1896) tried to help the pupil gain the meaning from a poem by asking questions concerning it:

Read the first stanza. What is this stanza about? Where was the blackbird? Whom did he address? What did he say? What reply did the little girl make? Describe Little Bell. What is the meaning of *piped*? Of *spray*? Of *quoth*? Of *unfold*? What are the marks called that enclose the words *Little Bell*? Why are they used?

Read the second stanza. What was the first thing that Little Bell did? (16b:14)

Poetry to be memorized was not included in texts until Hyde (1888-1896) published several such poems in her grammar. The idea met with such immediate popularity that several of the texts published in the next 20 or 30 years contained many pages of poems for memorization and all except three of the grammars after that time quoted at least a few.

The first evidence of teaching the pupil to write poetry was found in Greene's text (1853):

Construct a line to rhyme with the following:—

"The soldier marched upon the burning sand,"

"Soft the breeze in yonder vale,"

"The leaves are falling one by one," (10:220)

Two or three recent books also gave the pupil an opportunity to try rhyming words and making lines of poetry. One suggestion made in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) was:

With the help of your classmates change this stanza to one beginning: *And when the summer is over.*

And when the winter is over,

The boughs will get new leaves,

The quail come back to the clover,

And the swallow back to the eaves.

Cary (23a:205)

The two most recent books have made a point of the fact that "poetry is a musical way of saying things with picture words" (27e:178). Great interest has been shown during the twentieth century in teaching pupils to use expressive and vivid words, and poetry has furnished a good medium through which to give such instruction.

Figures of speech. — According to Kirkham (1823):

Figures of Speech may be described as that language which is prompted either by the imagination, or by the passions. They generally imply some departure from simplicity of expression; and exhibit ideas in a manner more vivid and impressive, than could be done by plain language. Figures have been commonly divided into great classes; Figures of Words, and Figures of Thought. (4:222)

Figures of speech were mentioned on nearly one fourth of the pages on which prose and poetry were discussed in the first period, but in the last period only three books included the subject and none of these mentioned it on more than one or two pages. Altogether, only about two thirds of the texts included figures of speech.

Murray (1795) and Brown (1823) gave a fuller discussion of figures of speech than did any other authors, but Harvey (1868), who went into detail in discussing punctuation marks, diacritical marks, etc., listed 35 different figures of speech, much the greatest number found in any text. Kerl (1864) listed 26, Brown (1823) mentioned 17, Greene (1853) gave 16, and Pinneo (1850) included 14, but those mentioned were not necessarily the same in the various books.

Personification was found in 14 texts and simile in 12, but no other one figure of speech was mentioned in more than nine of the texts analyzed. Besides the two named, those most commonly included were allegory, antithesis, climax, hyperbole, irony, metaphor, metonymy, and

synecdoche. Early books included also such unusual figures of speech as paraleipsis, enallage, autonomasia, and onomatopy. Altogether, only eight were mentioned in the last two periods and none of the books contained all of these.

The Study of Words

While the study of words was not considered the most important phase of grammar, it was discussed on more than an eighth of the pages of the texts analyzed. In the first period, however, the subject was given much more emphasis than in any other period. Dilworth (1740) gave particular stress to the study of words, which, he said, "are given us by the alwise God, as a Means by which, not only one Man may make his own Thoughts known to another, but that we thereby may also arrive to the Knowledge of the Will of Him our *Creator*, revealed in the sacred Oracles of his Divine Word" (1:A2).

In this division have been included such topics as phonetics and pronunciation, spelling, syllabication, letters and sounds, vocabulary building and correct usage of certain words, forming of plurals, and derivatives with their roots, prefixes, and suffixes. The relative amounts of emphasis given these different topics are shown in Table VIII.

Nearly one third of the space given to the study of words dealt with phonetics and pronunciation, while about the same amount was given to spelling and syllabication combined. Emphasis on spelling increased, however, as the teaching of syllabication became less important. Letters and their sounds, and derivatives were stressed in the first period but have almost dropped out of textbooks, while vocabulary building, on the other hand, increased greatly in popularity in the last period.

TABLE VIII. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES ON WHICH EACH PHASE OF THE STUDY OF WORDS WAS MENTIONED, BASED ON THE TOTAL NUMBER OF PAGES ON WHICH THE STUDY OF WORDS WAS MENTIONED

Phase	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Phonetics and pronunciation.....	42	22	33	29	31
Spelling.....	10	21	18	25	22
Syllabication.....	25	14	11	9	13
Letters and sounds.....	21	16	7	8	11
Vocabulary building.....	8	0	4	16	11
Forming of plurals.....	4	17	24	5	8
Derivatives.....	14	12	4	1	4

Phonetics and pronunciation. — Phonetics and pronunciation have been combined in this analysis because they were so often combined in the textbooks.

In the early books very technical names were given to the various sounds, and the problem of studying the correct pronunciation of a word was an involved one. Pupils had to learn these terms and to apply them correctly. Harvey (1868) gave a model to go by in analyzing the sounds of the letters in a word:

Model III.

Clank. — Give the five sounds in quick succession.
c-l-a-n-k, and pronounce the word.

Model IV.

Clank is a syllable, containing five elementary sounds.
C..... is a consonant-aspirate-palatal, substitute for *k*. (*Give its sound.*)
l..... is a consonant-subvocal-lingual. (*Give its sound.*)
a..... is a vowel, short sound. (*Give its sound.*)
n..... is a consonant-subvocal-palatal-nasal, substitute for *ng*. (*Give its sound.*)
k..... is a consonant-aspirate-palatal. (*Give its sound.*) (12:19)

These technical terms were omitted entirely from modern texts, although the same general content was taught. In the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944), for example, pupils were told to:

Notice carefully which sounds you make with your teeth, which ones with the help of your lips, and which ones with your throat muscles. Watch the vowel sounds especially. Here are examples of the different kinds of consonant sounds, grouped by the way we sound them.

Teeth letters: *d, t, n, s, and r*

Lip letters: *p, b, m, f, v, and w*

Throat letters: *c, ch, g, k, and q* (27c:28-29)

Interesting practice in using the correct sounds of letters was given in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941):

In this sentence the *th* sounds are unvoiced: *Thirty-three thistles were thrust through my thumb.*

In this sentence the *th* sounds are voiced: *They bathed my brother with Father's lather.* (26b:25)

Authors have always emphasized the fact that correct pronunciation is essential if one is to be considered educated. In the early days pupils were given an understanding of diacritical marks and an explanation of the rules for accenting syllables. Lists of words were included in many of the texts which, as Kirkham (1823) said, were "erroneously pronounced by polite people, as well as by the vulgar" (4:201). Among the words found in such a list in Kerl's text (1864) were "Do not say . . . chaw for chew, pint for point, git for get, sich for such, skeer for scare, shet for shut, guine for going, borry for borrow, widder for widow, Injun for Indian, tremenjuss for tremendous" (11:52).

In recent books more space was given to the often mispronounced or slurred word, such as "yuh" for "you," "gonna" for "going to," and "juh," for "did you" (27b:14). However, certain other words which are often mispronounced were also pointed out. In *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), the authors gave the source of difficulty in pronunciation, pointing out whether it was the initial sound of a certain word, a mistaken sound, the final sound, or a slighted syllable that usually caused the incorrect pronunciation (23b:157). The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) also included a list of words such as "accompanist," "athletic," "drowned," and "film," introducing it with:

If you wish to make a good first impression, be sure that you do not slip extra syllables into the following words: (26e:23)

Pronunciation was stressed in the last period, while phonetics was stressed in the first. This change in emphasis followed the pattern of many of the changes in other phases of grammar teaching, that is, it was a move away from the technical aspects of the study to the more functional phases.

Spelling. — Spelling created quite a problem in the early days because the spelling of a number of words had not been standardized, yet authors seemed to feel that there could be but one truly correct spelling of a word. This led to discussion of the subject, with textbook writers seeking authority for the spellings which they included in their books. Murray (1795), for example, included several statements in his text similar to the following:

C, says Dr. Johnson, according to English orthography, never ends a word; and therefore we find in our best dictionaries, stick, block, publick, politick, &c. But many writers of latter years omit the *k* in words of two or more syllables; and this practice is gaining ground, though it is productive of irregularities; such as writing mimic and mimickry; traffic and traffick-ing. (2:22)

Since much stress was placed on rules in the early study of grammar, spellings that did not conform to rules were questioned. People have developed a tolerance toward the opinions of others in regard to this point, however. When recent texts mentioned that there was not complete agreement as to the spelling of a word, pupils were taught to use the preferred spelling:

The preferred spelling of the following words is given first, but the other spelling is not wrong:

canceled
catalogue

cancelled
catalog (26e:216)

The first part of Dilworth's text (1740) was given over entirely to spelling, first by letters and later by syllables. He began with words of two letters, giving lists of such words, which he termed "Tables," and then included exercises. After his list of three-letter words, for instance, he included "Some easy Lessons on the Foregoing Tables, consisting of Words not exceeding Three Letters" (1:4), among the lessons being such sentences as:

No Man may put off the Law of God.
In God do I put my Joy, O let me not sin. (1:4)

Dilworth listed words of as many as six letters, but all of these were one-syllable words. When he got into words of more than one syllable, he included them in his discussion of syllabication rather than of spelling.

Lists were included, especially in the older texts, giving the correct and incorrect (or old) spellings of words. In a list in Kirkham's grammar (1823) were found such spellings as "corset" (incorrect) and "corslet" (correct), "ouse" (incorrect) and "ooze" (correct), and "ribbon" (incorrect) and "riband" (correct) (4:200). Were it not for the fact that many spellings considered correct today were found in the "correct" column of this list, it would seem that the columns had accidentally been given the wrong headings.

Homonyms were also stressed in several of the texts. Here again, a few of the early grammars included long lists of homonyms, one of the most interesting of which was found in Dilworth's text (1740). The following were among the items in this list:

<i>Bolt</i> , for a Door	<i>Rere</i> , the back Part
<i>Boult</i> , Meal	<i>Rear</i> , to erect
<i>Breaches</i> , broken Places	<i>Retch</i> , to Vomit
<i>Breeches</i> , to wear	<i>Wretch</i> , an unhappy Man
<i>Earing</i> , the Time of Harvest	<i>Rie</i> , Corn
<i>Ear-ring</i> , a Ring for the Ear	<i>Wry</i> , Crooked
<i>Grease</i> , nasty Fat	<i>Some</i> , a Part
<i>Greece</i> , a Country	<i>Sum</i> , the whole
<i>Male</i> , the He	<i>Way</i> , to walk in
<i>Mail</i> , Armour	<i>Weigh</i> , to poize
<i>Mite</i> , an Insect	<i>Wey</i> , Forty Bushels
<i>Might</i> , Strength	<i>Whey</i> , Milk and Rennet
<i>News</i> , Tidings	<i>Weather</i> , disposition of the Air
<i>Noose</i> , a Knot	<i>Whether</i> , which of the Two
<i>Pint</i> , half a Quart	<i>Vile</i> , base
<i>Point</i> , a Stop	<i>Wile</i> , a Trick
	<i>While</i> , in the meantime

(1:73-79)

In many cases the words given in such a list were not true homonyms, and therefore would not be found so classified in modern texts. Lists in recent texts were much shorter and seldom contained rarely used words,

but almost always included the homonyms "there, their, they're" and "to, two, too." Instead of merely listing the words, recent grammars have tried to help the pupil to see the words used correctly in content, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) using the phrase "too many going to town in a two-wheel cart" (23a:283) to help the students remember the correct use of each of the spellings of the word.

Syllabication. — Although syllabication was included in all but two of the texts, it was given very little emphasis in any except the first book.

According to Brown, "a *Syllable* is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, a, an, ant" (5:28). In discussing the division of words into syllables, Dilworth (1740) stated that it is done "by taking Words asunder into convenient Parts, in order to shew their true Pronunciation, and original Formation, which is commonly called *Spelling*" (1:83).

Dilworth (1740) gave far more space to syllabication than did any other text, placing it in his text immediately following his detailed discussion of spelling. He included long lists of words of one, two, three, four, five, and six syllables, giving nearly 42 per cent of his book to this and to spelling. Toward the end of this section he included the following list:

Proper Names of Six Syllables.
Note, The Accent is on the Fourth Syllable.

A-Bel-beth-ma-a-cah	Hi"sto-ri-o"gra-phy
Be-ro-dach-Ba"la-dam	Me"di-ter-ra"ne-an
Ec-cle-si-a"sti-cus	Me-so-po-ta-mi-a (1:71)

No other text included syllabication on more than a very small percentage of its pages and, in the recent texts, little was said on the subject except as it related to the division of words at the ends of lines and to the spelling of words.

Letters and sounds. — The alphabet was discussed in texts of every period, but the point of view from which it was taken up differed greatly in different periods (see Figure 10). In the early grammars the letters were printed in order, often in Roman, italic, script, and Old English type. The memorization of the alphabet was believed to be so basically necessary to the learning of words that pupils were drilled thoroughly on this point. Since a knowledge of the pronunciation of the various letters was, of course, essential to ability to repeat the alphabet, a guide was often included in which the names of the letters were given. Typical of such guides was that found in Brown's *Institutes of English Grammar* (1823), which was one of the first to give the pronunciation of *z* as *zee* instead of *zed*:

The names of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are A, Bee, Cee, Dee, E, Eff, Gee, Aitch, I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Ex, Wy, Zee. (5:19)

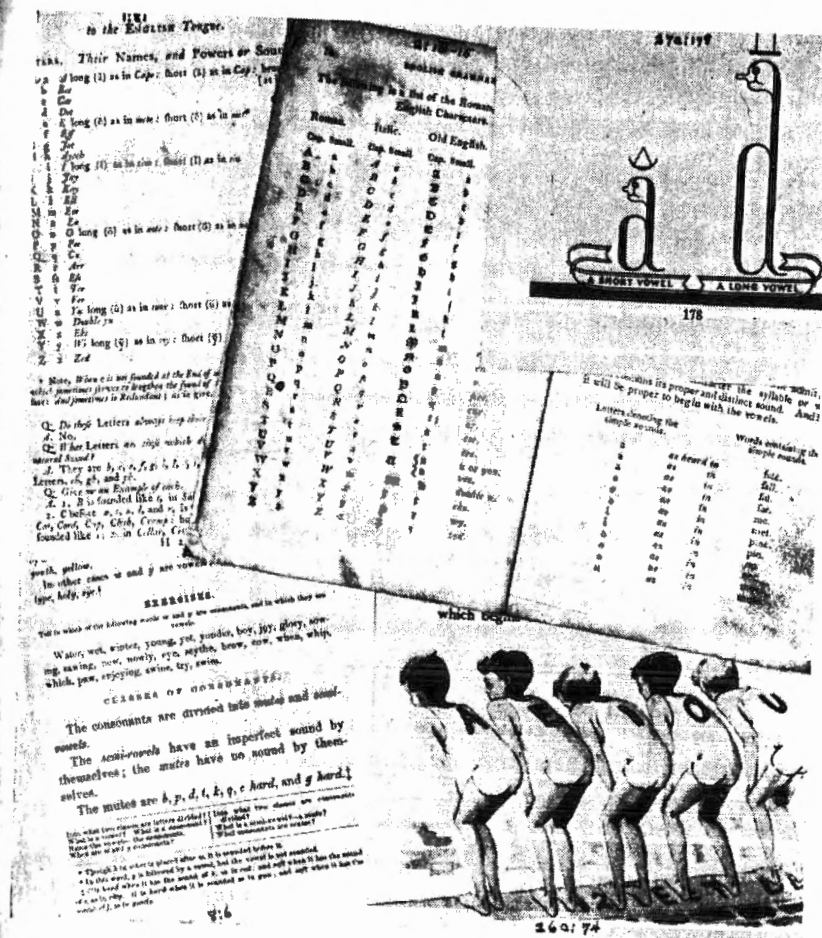


Fig. 10. Old and new ways of teaching the alphabet and sounds of letters. (one half size)

Great detail was used in teaching the different sounds of the letters. Murray (1795) gave 21 pages to this material, the various sounds of the one letter "a" taking up more than a page. In discussing this letter, he began with the statement that "A has four sounds; the long or slender, the broad, the short or open, and the middle" (2:21). He gave examples of each of these and then went on to a discussion of the diphthongs "aa," "ae," "ai," "au," "aw," and "ay." So vital did it seem to authors to include examples of every sound that they sometimes went to

great lengths to find suitable ones. Comly (1805), for example, seemed not to consider the fact that a person studying the alphabet for the first time would not be acquainted with many unusual words, for he used as examples of silent "ph" such words as "apophthegm, phthisis," and "phthysical" (3:7).

Diphthongs were taught in every one of the early texts except Pinneo's (1850) but were not mentioned after Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) published their text. Triphthongs were dropped by 1868, and at no time were given as much stress as diphthongs.

By 1825 the unusual emphasis on letters and their sounds had begun to die down, and after that time few books gave the subject much space. Study of the alphabet in recent texts dealt almost exclusively with the teaching of the vowels and consonants. While the sounds of letters were still taught, they were given in connection with the pronunciation of the words in which they were contained. This situation may be accounted for in part by the fact that students used not to have an educational background for their study of grammar, while more recently, with an opportunity to get a primary education in the public schools, the majority of students have a knowledge of the alphabet before entering upon grammar study.

Vocabulary building. — In the first few texts included in this analysis, any discussion of vocabulary was essentially a study of derivatives, a topic that is discussed more fully in another section of this major division. Sometimes lists of obsolete words, recently coined words, etc. were included. Later, vocabulary building, as we think of it today, became an integral part of grammar texts. Kerl (1864) was among the first to stress the need for an understanding of the meaning of words, although he was a little apologetic when he suggested that "to know what a word means, and how to use it, is probably quite as valuable an attainment as to know of what part of speech it is" (11:126).

It is an interesting fact that the older books were the ones which gave the most space to obsolete words. Lists of such terms were found in the first five grammars and in most of those published before 1850, but the subject was not mentioned in more than two texts published later than 1877. Some of the words found in these lists are interesting because of the fact that they were already outmoded a century ago. They included many seldom-used principal parts of irregular verbs, as well as such words as "whilom, erewhile, whoso, albeit, aforetime, methinks" (5:329).

Troublesome words, including homonyms (discussed in the section on spelling), and pairs of words like "lie" and "lay," "good" and "well," and "teach" and "learn" have also been found in most of the texts since 1834.

Archaic terms and colloquial expressions were found in one or two grammars of each period. Now and then usage found in a certain part of the country and not elsewhere was mentioned. Tweed (1886) considered sentences ending in a preposition to be a colloquial form of expression. The older books often spoke of provincialisms, solecisms, im-

proprieties, and so forth. These included lists and discussions similar to the following:

87. A LIST OF IMPROPER EXPRESSIONS.

I should <i>admire</i> to go to sea.	I should like to go to sea.
He was walking <i>back</i> and <i>forth</i> .	backwards and forwards.
Where <i>be</i> you? Here I <i>be</i> .	Where are you? Here I am.
A <i>chunk</i> of bread.	A piece of bread.
These things are in a bad <i>fix</i> .	in a bad state, or condition.
How do your <i>folks</i> do?	How is your family?
Will you <i>go by</i> and dine with me?	Will you <i>go by my house</i> and dine? (7:149-150)

Tweed (1886) included a discussion with some of his examples of incorrect use of words:

Had as lief, had better, had best, had like, had as good, and had rather, are sometimes criticised; but they are idioms which have been in use from early times, and are abundantly supported by the best authorities. *Would as lief* and *would rather* are also used by good writers.

"I *had rather* be a doorkeeper," etc. — *Ps. Lxxxiv, 10.*

"I *had as lief* not be, as live to be

In awe of such a thing as I myself." — *Shakespeare.*

"Some things the state *had better* leave alone; others it *had better* not." — *M. Arnold.* (15:106-107)

In more recent books these were referred to as an illiterate or uncultured use of words, or merely as an incorrect use of words. Typical of the errors mentioned in such material was the following, taken from the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923):

138. Correct Use of Words

What is the difference between the correct and the incorrect forms given below? Your dictionary will tell you why, in the first sentence, the word *person* should be used instead of the word *party*, and will answer similar questions for each of the remaining sentences.

<i>Incorrect</i>	<i>Correct</i>
Who was the tall <i>party</i> to whom you were talking?	Who was the tall <i>person</i> to whom you were talking?
I am "Yours <i>respectively</i> ."	I am "Yours <i>respectfully</i> ."
Her hair is <i>different than</i> mine.	Her hair is <i>different from</i> mine.
The <i>balance</i> of us went.	The <i>rest</i> of us went.
There are <i>less</i> pupils here today.	There are <i>fewer</i> pupils here today.
That is <i>alright</i> .	That is <i>all right</i> . (22c:288)

The study of vocabulary from this point of view became in reality a study of language usage, including idiomatic English and slang. A few of the early grammars included lists of idioms, particularly long

lists being found in Greene's (1853) and Kerl's (1864) texts, but material of this kind was found in only two grammars published after 1886. In place of it came the language of the street, meaningful and somewhat idiomatic in construction but careless and consequently incorrect. The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) gave a very effective example of this:

Overheard at the Factory

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| (a) "Hey, you!" | (b) "Stop a minute; you're in too big a hurry." |
| "What?" | "What do you want?" |
| "Wait there." | "I want you to wait there." |
| "Why?" | "Why should I wait?" |
| "Orders." | "Because I've been sent with an order to stop you." |
| "Whose?" | "Who ordered you to do it?" |
| "Boss's." | "The chief said he wanted to see you." |
| "Can't." | "But I'm in a hurry and I can't stay now." |
| "Too bad!" | "It's too bad you have to disobey him." |
| "So long." | "Good-by. Wait until I get back." |
| "You're fired." | "Well, if you leave, you'll be fired."
(27f:40-41) |

Slang was not mentioned as such in texts until the last period, although some slang words had been included among the interjections listed in a few of the early grammars. Since children often find slang an effective form of speech, the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) was careful not to condemn it too severely. Their comment on the subject would discourage the use of such language, however:

Sometimes a new and clever slang phrase expresses a thought neatly. Slang has a way of going stale, however. Like a good joke, it appeals at first because it is catchy, new, and humorous. Like a joke, however, slang loses its spicy flavor when it is repeated too frequently. It becomes as dull as an old joke. (26e:104)

Along with a discussion of slang came that of the use of what Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) termed "overworked adjectives." In commenting on the subject, they said, "careless persons and those with a meager list of adjectives at command overwork and abuse such words as *nice*, *awful*, *horrid*, *splendid*, *elegant*, and say *nice mountains*, *awful pens*, *horrid ink*, *splendid pie*, *elegant beef*, *lovely cheese*, etc." (13a:49). Such adjectives as these have been stressed in a number of the newer texts.

The needless use of words was mentioned now and then throughout the 150-year period. Although Murray (1795) objected to it, he upheld its use in the Bible:

This manner, however, in a certain degree, is so strongly characteristic of the simple style of remote ages, that, in books of the highest antiquity, particularly the Bible, it is not at all ungraceful. Of this kind are the following scriptural phrases. "He lifted up his voice, and wept." "He opened his mouth, and said." It is true, that, in strictness, they are not necessary to the narration, but they are of some importance to the composition, as bearing the venerable signature of ancient simplicity. (2:299)

Another phase of vocabulary building taught in recent texts was that of the selection of "picture" words and of words which would give a certain "feeling" or atmosphere. The *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) quoted a selection from Poe which showed clearly the effect of the careful choice of words in building up atmosphere:

And the silken sad uncertain rustling of each purple curtain
Thrilled me — filled me with fantastic terrors never felt before. (22c:283-284)

In this connection, several recent texts included the study of what they termed synonyms, but in most cases it was really training in making distinctions between the connotations of words similar in meaning. The Scott-Southworth series (1906) was the first to include much material of this kind.

Synonyms

Birds sometimes *chirp*, they sometimes *twitter*, they sometimes *sing*. What is the difference?

Two pictures hang on the wall. Both are moonlight scenes, but in one the moon shines *brightly*, in the other it shines *brilliantly*. How are the scenes unlike?

Some steam-whistles *toot*, some *scream*, some *shriek*. How do the sounds differ?

What fruits or substances are *sour*? What are *tart*?

Monday you walked down the *street*, Wednesday you walked down the *road*. Where were you on each day?

Two bells are sounding. One *tinkles*, the other *clangs*. What kind of bell is each?

A man drives across a railway track when he knows that an express train is coming not far away. Is he *careless* or *reckless*?

Is a cat *timid* or *cautious*?

Is a grizzly bear *awkward* or *clumsy*? (18a:93)

Knowledge of these slight variations in the meaning of words is an important factor in the development of a wide vocabulary.

In discussing the minimum usable English vocabulary, the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) included a short history of the

development of Basic English. Basic English is made up of 850 words which Mr. Ogden, who developed it, claims can do the work of 20,000. An interesting example of the translation of a speech from its original form into Basic English showed the practicality of this minimum list of words:

Original: My friends, I want to talk for a few minutes with the people of the United States about banking — with the comparatively few who understand the mechanics of banking, but more particularly with the overwhelming majority of you who use banks for the making of deposits and the drawing of checks. I want to tell you what has been done in the last few days, and why it was done, and what the next steps are going to be.

Basic: My friends, I am here to have a short talk with the men and women of the United States about banking — with the small number of persons who have a clear knowledge of the working of banks, but more especially with the very much greater number of you who make use of them for putting your money into an account or taking it out by checks. I am here to give you an idea of what has been done in the last day or two, and why it was done, and what steps are to be taken in the future. (27f:253)

Perhaps the development of such a vocabulary means that, in the future, stress in teaching will be placed on simplicity rather than on beauty, clarity, and force. At present Basic English is such an innovation that its effects cannot be judged.

Forming of plurals. — Instruction in the forming of plurals was included in texts throughout the 150-year period, but not all grammars have discussed this matter. A larger proportion of the books in the first period than in any other mentioned the subject, and most of them listed rules to be followed.

The greatest amount of stress was given to this subject in the second period. Several of the grammars published then or earlier included lists of words which were taken from the Hebrew, Latin, and Greek and formed their plurals in an unusual way. Among words given were some that would probably never be used by those studying them, such as "Animalculum, animalcula; Effluvium, effluvia; Encomium, encomia or encomiums"; and "Ignis fatuus, ignes fatui" (7:14). Material of this kind was almost never referred to in modern texts.

However, another phase of the study of plurals, and one that has continued in some of the more recent books, was that of words that seemed plural but were really singular. This point was brought out as early as 1850, when Pinneo stated that "some nouns are used only in the plural; as *alms, ashes, scissors, tongs, lungs, snuffers, oats*" (9:33). Greene (1853) also mentioned that "*news* is now regarded as singular; so also *measles* and *molasses*, although they have the plural form" (10:25).

Every discussion of the forming of plurals included the rules, and every text except Wisely's (1896) listed from one to a dozen rules. Sometimes even the simplest of them was made a matter of considerable discussion, for example:

In Anglo-Saxon, *as* was the plural termination for a certain class of nouns. In later English, *as* was changed to *es*, which became the regular plural ending; as, *bird-es cloud-es*. In modern English, *e* is dropped, and *s* is joined to the singular without increase of syllables. But, when the singular ends in an *s*-sound, the original syllable *es* is retained, as two hissing sounds will not unite. (13b:188)

Practice in the forming of irregular plurals, such as "man, men," "mouse, mice," "child, children," etc., was included in almost every grammar but was given greater emphasis in the more recent texts.

Derivatives. — The derivation of words was a rather important topic in the early books, when English grammar was still being presented according to the construction outlines used in teaching other languages, but only about half of the texts published since 1870 contained the topic, and even in these it was mentioned on only one or two pages. According to Brown (1823):

Words are distinguished as *primitive* or *derivative*, and as *simple* or *compound*. The former division is called their *species*; the latter, their *figure*.

A *primitive* word is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, *harm, great, connect*.

A *derivative* word is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language; as, *harmless, greatly, connected, disconnect, unconnected*.

A *simple* word is one that is not compounded, not composed of other words; as *watch, man, never, the, less*.

A *compound* word is one that is composed of two or more simple words; as, *watchman, nevertheless*.

Permanent compounds are consolidated; as *bookseller, schoolmaster*; others, which may be called temporary compounds, are formed by the hyphen; as *glass-house, negro-merchant*. (5:29-30)

A number of statements concerning derivation were found in connection with the study of the parts of speech. As a rule, these were worded very much alike.

Words are derived from one another in various ways; *viz*:

1. Substantives are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.
3. Adjectives are derived from substantives.
4. Substantives are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives. (2:130)

Examples were then given, such as "to witness a will" or "to worship God" (14:101), showing how one part of speech has been derived from another. According to Pinneo (1850):

Art. 211. Most words in every language are derivatives; many may be derived from a single root.

Telling stories, either orally or in writing, became rather popular in the third period and continued so to the end of the study, but writing ads was the only other kind of socially useful material found in the third period. By the fourth period, however, many kinds of such content had entered the texts. A few types besides those listed in the table were found, but each was given so little space that they were not included here.

Writing letters. — Letter writing was the first kind of socially useful content introduced into textbooks with the idea of giving the pupil the grammatical information needed in meeting everyday situations. However, only six letters were found in the textbooks published before 1870, and two of these were included for the purpose of teaching something other than letter writing. Only five of the 17 texts published before the beginning of the twentieth century included letter writing, the Reed-Kellogg (1875-1877) and the Hyde series (1888-1896) being the only ones to give the subject much attention, and the first to teach more than mere form. Beginning with the Scott-Southworth series (1906), every text except the Lewis-Lynch grammar (1918) and Daringer's text (1938) included from 30 to 180 pages each on the subject.

Every book mentioning this topic included a discussion of correct form in letter writing. Some gave this information by means of explicit directions to the student, while others included sample letters which the student was to study or copy. Most of the texts stressed the fact that there are five main parts to a letter, and a few also gave directions for addressing the envelope.

Letters were often used as exercises in teaching capitalization and punctuation because of the unusual amount of this required in correct letter form. For such purposes the copying of letters was a common exercise. In the teaching of business letters, neatness and form were given particular emphasis because, as the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) stated:

Sometimes so many people will write letters for a single job that the employer does not have the time to see all of the applicants personally. In that case the employer interviews those few whose letters made the best impression on him. (26e:57)

The emphasis on business letters was approximately the same as that on personal letters in all texts combined, but there was not a great deal of agreement among authors as to which should be given the greater amount of attention. In the second and third periods business letters received the greater stress, but in the fourth period personal letters were emphasized.

Topics chosen for business letters seemed more practical than those for personal letters. Students were asked to write an application for a job advertised in the paper, to order books or other materials, to inquire about courses offered in a certain college, and so forth.

Friendly letters included invitations, thank-you notes, regrets, etc. In the early texts formal notes were always included and were sometimes given more attention than informal ones; but they were seldom mentioned in the recent books. The friendly, chatty letter was the type most widely taught in modern texts. At first, subject matter was dictated for letters of this kind and instruction was based chiefly on the development of correct form. Pupils were asked to write a friendly letter on rough paper, then read and check it, correcting all errors, and then rewrite it in final form. This, of course, caused their letters to become written compositions rather than friendly letters with spontaneity and life. However, in the most recent of the texts, the emphasis was placed on the message of the letter, for, as the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) stated, "when people write letters, they are really talking to each other" (27b:65).

Telling stories. — The teaching of oral composition, which entered textbooks in the second period, was the forerunner of story telling, a topic found in many of the recent grammars and the most popular of all types of socially useful material with the exception of letter writing.

While story telling is closely related to story writing, it has been discussed separately here because, while based on the same fundamental principles, it is a more recent development in the field and places the emphasis on different factors in the development of the story.

Actual story telling did not enter textbooks until the twentieth century, the Scott-Southworth series (1906) being the first to give such instruction, although the writing of stories was taught in grammars for a quarter of a century before that. Human interest pictures were included in texts and pupils were asked to tell the story which they illustrated. Sometimes questions were given to guide the pupil in his interpretation. Beside a picture of two little boys, for instance, pupils were given the following hints:

The name of the boy on the left is Fred Johnson. The boy who is talking to Fred is Harry Armstrong. Harry wishes Fred to do something. Look at Fred's face. Does he think that it is right for him to do what Harry proposes? What does he reply? Where do the boys go, and what happens to them? (18a:125)

In other cases stories were given in the text and pupils were to retell them. Scott and Southworth (1906) sometimes called them "Stories to be Told" (18a:26), but the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) clung to a more formal title, "A Story for Oral Reproduction" (20a:34).

Truly imaginative story telling did not receive much emphasis until the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923). Many attempts have been made since that time to develop creative ability in writing, one of the cleverest of which was found in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) which gave the first part of a story and asked the pupils to finish it.

Little formal instruction in story telling was found until the last two texts analyzed, both of which stressed the topic. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) brought out particularly the point that "situation, suspense, conflict, and sometimes surprise" (26d:141) are necessary in the making of a good story, while the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) stressed the interest element:

One thing is important in storytelling: interest. A story is no good at all if it is uninteresting, and the reader or listener will find it nothing but a bore. No one wants his readers and listeners to be bored by what he is telling them, and so interest is necessary in any kind of story, written or oral. (27e:14)

Reading for pleasure. — Books as such were scarcely mentioned in grammars published before 1923. Dilworth (1740) was the only author to give information concerning the mechanical make-up of a book, but the instruction he gave was very formal and matter-of-fact and was not in any way intended to create an interest in reading:

OF BOOKS

Q. *How are Books divided?*

A. Books are usually divided into *Chapters, Sections, Paragraphs and Verses*.

Q. *What are Chapters?*

.....

Q. *What is a Verse?*

A. In *Prose*, it is the shortest Division in a *Chapter*, as is largely exemplified in the *Holy Bible*: But in *Poetical Writings*, it conveys unto us an *Indea* [sic] of a certain Number of *Syllables* artfully compacted in one *Line*, to gratify the Ear. (1:90)

Reading for pleasure was first mentioned in the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923), but in this book as well as in the later ones which included such material, little was given other than lists of books for the students to read. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) quoted poems or short stories here and there, entitled "Reading Recess," with the idea, apparently, of encouraging the pupils to read for relaxation. Practice in reading for information was not given in a text until it appeared in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) as "Volunteer Work" (24b:30). However, it seemed to be prescribed so that the pupil might tell the story to the rest of the class, and therefore it is considered more closely allied with composition and story telling than with reading.

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) made the greatest effort of any of the texts to get pupils interested in reading for pleasure. Time and again the idea was brought up that there were many advantages to be gained from reading. In their seventh grade volume, for example, they said:

Through books you can travel to far places, you can become friends with book characters, you can live with heroes. All you need is skill in reading and the time to read. (27e:101)

Writing for school publications and newspapers. — Writing for school publications or newspapers was not introduced into grammars until 1926, when *The Open Door Language Series* included such material. Many kinds of writing were done for the papers, such as editorials, news stories, jokes, puzzles, etc. All texts except Daringer's (1938) in the last 20 years included some instruction in this type of writing.

Holding club meetings. — *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) was also the first text to include material on the holding of club meetings. Most of the grammars since that time have followed their lead. In the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) the subject was taken up in several of the different volumes, instruction being given in starting a club, in electing officers, and in parliamentary procedure.

Planning programs. — Although one might expect instruction in the planning of programs to be presented as one phase of holding club meetings, it was almost never included as a club activity in the texts analyzed. Program planning did not enter texts until about 20 years ago, but has been found in almost every grammar since that time. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) stressed this type of material more than did any of the other books. Many of the programs it suggested were those in celebration of a national holiday, such as Thanksgiving or Christmas; others were purely for the sake of entertainment and relaxation, like the radio program suggested in the fifth grade text (26c:231); and others were more educational, for example, "Planning a Travel Program" (26b:31). Several of the texts proposed safety programs.

In the discussion of program planning, topics and activities were often suggested but the actual work of getting the program together was left to the pupils.

Telephoning. — The use of the telephone was first introduced in the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) and has been included in all grammars, except Daringer's (1938), published since that time, with increasing emphasis given to the subject in the later books.

At first, the use of the phone was the topic stressed. Pupils were told how to put in a call, how to answer a call, how to give a grocery order over the phone, etc. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) gave particular attention to this phase of telephoning. While courtesy entered into correct telephone procedure, it was not given as much emphasis when the topic first entered texts as it received later. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) gave detailed information about making and receiving calls courteously. In the seventh grade book they called this topic "The Etiquette of the Telephone" (26e:241), and in the fifth grade book they included a two-page account of a telephone conversation, following it with the comment:

Notice the following points about Peggy's conversation:

1. She answered the telephone promptly, pleasantly, and politely.
2. She told who was speaking.
3. She offered to give her mother the message.
4. She wrote the message.
5. She repeated the number that Mrs. West gave her. She did this so that Mrs. West would know she had heard the number correctly.
6. She said good-by politely.
7. She wrote a note to her mother, explaining the message. (26c:49)

Listening. — Although four grammars published since 1923 have included material on the subject of listening, in almost every case it has been given very minor consideration. It is included here because it is a new kind of instruction found in texts and seems likely to become more and more important with the increased use of the radio in teaching as well as in daily-life experiences. While actual instruction in intelligent listening was not given, questions were sometimes included by which a pupil could check on his success in listening, such as "Can you repeat the thoughts which you hear others express? . . . Repeat the announcement from memory. Do your classmates agree that your report is accurate?" (24c:288). Sometimes the factor of courtesy in listening was stressed, as it was in the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923):

Are you always interested in what a speaker is saying to his audience? Are you always interested at the moving picture show? in the opening exercises of your room? Should you expect a speaker always to interest you? Why not? Sometimes it may be your own fault that you are not interested; perhaps you do not pay attention. You can, of course, make yourself pay attention by watching the one who speaks and trying to understand what he is saying.

Even if you are not interested, however, it is impolite and ill-mannered to be noisy in an audience. Out of consideration for others who wish to listen, you should sit quietly. By being quiet you are also aiding the speaker. (22b:25-26)

Making personal introductions. — In an attempt to give more socially useful activities through which pupils could get practice in using correct English, four of the recent grammars included the making of personal introductions. While the emphasis was not on grammar in these discussions, examples of the right form in making an introduction gave the pupil an illustration of the correct way in which to express himself on such an occasion. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) included rules to be followed:

- Remember {
- To introduce a younger to an older person.
 - To introduce a boy to a girl.
 - To introduce a man to a woman.

Practice to yourself so that you will learn to introduce people easily to each other. Try to remember always the three rules above. (24a:20)

Filling out forms. — No actual instruction in filling out blanks was given until the last book of the series, although discussion had been included in earlier books concerning punctuating of dates, capitalizing of names, and so forth.

Writing ads. — Except for writing letters and telling stories, writing ads was the first of the socially useful activities to be included in textbooks. Hyde (1888-1896) brought up the topic in connection with letter writing, but only six of the grammars included such material, and none gave it much space. Scott and Southworth (1906) also mentioned the topic, but the other four texts in which it was found were all published after 1923. In the more recent books the subject expanded from instruction in writing lost-and-found or help-wanted ads to include notices of meetings, posters and display cards, announcements of school activities, etc. (27c:165).

Miscellaneous Content

Almost every phase of grammar included in the texts has been discussed under one or another of the five major divisions. However, a few kinds of material were found which were given sufficient attention to be worthy of note in this analysis, yet did not logically fall in any of the classifications.

The more common abbreviations, especially those of the months of the year, the days of the week, and the states of the Union, and those of address, such as "Mr., Mrs., Dr.," etc., were included in all except three of the grammars. In the early texts these were given in lists, sometimes a page or more in length, which included almost every imaginable kind of abbreviation. In the more recent books, the emphasis was placed only on abbreviations used in daily life, especially those needed in writing letters.

Abbreviations were not mentioned on more than four pages in any grammar until after the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) was published, but in the last period they were found on about 30 pages each in several texts. The difference in seeming emphasis is accounted for by the fact that the teaching of the subject was concentrated in the early books, while recently it has been taken up whenever and wherever the need for it arose.

Reference was made to the dictionary in many of the older books and in all of those published since 1886, but until the beginning of the twentieth century little instruction was given as to its use. Interest in this topic has greatly increased, however, as shown by the fact that the last two texts analyzed mentioned the use of the dictionary on more than 100 pages each.

In the early texts, the student was referred to *Johnson's Dictionary* or *Worcester's Dictionary* as authorities in the discussion of a certain

point in grammar. After Smith (1832) stated in his text that "the nature and power of letters" and "how to spell correctly is usually learned from spelling-books and dictionaries" (6:41), pupils were told more and more often to consult the dictionary for further information on a certain point.

It was not until fairly recently, however, that students were given instruction in the correct use of the dictionary. The Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) was the first to give very detailed information on finding the pronunciation and meanings of a word, although a few texts before this time had included drill in looking up words and studying their meanings. The *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) stressed particularly the need for careful study of information in the dictionary, saying "Notice carefully how each of the words given below is spelled, and if you do not know its meaning, consult your dictionary. Use each word in a sentence to show that you understand its meaning and know how to use it correctly" (22c:385). Following this were given combinations of words similar in form but very different in meaning, for the pupils to look up, such as "complement, compliment; allusion, illusion; and track, tract" (22c:385).

Alphabetizing was taught in a few of the early grammars in connection with the learning of the alphabet, but was scarcely mentioned between 1835 and 1914. After that it again entered texts, this time being given more emphasis and usually being presented as a phase of dictionary study. It was included in all the books of the last period with the exception of the Lewis-Lynch text (1918) and Daringer's (1938).

A few other kinds of material were carried in more than one text but were not found in many. All kinds of lists of words or phrases, for example, were found throughout the years covered by the study. In the early days these were sometimes lists of idioms, such as that found in Murray's *English Grammar* (1795) (2:152-153); lists of English and Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and French prefixes, similar to Brown's (1823) (5:326-328); and lists of Latin and French words and phrases or of law terms, like those in Bullions' text (1834) (7:209-211, 213-216). While lists were not as commonly found in later grammars, a few were included in most of the texts, such as lists of irregular verbs or of over-worked adjectives.

Of the socially useful activities, a number have entered recent books. Some, like the use of the library, the use of an index, and proofreading as an aid in criticizing and correcting written material either for class work or for publication were mentioned once or twice in the nineteenth century texts but were not emphasized until recently. Others like instruction in how to write a telegram, how to study, how to read a newspaper intelligently, how to skim in reading, and how to take notes have entered textbooks within the last 10 or 20 years. The trend seems to point strongly toward the inclusion of more types of socially useful material in texts, as this was the only type of content added in the last few years.

Order of Presentation

In the early books, which were usually divided into four main parts, the order in which grammar instruction was taken up was almost invariably that of orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. Under each of these heads, and also under the subheads included within each division, the teaching content was opened with a definition or rule which was supposed to introduce the pupil to the topic and to give him a firm basis on which to build further instruction in the field.

With the introduction of the inductive method in teaching, about 1850, the placing of rules and definitions at the opening of a topic was discontinued, and by 1875 the four-division organization of texts had also been dropped. Whereas the study of the alphabet and of word development had for years been considered the logical point at which to introduce a pupil to the study of grammar, in the new organization these topics were scattered through the book, sometimes not being mentioned until toward the middle of the text and sometimes being omitted altogether. Punctuation, which in the older grammars was not usually presented until toward the end of the book, was taken up much earlier in the new texts, some phases of it being discussed in connection with the study of the sentence. Kerl (1864) approved these changes:

A great difficulty, in the study of grammar, lies in the long stretches between what is learned and its practical application or beauty; and another chief difficulty is the abstract nature of the subject. Syntax produces most of the so-called etymology of the parts of speech. Why, then, separate these two parts of grammar? And why place the result before the cause? Do not the parts of speech themselves, and most of their variations, depend directly on the RELATIONS of words in sentences? Punctuation is but the finish to syntax, and versification is but metrical syntax. (11:4)

Etymology continued, of course, to be an important phase of grammar study, but it, too, was scattered through the book instead of being taken up intensively, and it often was not mentioned until after the sentence had been given considerable study. At first the parts of speech were always introduced before the study of the sentence, but with the coming of the inductive method this, too, changed. The sentence then became the first topic of study and the parts of speech were taken up as parts of the sentence and were studied from the point of view of their use in the sentence.

Through the years there was rather unusual consistency in the order in which the parts of speech were discussed. All but five of the books presented nouns first. Four of these five, all before 1835, placed them second only to articles, and the other placed them second to verbs.

Articles were considered a separate part of speech by only one text after 1835. Dilworth (1740), while listing the article as a separate part of speech, claimed that it belonged to nouns, just as gender, case, and

so forth, belong to nouns. Later, however, authors considered it a kind of adjective and, although they discussed it separately, they did not grant it the rank of a separate part of speech.

All but four of the books published after 1845, and all but one of those published after 1886, took up pronouns following the discussion of nouns. In the early books adjectives and articles were introduced before pronouns, but in the later books the adjective followed the pronoun and often followed the verb also.

In 16 of the books, the study of the verb was taken up immediately following that of the pronoun, and in six others only one part of speech, usually the adjective, came between the pronoun and the verb. Murray's text (1795) varied from this plan more than did any other text, for he presented the verb second and the pronoun not until eighth among his ten parts of speech. Scott and Southworth (1906) took up the study of the verb later than did any of the others, and Lewis and Lynch (1918) were the only ones to place the verb first in their discussion of the parts of speech.

The study of the adverb usually followed that of the verb in the early books and that of the adjective in the later books. The preposition was taken up next and the conjunction came next. All but one book left the interjection until last.

With the exception of Daringer's *Grammar for Everyday Use* (1938), all of the analyzed texts published during the last 25 years took up the parts of speech in the same order — nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, and the only difference found in this one text was that adjectives were placed before verbs. It would seem, therefore, that the order of presenting the parts of speech has become fairly well standardized.

The declension of nouns and pronouns, on the other hand, has not been handled in quite as uniform a manner today as it was a century or more ago. In the case of nouns, the various kinds of nouns were considered first in all but five of the books, and four of these five have been published since 1914. In each of these four cases, number was introduced before kinds. This seems logical in light of the tendency to teach first those things most often used by the pupils. Although case was ordinarily taken up last in the declension of nouns, a few of the texts throughout the years left person until last. Within the last 40 years, kinds and number of nouns have been assured one of the first two places, but there was not a great deal of uniformity in the order in which the other phases of nouns were taken up.

Pronouns were declined in much the same order as were nouns in the early years covered by this study, but during the last century there was great irregularity in the way in which they were taken up. During the last 50 years, case was the only phase of pronouns that was not discussed first in their declension by at least one of the texts, and gender, kind, number, and person were placed in every position, as the grammarians seemed unable to agree on the relative importance of these phases.

In the conjugation of verbs, voice was considered first in almost all the texts published before 1875, but it dropped down at least to third

place in most of the more recent texts. Mood or number was taken up next in most of the older grammars, but, while number continued to be taken up second, mood dropped to last place and in the two most recently published texts was omitted entirely. Here again is evidence of the trend of the times, in that the phase of verb study given the least attention in recent books was the one for which the pupil had the least need.

Changing usage and changing teaching methods showed up particularly well in the order in which the 11 punctuation marks found in both old and new texts were introduced into textbooks.

In grammars published before 1853, the comma was invariably taken up first, the semicolon second, the colon third, and the period fourth. This was because of the length of the pause given to each in speech, the comma being the shortest pause and the period the longest. However, Kerl (1864) saw the advantage of discussing the period first, because it was the simplest to understand and the most often used; and since his time all but two of the texts analyzed have placed the period first.

The question mark, which had come fifth or sixth in the early texts, jumped up to second place in recent books, while the comma was taken up fourth or fifth. The semicolon and colon dropped to among the last discussed. The semicolon was the last one taken up in four of the six books published in the last 25 years and was omitted entirely from one of them, while the colon was introduced as late as the eighth in all but two of the books published in the twentieth century.

In the early texts, the dash, if included, usually came fifth, and was followed by the question mark, the exclamation mark, the parenthesis, the apostrophe, the hyphen, and the quotation mark. The question mark, as has been said, was presented much earlier in the more recent texts, as also was the exclamation mark. However, except for the period, the question mark, and the comma, which usually followed these two, there was little consistency in the arrangement of punctuation marks in modern texts, for they were usually introduced as the need arose in the content of the text.

In almost every phase of grammar teaching usage is coming to determine what is to be taught and when it is to be taught. A purely mechanical arrangement of subject matter was used in the early texts. Dilworth's explanation of the order in which he presented spelling words (1740) showed him to be in favor of this kind of organization:

If it be reasonable, in the Order of Words, to begin with those of one Syllable, as all Spelling Authors agree; it must be also granted as reasonable, that Monosyllables, which consist of various Quantities of Letters, should be taught in the same order, proceeding gradually from Words of two Letters, to Words of three, four, five, &c. Letters, as is exemplified in the following Tables. Besides, Experience, which must be allowed to be the best Master, will soon declare in Favour of this Method. (1:iv)

Recent texts, on the other hand, considered the use of the word rather than the length. A word that a young child used in his daily

conversation was the one which he was taught to recognize in print and to spell correctly. This same principle has been followed in presenting all phases of subject matter in the newer grammar texts.

Variety of Content

As can be seen from the discussion of the different divisions of content found in the textbooks analyzed, there has been a great increase in the kinds of material included in the texts.

During the first two periods studied, there was little change in the number of topics included in the grammars. Tradition held so strongly to the orthography-etymology-syntax-prosody organization of material that, even when an author thought it wise to include other content, he was inclined to place it in an appendix rather than to break away from the customary scheme of things. Since the subject matter of texts published before 1875 did not vary greatly, the principal difference in content of the texts was in the amount of detail included.

In the first period Brown (1823) broke his topics down into more subdivisions than did any other author. Time after time he listed more rules or exceptions to rules, more kinds of a certain part of speech, more punctuation marks, etc., than did any other author. Scarcely a topic was included in any of the grammars that he did not find a place for in his own text, even if it were only to criticize the inclusion of the material in other books. Dilworth's *New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740), on the other hand, included fewer different topics than did any of the other texts analyzed, except perhaps, Wisely's *New English Grammar* (1896).

Greene (1853) introduced the different kinds of sentences, phrases, and clauses that later became more or less standard. Before his time there had not been so many kinds included in texts.

Harvey's *English Grammar* (1868) was the last text published in the second period and the last to include the older divisions of grammar by the names used in texts up to this time. Harvey went into great detail in some phases of his text, including more kinds of clauses, more figures of speech, and more forms of the verb than did any other author.

Kerl (1864), whose text was published shortly before Harvey's, was much more progressive. Kerl was among the first to stress the sentence and to center his study of grammar in the development of the sentence. He also was one of the very few before 1875 to include charts, letter writing, outlining, and other "newer" kinds of content.

So far as the authors of the texts analyzed were concerned, Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were the first to add any of the "modern" topics to their grammars. They introduced composition writing, copying, memory work, and the use of pictures for instructional purposes — all of them new features in textbooks. They also included a much greater variety of exercises, adding, among other things, exercises in paragraph writing and the expansion and revision of sentences. On the other hand,

they were the first to drop the detailed study of such topics as versification, poetic feet, and diacritical marks.

Hyde (1888-1896) followed closely in their footsteps, stressing the newer kinds of content, adding a few, like children's compositions, and omitting still more of the older kinds, such as syllabication, phonetics, foreign language, and the use of many notes. Hyde listed fewer kinds, forms, and uses of each part of speech than did any other text.

The third period of this study, from 1875 to 1915, was evidently a transition period, for, while the Reed-Kellogg and Hyde series were in many ways similar to the modern texts, the grammars which appeared between these two, Whitney's (1877) and Tweed's (1886), and even Wisely's (1896), which was published still later, were more like the early grammars than like the recent ones. These latter three texts were not as old-fashioned as this statement might make them seem, however, because, although they did not take up with the new ideas, they omitted many of the things that were being dropped by the more progressive texts of the day.

The scope of English textbooks broadened greatly with the beginning of the twentieth century. The interest element in texts was being given much more thought than it had formerly been given, for it behooved authors and publishers to put out an attractive text if it was to be popular. Pictures were included in all books and other interesting material was added in some. All kinds of composition work, both written and oral, were added, and much of the work was based on the child's daily-life experiences rather than on some deep, philosophical, or moral subject.

The greatest change in content found at any time during the 150-year period began about the time of the publication of the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) which introduced several socially useful activities, like telephoning, making personal introductions, and reading for pleasure. The text which followed soon after that, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), added still more of this type of material, including writing for school publications and newspapers, holding club meetings, and planning programs. The kinds of content introduced into grammar texts by these two series were found in almost every text published after that time, and a few other topics have been added. The trend seems to be toward increasing the teaching of the grammar used in daily life and omitting any content for which the average student will probably have little or no use.

Chapter VI

Method

IN THE teaching of grammar during the 150 years covered by this study, there have been two important schools of thought, the philosophic, which was predominant during the eighteenth century and continued to be accepted by most authors of grammar texts until the middle of the nineteenth century, and the modern scientific, or psychological, which has been popular ever since that time. Those with a philosophic point of view almost invariably used the deductive method of presenting the subject, while those with more scientific ideas of teaching have used one form or another of the inductive method. The type of subject matter stressed has changed completely during the years, as has also the dependence on the teacher in assisting the student in his interpretation of the text.

Role of the Teacher

As has been said, in the early days students were often unable to obtain the aid of a teacher, and therefore authors attempted to write texts that could be followed by the student without such assistance. Since a thorough knowledge of grammar, its general development, and its finer points, was considered necessary, authors included, either in footnotes or in smaller type in the text itself, explanations of rare or unusual grammatical constructions. Many authors, like Brown (1823), also gave rather detailed ~~of controversies~~ concerning grammatical constructions, giving their authority for the different decisions in the matter.

The word *self* was originally an *adjective*; but when used alone, it is now generally a *noun*. This may have occasioned the diversity in the formation of the compound personal pronouns. Dr. Johnson calls *self* a *pronoun*; but he explains it as being both *adjective* and *substantive*. (5:64)

These discussions lengthened the book considerably without adding much usable information. As a consequence, repetitious material, extensive exercises, and content which might seem to have no purpose other than that of adding interest were omitted. The texts of the day were very meaty, but distinctly dull.

Grammar, as a study, has always been considered important and, ever since public schools were first established, it has been one of the core subjects in the curriculum. In the days when children were not required to attend school, only those who were interested had to cope with the problem of comprehending the grammar presented in textbooks. Not until compulsory school attendance laws were more generally enforced were authors faced with the problem of making grammar interesting to the student. Since the same problem arose in all subjects taught

in the public schools, educators began studying the laws of learning and applying them in the presentation of textbook material. As a result of this research in psychology, grammars showed considerable improvement both from the point of view of the interest element and from that of teachability.

As these changes in textbooks took place, the teacher's responsibility also changed. At first, her work consisted almost entirely in hearing the pupils repeat the material in the book. Since she did not receive special training, she was not always equipped to teach the subject, and had to keep a lesson or two ahead of the pupils, learning the work herself before hearing them recite the same material. Authors offered encouragement to tutors and teachers; for example, Kirkham (1823) said:

To those enterprising and intelligent gentlemen who may be disposed to lecture on this plan, the author takes the liberty to offer a few hints by way of encouragement.

Any judicious instructor of grammar, if he take the trouble to make himself familiar with the contents of the following pages, will find it an easy matter to pursue this system. . . . (4:12)

On the whole, those who undertook to teach a subject had a special interest in that subject, and therefore did not have great difficulty in preparing themselves for their teaching duties.

The demand for teachers grew tremendously with the coming of compulsory school attendance laws, and with it came the need for training teachers in their particular fields. At first, training was given in subject matter alone. Teachers were assisted by means of notes inserted in the texts explaining how the topic could be taught. Pinneo (1850), for example, in a footnote in his grammar, stated:

The Teacher is referred to pages 143, 147, 154, for examples of Special Questions, which will be found *very* interesting and useful. With those as a model, he can easily examine his classes on all the parsing lessons, as *often* and as *extensively* as he may think best. (9:157)

Kerl (1864) suggested that:

If the pupils have been well drilled according to the general tenor of all the foregoing exercises, they have probably acquired a tolerable knowledge of the larger parts of language, with their joints and mobility, and are now prepared for a more minute analysis. (11:15)

A little later Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) referred the teacher to material entirely outside the textbook.

Condensed statements of facts, taken from some book not in the hands of your pupils, may be read to them, and they may be

required to expand and combine these and group them into paragraphs. (13a:168)

By the 1920's the work of the teacher had become of very real import in the teaching of grammar as well as of all other public school subjects. She no longer merely drilled the pupils on the content of the textbook or provided additional similar material for study, but she also was expected to add interest to the subject by allowing the pupils more freedom and by directing them into newer outlets for their recently acquired knowledge. In the teaching of oral composition, for example, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) advised the teacher to "encourage first a free, spontaneous expression of ideas; and then, as the discussion proceeds, help the pupils to organize their ideas in such a way that they can sum them up in informal talks" (23b:iv).

By the time the last of the texts analyzed was published, the teacher had become the guiding spirit in the schoolroom. The authors of *Adventures in English* (1939-1944) stated, in the preface to their text, that they hoped "this practical, realistic program will conserve the teacher's time and energy for the inspirational guidance which is the real strength of every true teacher" (27a:iii). This attitude toward the teacher has become rather widespread and authors did what they could to help her develop the characters of her charges and guide them toward good citizenship in every sense of the word.

Deductive Method

Of the grammars analyzed in this study, all but one of those published before 1850 used the deductive method of organizing and presenting material. In these, the arrangement of subject matter was almost invariably the same. Most of the books began with an over-all definition:

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody; which treat of letters, syllables, words, and sentences. (3:A'2)

Not only were almost all texts divided into the four parts mentioned in this definition, but the parts were always included in the text in the same order. These were broken down into minor divisions, dealing with declensions, conjugations, parsing, analysis, and so forth.

Each new topic was introduced with rules and definitions. Examples illustrating these were given next, followed by exercises, but the examples and exercises were always based on the rules and definitions under which they fell. If, by chance, they were separated from the rule governing them, the student was aided by a note similar to "For the syntax of the Interjection, see Rule v. Note 11, page 152, and Note 9 of Rule xxi" (2:214).

The mechanics of grammar was always emphasized rather than language usage. The pupil's knowledge of the subject depended almost entirely on his ability to memorize rules and definitions and to apply them in the places where he was told they were applicable. Very insignificant and seldom-used constructions were handled in exactly the same way as the more important points, and no detail was omitted. Parsing and analysis were stressed, but no material was given in the texts which would help directly in developing the pupil's ability to use the English language. Seemingly, the language to be used in everyday life was supposed to grow naturally out of a knowledge of the details of grammatical construction.

Inductive Method

The first person to attempt to write a grammar presenting the subject inductively was Smith (1832), who borrowed the idea from the schools of Germany and Switzerland, where the Pestalozzian influence had been felt for some time. This method of approach had been introduced into arithmetic textbooks more than ten years earlier, but the subject of grammar did not lend itself so readily to reorganization. Even after Smith published his *English Grammar on the Productive System*, it was about 20 years before other authors accepted the plan. Smith summarized his method thus:

Such is the Productive System, by which the powers of the pupil are called into complete exercise by requiring him to attempt a task unaided, and then assisting him in correcting his own errors, or returning from his own wanderings, before he is discouraged by the waste of time and the fruitlessness of his efforts. They distinguish carefully between knowledge and the means of obtaining it. (6:6)

By about 1850 there was considerable discussion among grammarians as to the best method of presenting the subject in textbooks and in actual teaching. Greene (1853) summarized the two points of view in the preface to his text:

Shall the forms of language be regarded as direct results from thought, as the offspring of an inner impulse? or shall they be looked upon as possessing in themselves, regardless of their origin, all that is necessary to guide to a successful investigation? The one may be called the *interior*, the other the *exterior*, point of view. From the one point, language is regarded as organized under the influence of a *vital, life-imparting power*, determining all its outward forms and manifestations; while from the other it becomes a lifeless frame, to be dissected and examined, for the purpose of ascertaining what it is, and of what it is composed. . . . (10:iii)

He went on to say that he had "aimed in the following pages, as far as possible, to take the interior point of view" (10:iv). He then gave a detailed account of the organization of material in an oral exercise:

An *oral exercise*, in which it is supposed that the learner is about to enter upon a new field of inquiry, is first given. . . . The way is thus prepared for the *definitions* which immediately follow. . . . Copious and varied *exercises* immediately follow the definitions and remarks. These are intended (1.) to test his ability to *apply* the definitions; (2.) his ability to *produce* illustrative examples; (3.) his ability to *alter* and *adapt* given examples, in all their varieties and modifications, to the words with which they are connected; and (4.) his ability to *correct* erroneous expressions. (10:vi-vii)

Greene (1853) was one of the first to follow Smith's lead, but he evidently could not pull very far away from tradition, for he still stressed rules and definitions. However, his text proved popular, and from that time on almost every grammar took up the subject from an inductive point of view.

Since the inductive method took advantage of one of the soundest principles of learning, that of building from the known to the unknown, it has held its popularity for more than a century. During that time, various theories and methods of organizing and arranging the content of the text have been tried out, some of the methods being quite generally accepted for a time. As the purpose of teaching grammar gradually changed from that of memorizing rules and definitions and studying the minor technicalities of the subject to that of teaching the correct English to use in everyday situations, the content itself changed in textbooks. Through all these changes, however, the inductive method has continued to be used in one form or another. Among the more commonly used forms of this method were the following.

Object method. — It is only natural that some of the major theories held by educators at various times should be evident in grammars as well as in textbooks in other subject fields. One of the first theories to appear after the inductive method was introduced was what was known as the object method, a method which proved popular because it gave the child something concrete and within his acquaintance on which to build his new knowledge. Here was an attempt on the part of textbook writers to help the child learn his grammar by showing him its relationship to the world he knew rather than by confronting him with unfamiliar terms and abstractions. This method was a direct outgrowth of the Pestalozzian theory and, while very popular among educators in other fields, was a little difficult to apply to the subject of grammar. Greene (1853) used it very effectively in his introductory course for beginners.

LESSON I.

OBJECTS.

The world in which we live is full of objects, as *trees, shrubs, flowers, grass, rocks, stones, metals, houses, barns, valleys, rivers, brooks, springs, oceans, seas, lakes, ponds, oxen, horses, sheep, birds, insects, reptiles, mountains, hills, pools*; in all, a multitude so great that one could not count them in a lifetime.

Lessons on objects may be conducted after the following

MODEL.*

Teacher . (Pointing to the object.) What is this?

Pupils . . (In concert or separately.) The platform.

Teacher . Now, write upon your slates near the top, Names of Objects. (The teacher does the same on the blackboard.) Under this, write *Platform*, commencing it with a capital letter, and placing a period (.) after it. Now, which is the object?

Pupils . . (All point to the platform.)

Teacher . Which is the *name* of the object?

Pupils . . All point to the blackboard or their slates, (thus showing that they know the distinction.)

Teacher . (Pointing to the first object at the end of the platform, so as to proceed in *order*.) What is this?

Pupils . . Bookcase.

Teacher . Write the word bookcase under *Platform*, placing the first letter directly under the first letter of that word. Now since *platform* and *bookcase* are *names of objects*, what shall we call these words?

Pupils . . (All hesitate.)

Teacher . May we not call them *object-words*?

Pupils . . (All give assent.)

The lesson, when carried to six objects — quite enough for the first, — will stand thus:

NAMES OF OBJECTS.

Platform.
Bookcase.
Chair.
Sette.
Desk.
Table.

(10:xiii-xiv)

In a footnote on this material, Greene (1853) gave explicit instructions to the teacher in the technique of presenting the lesson. Sixteen numbered directions were listed, beginning with "Let the class be so arranged that each member can see the object pointed out" (10:xiii). In number 14 he said, "The term *object-word* may gradually be displaced by the word *noun*," and he followed this with "15. At first, let the attention be drawn more forcibly to the *object* than to the name; but at length let the name, as an *object-word* a NOUN become the more prominent" (10:xiii). Thus the transfer was made from the concrete object to the abstract word symbol of that object.

The object method apparently did not prove very satisfactory in the teaching of grammar, for it was not used extensively. This may have been due to the fact that, as the study of technical grammar grew into a study of English usage, and the putting together of words in correct form became the goal of teaching rather than the naming of objects, thoughts, and situations replaced objects as a background for instructional procedure.

Real method. — When the inductive method was first introduced into grammar texts, authors felt greater freedom of style in presenting new material, but they still clung to the major classifications of orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were among the first to break away from the traditional organization and to begin their book with the sentence instead of with the letters of the alphabet and the forming of words, for, as they said, "the sentence is the unit of discourse, because words can be classified only from their function in the sentence, and because the pupils should, from the outset, see that what determines the words in the sentence and the sentence itself is the thought" (13b:4). This deviation from what had for years been looked upon as the proper way to present grammar was really the introduction to what was known in other fields as the topical method, a method in which the subject was taken up by topics rather than by major classifications. For many years the sentence was the first topic introduced, and even today it is presented within the first 15 or 20 pages of a text.

When the topical method was in vogue, an attempt was made in textbooks to complete the discussion of one topic before going on to the next. The table of contents in the Scott-Southworth series (1906) shows clearly how a book was organized by topics. The advanced volume in this series was divided into four parts — sentence structure, parts of speech, lessons in composition, and narratives. Each part was divided into chapters and each chapter into divisions that were still further broken down until every detail of organization was included. For example, in the chapter dealing with nouns, the main divisions concerned the kinds, inflection, uses, parsing, and summary. Under the heading "Kinds" were three subheads, "Common and Proper" (18b:78), "Collective Nouns" (18b:80) and "Concrete and Abstract Nouns" (18b:81). All topics were handled in much the same way.

Spiral method. — One of the serious difficulties encountered in teaching by the topical method was that pupils were necessarily introduced to very complicated phases of a topic before taking up the elementary facts concerning the next topic. In an attempt to overcome this difficulty, texts were broken down into lesson-length divisions. With this break-down came the idea of presenting the elementary phases of all topics before going on to the more involved points. This led to what became known as the spiral method, in which topics were taken up again and again as the pupil progressed through the text, and each repeti-

tion brought with it additional and more difficult information on the subject. Thus the child was no longer confronted with new material far beyond his comprehension. The method also had the advantage of giving the pupil the benefit of frequent reviews of material already studied, and it proved so satisfactory from a teaching standpoint that it is still used in one form or another in every grammar text published.

Functional method. — Within the last 25 years another theory of teaching has grown decidedly popular. This is the idea of presenting grammar in daily-life situations, so that the child may have a carry-over from the grammar he is taught to the English he uses in his everyday contacts. Several authors, even as early as 1875, saw the advantage of this plan, but it was not adopted universally, nor did those who attempted to introduce it use it consistently through a text, until comparatively recently. The fact that there had always been an abstractness and formality about the teaching of grammar probably made it difficult at first for authors to adjust the subject matter to this modern point of view, but the method has been wholeheartedly accepted since it has proved its value in making the teaching of grammar more practical and more usable.

Although in other subject fields this method of presenting subject matter is usually called the activity method, in this study it will be referred to as the functional method because it grew originally out of a study of the function of each word or phrase in the sentence.

In the early days the child was taught his parts of speech before being shown how they could be put together to form correct sentences. Under such conditions, grammar was purely mechanical. However, since the part of speech of each word is dependent upon its use within the sentence, authors began teaching the sentence first, then showing the function of each word within the sentence. By the latter part of the nineteenth century this idea had led to the study of "the use of language as the expression of thought" (16a:iii).

Lewis and Lynch (1918) were among those who stressed function in the teaching of grammar:

Very many of your difficulties with grammar will disappear if you will remember that the classification of a word, phrase, or clause depends on the work which it does in the sentence. This idea has been emphasized again and again in this book. The part of speech of a word, phrase, or clause is determined by the work done or function served by that word, phrase, or clause in the sentence. (21:191)

About 20 years later, the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English recommended that grammar be taught always in its relationship to the sentence, since scientific studies had failed to show that an abstract knowledge of grammatical principles was of value in actual English usage.

The idea of making grammar more functional expanded from that of using the sentence as the basis for study to that of putting sentences together properly. Because of the function of grammar in all the writ-

ten or spoken relationships among men, the study of the subject spread out to include composition writing, public speaking, telephoning, holding club meetings, and so forth. In all such activities correct usage and correct grammatical construction is necessary in making one's meaning clear and in expressing oneself in an interesting and effective manner.

At first the activities in which the pupils were to use their grammar instruction were artificially set up for them. The pupil might for example, be told to "write such a letter as you might send to a friend who had asked you to go fishing with him next Saturday" (18a:134), or "write a story suggested by this picture" (16a:21). The teacher then corrected the child's work and returned it to him, assuming that, when next he wrote a letter or composition, he would not repeat the errors which had been called to his attention. It was found, however, that there was a wide difference between an artificial set-up and the real activity, and authors began attempting to use a more natural outlet for the functioning of the grammar they presented in their texts. Actual situations were set up and, instead of waiting until the child had made the error and then correcting him, he was warned in the beginning to avoid certain types of errors commonly made in that kind of a situation. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) used this method.

Practice making the announcement for your program. Be sure to:

1. Tell where the program will be given.
2. Tell when the program will be given.
3. Tell what the program will be about.
4. Speak clearly and loudly enough so that all will understand.
5. Do not interrupt your announcement with such expressions as "and-a," "well-a," "er," and the like. (26c:278)

When activities were first called upon rather universally as a background for the teaching of grammar, there was a tendency to break away almost entirely from the study of the more technical phases of the subject, and especially from the emphasizing of form at the expense of substance. Authors attempted to give the subject the vital quality which belonged to it naturally but which had been crushed out by formal detail and mechanical presentation. More recently it has been recognized that a certain understanding of language structure is necessary to correct usage, and texts have again begun to include more instruction of this kind. The authors of the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) explain their stand on the subject in the preface to their fifth grade text:

Correct techniques — word study, punctuation, capitalization, sentence structure, paragraphing, spelling — are cultivated by practical methods. Thus a wealth of informal and always functional grammar is woven into interesting speech and writing activities to promote respect for good usage. These activities include practice in outlining, record-keeping, making and completing forms, writing notices and announcements, and composing simple advertisements. (27c:iii)

Through practice with material of this kind, pupils were led to see that grammar is a means to an end rather than an end in itself. In order that the activities in which the pupil most often took part might be used as a basis for grammar training, authors of texts made a study to determine the situations in which an individual is most often called upon to use his knowledge of language. Activities found to be common among both children and adults were: holding conversations, writing letters, telling stories, giving instructions or making explanations, participating in group discussions, etc. These have therefore been used in most of the more recent texts for the purpose of showing the pupil the need for and value of correct usage in everyday life. This accounts in part for the seeming tremendous expansion of subject matter in the study of grammar. The actual grammar teaching has not expanded; in fact it has been decreased considerably, because much of the intricate detail has been omitted, but the application of grammar to daily-life situations, the functional use of grammar, is being made more and more prominent in textbooks.

Techniques and Devices Common to All Texts

From the time the earliest of the grammars was published, there was an effort on the part of authors to make their texts as usable as possible. This desire at first manifested itself in an attempt to prepare a "complete" grammar, one which would meet any need encountered in the field. Such texts were little more than good reference books. They were not very useful to the immature and uneducated student, nor did they have any particular attraction for him unless he was in search of the information they contained. Authors realized that such texts lacked appeal and practicality in so far as meeting the needs of the elementary school pupil was concerned, and they therefore worked steadily toward improving their grammars in this respect.

Although many and varied changes took place through the years, there were a few that were found in one form or another in almost every text. In general, these could be grouped under four main classifications: (1) the simplification of material, including the simplification of content, of sentence structure, and of vocabulary; (2) the standardization of grammatical terms, the breaking away from the old Latin and Greek terminology and forms and the acceptance of certain terms used rather generally today; (3) the use of quotations in teaching various phases of content, and the sources of those quotations; and (4) motivation, including various means of attracting the child's attention and of making him want to study grammar.

Simplification of material. — Apparently no attempt was made in the early texts to present grammar in a form intelligible to the child. Since the only persons studying the subject were those who wanted to study it, the idea of authors seemed to be to give their readers as much technical information as possible. The vocabulary used, as well

as the content of the grammars, was entirely beyond the comprehension of the child.

However, the need for simplification was felt even as early as 1740, when Dilworth wrote his *New Guide to the English Tongue*.

In the several Praxes or Lessons of Monosyllables hitherto published in our Mother Tongue, instead of rising Step by Step, children are taught to jump before they can go; and if they prove incapable to take such long Strides, as reach sometimes from Monosyllables of two, to others of seven or eight Letters, before they are informed of those that come between, they must be thumped and lugged forward, without being once instructed in the right Knowledge of the most common and useful Parts of our Tongue. Certainly this is as barbarous in Literature, as it would be cruel in Behaviour, to bid a Child take care how it comes up Stairs, and then to beat it because it cannot stride up seven or eight Steps at once. (1:iv)

Dilworth tried to carry out his idea by beginning with words of one letter or one syllable and working up gradually to the longer ones, but he considered the words solely from the point of view of size, not taking into consideration the fact that a comparatively short word might be one rarely used and therefore unfamiliar to the pupil.

Kirkham (1823) expounded at length on the type of material included in grammars, closing with the remark that "it is, therefore, absurd to instruct children as if they were already profound philosophers and logicians" (4:35).

Apparently, Kirkham was serious in his criticism and in his efforts to overcome the difficulties in grammars, for the *Western Review*, in commenting on his text, said:

In his illustrations of the various subjects contained in his work, our author appears to have aimed, not at a flowery style, nor at the appearance of being learned, but at being understood. The clearness and perspicuity of his remarks, and their application to familiar objects, are well calculated to arrest the attention, and aid the understanding, of the pupil, and thereby to lessen the labour of the instructor. The principles of the science are simplified and, rendered so perfectly easy of comprehension, we should think no ordinary mind, having such help, could find them difficult. (4:3)

One of the first moves toward simplification was that of omitting the more complicated constructions and rare uses of words, but this was a difficult matter, for such material had become a traditional part of a grammar textbook. Kirkham (1823), for example, had filled nearly a page with "Remarks on It" (4:104) in which he had tried to give the background for and an explanation of every possible use of the word "it." Other authors gave equally detailed information in other fields.

Note 4. When the number or quantity of any thing is intended to be expressed in a positive manner, the article *a* or *an*

should be used; but when a negative meaning is intended, the article should be omitted: Thus, if I say "She spoke with *a* little reserve," my meaning is positive; but if I say, "She spoke with little reserve," my meaning is negative. "Few were pleased," and "A few were pleased," convey very different ideas. (3:93-94)

Strictly speaking, present time is merely the point at which the past and the future meet; and if we take the smallest imaginable point of time for the present, this portion will contain some of the past and some of the future. Thus, if we assume this *hour* as the present time, a part of the hour is past and a part to come; so if we take this minute or second. But we may take any portion of time — a day, a year, or a century — and consider the whole of it as constituting present time, and the rest of time as past or future. (8:68)

The Imperative Mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting: as, "Depart thou; mind ye; let us stay; go in peace."

Though this mood derives its name from its intimation of command, it is used on occasions of a very opposite nature, even in the humblest supplications of an inferior being to one who is infinitely his superior: as, "Give us this day our daily bread; and forgive us our trespasses." (2:74)

The English language has about 380 adjectives, ending with *ous*; 640, with *able*; 600, with *ed*; 380, with *ive*; 380, with *ic* or *ical*; 360, with *y*; 325, with *ent* or *ant*; 250, with *al*; 200, with *ic*; 200, with *less*; 130, with *ful*; 140, with *ible*; 135, with *ly*; 70, with *ish*; and 30, with *some*. (11:126)

By the middle of the century, however, authors were becoming fairly well agreed that such material did not belong in textbooks written for children, but it was many years before they were able to omit this type of content without feeling that they should explain why they had done so. Pinneo (1850) claimed that "no space is wasted with the discussion of curious or unimportant points, which, however interesting to the critical student, can not but encumber an elementary work" (9:5); Harvey (1868) stated that one of his aims had been "to make a *practical textbook* — a useful manual for the learner, not a reference book for the learned" (12:iii); Whitney (1877) expressed the opinion that "certainly, an elementary work is no place for dragging forward to attention matters of disputed usage" (14:v); and Wisely (1896) pointed out that "all phases of historical grammar have been purposely omitted, because that view is not necessary in the organization of the subject, and it is thought that the child, at his age, has not a sufficient basis for such a discussion of the facts of grammar" (17:3).

No information of this type was included in the modern textbooks except, perhaps, now and then as an interesting item that pupils might enjoy rather than as a fact to be learned. Content in the recent books was kept within the understanding and experience of the child and included only those phases of the subject which he would need in daily-life situations (see Figure 11).

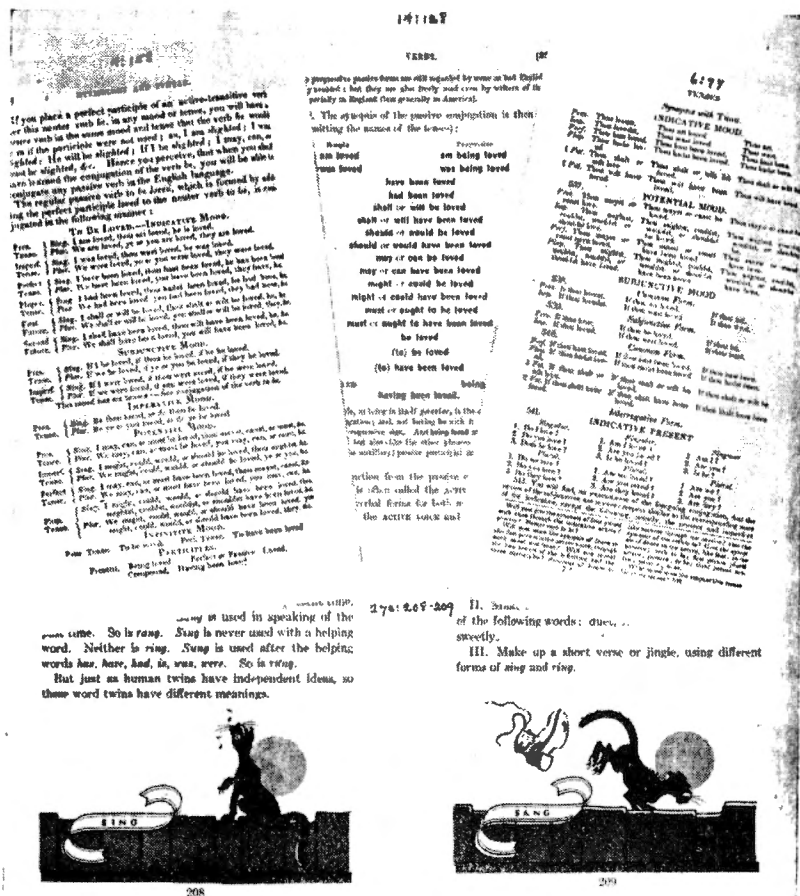


Fig. 11. Old and new methods of teaching verb forms.

But content was not the only problem in simplification, for the way in which statements were expressed was also important from this point of view. Sentence structure used in directions to the pupil was sometimes very involved in the early texts, and the vocabulary used was far from understandable to one not acquainted with technical grammar.

The Comparative somewhat increaseth or diminisheth its Positive in Signification; as, longer, or more long; shorter, or more short; wiser, or more wise. (1:96)

[A parenthesis] serves to include one Sentence in another, without confounding the Sense of either; and yet it is necessary for the Explanation thereof: And should be read with a lower Tone of the Voice, as a Thing that comes in by the Bye. (1:88)

Why are not the different praxes of etymological parsing severally reckoned among these methods? (5:227)

Until recently, little was said in the texts concerning simplification of vocabulary. However, there was a great deal of difference in the wording used in early grammars and in those in the latter half of the nineteenth century, when such statements were found as:

You have already learned that a noun or pronoun and a verb sometimes make a complete sentence; but we are about to show you that they are often used as the foundation only of a sentence, which is completed by adding other parts. (13a:39)

Here the statement is direct and the vocabulary comparatively simple. Although an improvement in this respect had been noticeable before any attempt at grade leveling in grammars, it became much more evident after that time. However, no effort was mentioned in the texts concerning the use of a scientifically determined grade-level vocabulary until within the last 20 or 25 years.

Not only was unnecessary grammatical information omitted and vocabulary simplified, in textbooks but in the recent texts new phases of the subject were introduced as simply as possible. They were usually taken up casually, and in a way to attract the pupil's interest before actual instruction was given. For instance, the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) gave a very simple explanation of the need for care in the use of pronouns:

To make your meaning clear, keep in mind one important idea with reference to pronouns: the name for which the pronoun stands must be quite clear to listeners or readers. If you say, "John's father took *his* roller skates to be mended," someone may picture the father playing with roller skates. Of course you mean that the skates were John's. It would be better to say, "Mr. Baker took John's roller skates to be mended."

Change the following sentences so that the name for which the pronoun stands is made quite clear:

Marjorie and Jean took her aunt to the station.

Herbert cannot draw so well as James. He has real talent. (24c:89)

An interesting example of the introduction of more elementary material was found in the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944):

One of the easiest sounds to make is the tiny word *I*, which is as small as a word could be. We use it perhaps more than any other, and yet we sometimes have trouble with it. (27a:72)

In the most recent of the texts analyzed, the attempt of authors to make the subject easy for the pupils was more pronounced than in any of the others. After calling attention to some of the more common pronouns, they said:

These words are very important in spite of their size.

They stand for persons and things, and they are called *pronouns*. You don't need to remember the name unless you want to, but you do need to remember how such words should be used. (27c:239)

This simplicity in teaching in the modern texts has been an important factor in making the study of grammar less burdensome and more effective in recent years.

Standardization of grammatical terms. — As has been mentioned, early English grammars were written according to the pattern set for them by the old Latin and Greek grammars, although at times the principles of construction and terminology used in these older languages could not be applied to English without considerable effort and consequent awkwardness. Murray (1795), realizing this disadvantage, stated:

The English tongue is, in many respects materially different from the learned languages. It is, therefore, very possible to be mistaken ourselves, and to mislead and perplex others, by an undistinguishing attachment to the principles and arrangement of the Greek and Latin grammarians. Much of the confusion and perplexity, which we meet with in the writings of some English grammarians, on the subject of verbs, moods and conjugations, has arisen from the misapplication of names. We are apt to think, that the old names must always be attached to the identical forms and things to which they were anciently attached. But if we rectify this mistake, and properly adjust the names to the peculiar forms and nature of the things in our own language, we shall be clear and consistent in our ideas; and consequently, better able to represent them intelligibly to those whom we wish to inform. (2:109)

However, in spite of the fact that Murray claimed to adhere "to the natural simplicity of the English language, without embarrassing the learner with distinctions peculiar to the Latin tongue" (2:86), he included in his instruction concerning the case of nouns, the following explanation:

The English language, to express different connexions and relations of one thing to another, uses, for the most part, prepositions

	Singular.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	Dominus,	A Lord.
<i>Genitive.</i>	Domini,	Lord's, of a Lord.
<i>Dative.</i>	Domino,	To a Lord.
<i>Accusative.</i>	Dominum,	A Lord.
<i>Vocative.</i>	Domine,	O Lord.
<i>Ablative.</i>	Domino,	By a Lord.

	Plural.	
<i>Nominative.</i>	Domini,	Lords.
<i>Genitive.</i>	Dominorum,	Lords', of Lords.
<i>Dative.</i>	Dominis,	To Lords.
<i>Accusative.</i>	Dominos,	Lords.
<i>Vocative.</i>	Domini,	O Lords.
<i>Ablative.</i>	Dominis,	By Lords.

(2:54)

The unnaturalness of the English noun when forced to fit into the outline of Latin case formations is shown only too clearly in this example. Confusion in the mind of the student was the inevitable result of such methods of teaching. Authors recognized this and tried to overcome it for years. Even as recently as 1877 they were making such statements in their texts as:

I have wished to give the main facts of the English language just as they are in themselves, not importing into them anything that belongs to other languages. (14:v)

The adjusting of Latin terms to English grammatical constructions was also a problem for grammarians. Pinneo, as late as 1850, stated that "particular preference has been given to English words as technical terms, whenever practicable" (9:5).

However, suggestions were still found concerning the use of terms taken from the Latin:

It would be well to call the modifiers of nouns and pronouns *adnouns*; and the modifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, *adjuncts*. The attachments to the verb can not well be always called modifiers; and the modifiers of substantives generally go with nouns, pronouns seldom requiring modifiers. (11:104)

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), a little later, claimed that the only changes in classification or nomenclature in their text were those which seemed to be to the advantage of the pupil. Approximately ten years after this Tweed (1886) stated that he had tried to "exclude all technical names not founded on grammatical distinctions" (15:iv), but the first concerted effort toward simplifying and standardizing grammatical terminology was made by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature, a committee of the National Education Association, in 1917. Although the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) adopted the terms recommended by this committee, the Robbins-Row series (1907), which came out a little earlier, was not so sure some of the changes should be made. Their comment was that:

School people generally admit the desirability of uniformity in grammatical nomenclature, but much doubt still prevails regarding the acceptability of some of the terms recommended by the committee of the National Education Association. If the new terms recommended by the committee find only partial acceptance they will merely tend to increase the diversity.

We have used the nomenclature recommended wherever it seemed acceptable in an elementary school text. For the convenience of those who wish to follow the committee further, we give below our terminology opposite that recommended by the committee, wherever they differ. (19b:377)

This comment was followed by lists of terms recommended and terms used in their text. In some cases there was complete agreement; in others, rather wide differences. In general, the Robbins-Row terminology (1907) was simpler than that of the committee. This text used, for example, the term "noun clause" and "noun phrase," while the N.E.A. Committee recommended "substantive"; they listed four kinds of sentences, declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory, terms that are still in use today, while the committee called sentences affirmative or negative, declarative or interrogative, and exclamatory or non-exclamatory; they included five classes of pronouns, personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite, while the committee gave all these, adding possessive, reflexive, reciprocal, intensive, and identifying; and, in respect to cases, they used the English terminology while the Committee went back to the old Latin terms of accusative, dative, and genitive (19b:377-378). In light of the evidence found in grammars published since that time, it would seem that, while many of the recommendations of the Joint Committee were accepted and their efforts therefore led to a greater standardization in textbooks, their suggestions were not followed *in toto*.

An analysis of terminology showed much greater uniformity in the later texts, but some of this standardization took place before the Joint Committee made its recommendations. One of the places in which changes in wording showed up rather clearly was in the naming of the tenses. Except for Tweed's text, which held rather closely to the old terms, there has been almost no variance in the tense names used for nearly a century. The present tense has always been known by that name. The future tenses (future and future perfect) were originally referred to as the first and second future, a carry-over from Greek, in the grammars published before 1832 and in Pinneo's text (1850). Dilworth (1740) used another name and a very impressive one, for the future — the "to-come" tense (1:99). He also used old Latin terms for the three past tenses, calling them the preterperfect, the preterimperfect, and the preterpluperfect tenses. Murray (1795) suggested that first, second, and third preterit could well be used in referring to these tenses, and Pinneo (1850) modernized this idea a little, calling them the first, second, and third past. However, Murray's was only a suggestion. He and all the other authors up to 1845 used the terms imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect. Since 1850 all of the texts, with the exception of Whitney's (1877) have used past, present perfect, and past perfect in referring to the three past tenses.

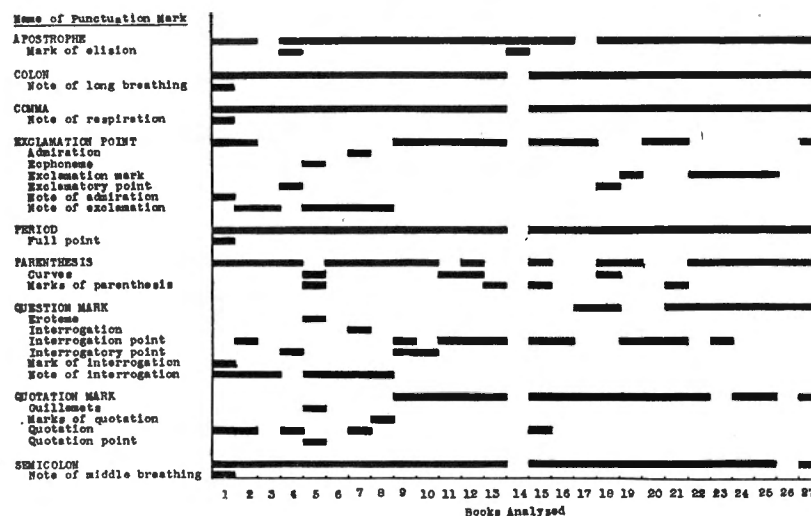


Fig. 12. Names used by the different books for the various punctuation marks.

In the matter of punctuation, too, there have been many differences in terminology, but in this case there was very little standardization until within the last 20 years. The many terms used by various authors for some of the more commonly used punctuation marks are given in Figure 12. In this figure, the term used in the most recently published text analyzed is the one given first. Dilworth (1740) gave two names for many of the marks. Surprisingly, one of these two has usually been the most universally accepted term since that time. Brown (1823) also used many different terms, but this tendency has grown less with the years. The terms "apostrophe," "colon," "comma," "period," and "semicolon" have been used ever since the beginning of this study and have had no competition for more than a century. "Quotation mark" has also become standard terminology, but it was not accepted until about 1850. The exclamation point, parenthesis, and question mark are still called by different names by different authors, but there is a definite tendency for even these to become standardized. The description of the comma, semicolon, colon, and period according to the length of the pause shows up in the names given to them by Dilworth. In order, they were called the note of respiration, the note of middle breathing, the note of long breathing, and the full stop.

In general, there was not as large a number of variations in terminology in fields other than those already mentioned. The collective noun, for example, was called the "noun of multitude" (4:32) in a number of the early texts; the various forms of the noun or pronoun, when declined were called its "accidents" (7:204); and other interesting terms were used. However, as has been said, few of these have been

used in recent texts, as terminology has become simplified, adapted to the grammatical form of the English sentence, and in most cases fairly well standardized.

Use of quotations. — Especially in the teaching of parsing, analysis, and punctuation, quotations were used very generally in the older books, both as examples and as exercises. Many of these were taken from the Bible, but the better known authors of both prose and poetry, including Milton, Moore, Shakespeare, Macaulay, etc. were also quoted. One of the points which authors called to the attention of their students was that the exercises in their texts consisted "principally of selections from the best writers in the language" (8:3).

Biblical quotations were found on from 16 to 18 per cent of all pages in grammars published before 1875, no other type of quotation except poetry taking up more than 5 per cent during those years. In the third period, however, less than 10 per cent of the pages contained quotations from the Bible, and in the last period the percentage had dropped to an almost negligible amount. This seeming loss of interest in the Bible was more or less in keeping with the times, and may be only temporary, for in the last series published (1939-1944) the authors included several references from this source, as well as a rather interesting discussion of the Bible as a book:

The Book of Books

The Bible is the Book of Books. Does it seem strange to you that a poem from the Bible should close our year's thinking about language? Are you one of those people who think that the Bible is a book only for church and the home? It isn't. Because of its relation to life, it is a book that has a place in everything we do.

Our bodies wouldn't be of much use without minds to control them. Our minds wouldn't be of much service without an all-wise Spirit to control them. Whatever ideas we have about religion, whatever personal faith we follow, all of us feel deep in our hearts the Divine Power that rules the universe. We feel this Power in the glory of earth and sea and sky; we see it in the deeds of men; we know it comes from the Lord, who is our keeper.

With these thoughts in mind, it is easy to see why the Bible should have an important place in our daily living. The more we read of this wonderful Book, the less need we shall have of language study. Its language was inspired by the deep faith of its writers; it is beautiful language, wise language, language that only the Book of Books could have. That is why the poem [Psalm 121] on the opposite page has been used to close this year's work. It is a favorite of many sixth-grade boys and girls. It must be a favorite of many other people, too. The authors hope that it may become a favorite of yours. (27d:276)

In the early grammars, verses from the psalms were often used for parsing, one of the "specimens of syntactical parsing" in Bullions' text (1834) being:

Psalm cxi. 10. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom, and a good understanding have all they that do his commandments: His praise endureth forever." (7:133)

Many Biblical quotations were used as examples of certain unusual types of sentence structure or of the incorrect use of certain words. Pinneo (1850) pointed out some of these, like "*Which for Who; . . . Our Father which art in heaven*" (9:194). However, authors were careful to make it clear that the Bible was not to be criticized for these seeming errors.

In the course of this work, some examples will appear of erroneous translations from the Holy Scriptures, with respect to grammatical construction; but it may be proper to remark, that notwithstanding these verbal mistakes, the Bible, for the size of it, is the most accurate grammatical composition that we have in the English language. The authority of several eminent grammarians might be adduced in support of this assertion; but it may be sufficient to mention only that of Dr. Lowth, who says, "The present translation of the Bible, is the best standard of the English language." (2:161)

The Bible was particularly rich in examples of figures of speech and figures of syntax, and was often used for this purpose. Brown (1823) included many such examples:

My head is filled with dew, and my locks with the drops of the night. — *Solomon's Song*, v, 2.

Thou hast chastised me, and I was chastised, as a bullock unaccustomed to the yoke: turn thou me, and I shall be turned; for thou art the Lord my God. — *Jer.*, xxxi, 18.

Consider the lilies of the field how they grow. — *Matt.*, vi, 28.

He that glorieth, let him glory in the Lord. — *2 Cor.*, x, 17.

Thou art Simon the son of Jona: thou shalt be called *Cephas*; which is, by interpretation, a stone. — *John*, i, 42.

Thus saith the Lord of hosts: 'Behold I will break the bow of *Elam*, the chief of their might.' — *Jer.*, xlix, 35.

Behold I lay in Zion a *Stumbling-stone* and rock of offence; and whosoever believeth on him shall not be ashamed. — *Rom.*, ix, 33. (5:268)

During the second period covered by this study, Biblical quotations appeared on an even larger percentage of pages than during the first period. This can probably be accounted for by the fact that there was a general feeling among textbook writers about this time that examples and exercises should be shortened. Many of the philosophical prose selections and verses of poetry that had been used were so long and involved as to try the patience as well as the ability of students, and thereby lessen the popularity of the text. The Bible was a particularly rich source of short quotations, and therefore it was used for this purpose by many of the texts of this period.

It is interesting to note that in the third period, when the use of quotations from the Bible dropped so sharply, the use of proverbs increased just as sharply, more than three times as many being found in books of this period as in any others. The desire to get away from the use of cumbersome, time-consuming examples was also one of the reasons for the wide acceptance of proverbs as examples. Brown (1823), in discussing the make-up of his text, said that "in selecting examples for these exercises, the author has been studious to economize the learner's and the teacher's time by admitting those only which were very short" (5:v). Among some of the less commonly known proverbs found in texts were:

He that scoffs at the crooked, should beware of stooping. (5:39)

Misdemeanours are the pioneers of gros vices. (5:39)

An humorsome child is never long pleased. (5:149)

Soldiers in peace are like chimneys in summer. (8:242)

Along with proverbs, were found a number of maxims and moral truths. These were especially popular during the second period, but were found in all periods. One of the principal uses to which they were put was that of showing the different types of sentence structure. Among the interesting quotations of this kind found in early texts were the following:

It cannot be avoided, so long as there is Wickedness on Earth, or Malice in Hell, but that Scandals will arise, and Differences will grow in the Church of God. (1:116)

To countenance persons who are guilty of bad actions, is scarcely one remove from actually committing them. (2:222)

An obedient son gives joy to his father and mother. (3:14)

Of all other ill habits idleness is the most incorrigible. (5:158)

There is a certain majesty in simplicity, which is far above the quaintness of wit. (5:168)

But, as has been said, not all quotations used as examples and exercises were short. In the early books many of the selections were philosophical in nature and seemed to have been chosen for the purpose of making the pupil realize the weight of his responsibilities in this world. Such quotations were usually long, often sad and depressing, and frequently carried a moral lesson. Typical among them were:

By the Fall of *Adam* from that glorious and happy State, wherein he was created, the divine Image on his Mind is quite changed and altered; and he who was created but a little inferior to the Angels above, is now made but a little superior to the Angels below. (1:120)

To complain that life has no joys, while there is a single creature whom we can relieve by our bounty, assist by our counsel, or enliven by our presence, is to lament the loss of what we possess; and is just as rational as to die of thirst with the cup in our hands. (3:142)

Who is she that, with graceful steps and a lively air, trips over yonder plain? her name is health: she is the daughter of exercise and temperance. (5:36)

I have seen a good old father, his locks white, his steps trembling, begging, in vain, his only son to abandon the intoxicating cup. (9:171)

And, when those who have rivaled her (Athens's) greatness shall have shared her fate; when civilization and knowledge shall have fixed their abode in distant continents; when the scepter shall have passed away from England; when, perhaps, travelers from distant regions shall in vain labor to decipher on some mouldering pedestal the name of our proudest chief, shall hear savage hymns chanted to some misshapen idol over the ruined dome of our proudest temple, and shall see a single naked fisherman wash his nets in the river of the ten thousand masts, — her influence and her glory will still survive, fresh in eternal youth, exempt from mutability and decay, immortal as the intellectual principle from which they derived their origin, and over which they exercise their control. — *Macaulay*. (13b:269-270)

As has been said, it was not uncommon in the early texts to use poetry for parsing or analysis, with the idea that it made the material more difficult and therefore more instructive. The selections used were usually from well-known poets, and almost invariably from a very serious and sometimes almost doleful poem. Dilworth (1740) gave titles to many of his quotations, but in most of the books only the author was given. While selections were included without an author indicated, there is little doubt that they came from some lesser known or local poets. Bullions (1834) suggested the use of exercises from any "simple correct writer" for the elementary students, but said that "for the more advanced student nothing better can be supplied than Pope's Essay on Man or Milton's Paradise Lost" (7:85).

The type of poem selected for use in grammars is so interesting that a few examples are given here:

Life is Short and Miserable.

Ah! few and full of Sorrow are the Days
Of miserable Man: His Life decays
Like that frail Flower, which with the Sun's uprise
Her Bud unfolds, and with the Evening dies:
He, like an empty Shadow, glides away,
And all his Life is but a Winter's Day. (1:124)

A Future State Certain.

Brave Youths the Paths of Virtue still should tread,
 And not by Error's devious Tract be led;
 Till free from Filth, and spotless in their Mind,
 Till pure their Life, and of th' ethereal Kind:
 For this we must believe, whene'er we die,
 We sink to Hell, or else to Heaven fly. (1:125)

ADMONITION.

In the days of thy youth,
 Remember thy God:
 O! forsake not his truth,
 Incur not his rod. — *G. Brown.* (5:286) -

Is it not sweet to think, hereafter,
 When the spirit leaves this sphere,
 Love, with deathless wing shall waft her
 To those she long hath mourned for here?
 Hearts from which 'twas death to sever,
 Eyes this world can ne'er restore,
 There, as warm, as bright as ever,
 Shall meet us and be lost no more.
 — *T. Moore.* (8:182)

Closely akin to these poetic selections were the literary gems, which also were heavy and often dreary. These, too, were particularly popular in the second period, appearing on about 4 per cent of the pages, but they then dropped out of favor and were not found in textbooks published during the last 20 years. The authors most commonly quoted were the same as those for the longer selections.

And the fruit
 Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
 Brought death. — *Milton* (2:63)

All this dread order break — for whom? for thee?
 Vile worm! — Oh madness! pride! impiety! — *Pope* (5:145)

Oh! what a tangled web we weave,
 When first we practise to deceive. — *Sir W. Scott.* (8:254)

While almost all the quotations included in early texts were used as examples or exercises for parsing, analysis, or punctuation, one was now and then put in for other purposes. A few hymns and prayers were found in the books, nearly half of them in Dilworth's text (1740) and the others scattered through all the rest of the grammars. Fables were also in Dilworth's text, apparently included solely for their moral value. While no fables were found again until 1900, they then became popular either as an example of story writing or purely as entertaining reading.

Biography was popular in the Scott-Southworth series (1906), but was found very seldom outside of that one text. Essays and orations were not included until the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914), but very little of such material was used in any of the texts. The first joke ap-

peared in the Pearson-Kirchwey series, too, and three books since that time have included this type of quotation.

In the recent books the number of quotations has not been as great, for it would be impossible to make English alive and functional if many philosophical or serious examples and exercises were used. When story writing first entered texts, examples were printed in the books, but they were so typical of the moralizing influence of the early grammars that they did not encourage the child in freedom of thought. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), for example, used the following:

SELECTION FROM THE BROTHERS GRIMM

Once upon a time there was a very old man, whose eyes were dim, whose ears were dull, and whose knees trembled. When he sat at table, he could scarcely hold his spoon; and often he spilled his food over the tablecloth and sometimes down his clothes.

His son and daughter-in-law were much vexed about this, and at last they made the old man sit behind the oven in a corner, and gave him his food in an earthen dish, and not enough of it either; so that the poor man grew sad, and his eyes were wet with tears. Once his hand trembled so much that he could not hold the dish, and it fell upon the ground and broke all in pieces, so that the young wife scolded him; but he made no reply and only sighed. Then they bought him a wooden dish, and out of that he had to feed.

One day, as he was sitting in his usual place, he saw his little grandson, four years old, fitting together some pieces of wood. "What are you making?" asked the old man.

"I am making a wooden trough," replied the child, "for father and mother to feed out of when I grow big."

At these words the father looked at his wife for a moment, and presently they began to cry. Henceforth they let the old grandfather sit at table with them, and they did not even say anything if he spilled a little food upon the cloth. (13a:143-144)

More recently, many stories written by children themselves have been quoted to give the pupil an idea of what was expected of him. If stories by known authors were included, a lighter, more entertaining type was usually selected.

In the field of poetry, few selections were quoted in modern grammars as illustrations of sentence structure. Instead, an entire poem on the child's interest and ability level was printed for the purpose of teaching the child to interpret and appreciate poetic writing. More recently such material has been used almost entirely as a factor in making the text more enjoyable.

Book Houses

I always think the cover of
 A book is like a door
 Which opens into someone's house
 Where I've not been before.

A pirate or a fairy queen
 May lift the latch for me;
 I always wonder, when I knock,
 What welcome there will be.

And when I find a house that's dull
 I do not often stay,
 But when I find one full of friends
 I'm apt to spend the day.

I never know what sort of folks
 Will be within, you see,
 And that's why reading always is
 So int'resting to me.

Annie F. Johnson (27b:183)

Poems like these had their value in having a message that the child could understand and a story-book element that awakened his imagination and aroused his interest.

Another kind of poetry quoted in the more recent books was that of jingles, used to fix information of some kind in the pupil's mind. Two very commonly known rhymes were used in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) for the teaching of capitalization. Both poems were also found as teaching devices in other texts analyzed.

Solomon Grundy
 Born on Monday,
 Christened on Tuesday,
 Married on Wednesday,
 Took ill on Thursday,
 Worse on Friday,
 Died on Saturday,
 Buried on Sunday;
 This is the end
 Of Solomon Grundy.

In the nursery rime printed above, all the days of the week are mentioned. With what kind of letter does the name of each day begin? Read the following rime also, and see how the names of the months are written.

Thirty days hath September,
 April, June, and November:
 All the rest have thirty-one,
 Excepting February alone,
 Which has just eight and a score,
 Till leap year gives one day more.

The names of the days of the week and the months of the year, and the names of all holidays should begin with capital letters. (20a:37)

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) also used this idea in a jingle for teaching some of the homonyms.

Not only can words mean different things in different connections, but we have sets of words called homonyms that sound alike, but mean very different things. Here is a doggerel rhyme with examples:

The Tree Allowed to Speak Aloud

With a groan have I grown
 Every pear that you pare;
 And the eight that you ate,
 Like a bear, left me bare.
 And the tail of my tale
 Ends in tears for the tears
 In my sail by your sale
 Of the pairs of my pears.

Did you notice that two words in the rhyme were spelled alike, but pronounced differently and had different meanings? These are *heteronyms*, and you have to watch out for them when you are reading, especially out loud. If you are not careful, you will mispronounce them. (27f:13)

The moral teaching included in almost all quoted material in the early grammars dropped out of texts almost entirely. Authors continued to include good prose and poetry, but it was lighter and more enjoyable and was often used as recreational reading or as training in appreciation rather than as examples of complicated grammatical constructions.

Motivation. — Motivation is a comparatively new thing in textbooks, as it has been only within the last 50 to 75 years that the need for it has been felt to any extent.

Early grammarians showed no particular desire to make their grammars attractive either in content or in appearance. The most popular books were those which contained the greatest amount of accurate information on the subject. Like texts in other fields, grammars were really reference books in that field, to be used by persons who needed or desired the information and who often had to get it without the aid of a teacher. Thus, the student was already motivated by his individual interest; all the textbook writers had to do was to furnish the information he was seeking. Grammars therefore included a great amount of material justifying or giving authority for statements made concerning unusual spellings or constructions, in order to prove the worth of the texts.

Grammarians were not unaware, however, of the difficulties encountered by students. Kirkham (1823) was particularly cognizant of their problems, and often gave them a word of advice or encouragement:

If you study faithfully *six* hours in a day, and pursue the directions given, you may become, if not a critical, at least, a good, practical grammarian, in *six weeks*; but if you study only *three hours* in a day, it will take you nearly *three months* to acquire the same knowledge. (4:127)

For your encouragement, allow me to inform you, that when you shall have learned to conjugate the verb to *love*, you will be able to conjugate all the regular verbs in the English

language, for they are all conjugated precisely in the same manner. (4:147)

In the prefaces to a number of the older grammars, reference was made to the fact that the book had been designed in such a way as to make the pupil want to study. Kirkham (1823) tried to develop a spirit of inquiry:

Its leading object is to adopt a correct and an easy method, in which pleasure is blended with the labours of the learner, and which is calculated to excite in him a spirit of inquiry, that shall call forth into vigorous and useful exercise, every latent energy of his mind; and thus enable him soon to become thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the principles, and with their practical utility and application. (4:9)

Bullions (1834) built his text around the idea that a feeling of success is a great motivating force:

The study of English Grammar, prosecuted in this way, will prove both pleasing and profitable. The pupil, knowing what he is doing, and elated with success, will proceed with activity and cheerfulness; and in a comparatively short time will find himself a GOOD GRAMMARIAN. (7:viii)

Pinneo (1850) had still another plan for holding the student's interest:

Interest in the study, it is hoped, is secured by the variety and attractive nature of the exercises. The didactic, illustrative, and practical methods of teaching are united, that each point, being presented in these several ways, may interest and impress the mind. (9:5)

All these suggestions helped, but the greatest single force in creating a desire to study was that of rivalry. As has been said, it was a great honor in the early nineteenth century to be considered a good grammarian. Students worked hard at their lessons because they wished to receive this honor.

While no mention was found in the early books of a conscious effort on the part of authors to furnish material for competitive learning, it seems quite possible that the longer, more complicated quotations used as exercises in parsing and analysis may have been included for this purpose. Time and again the directions to teacher or pupil showed clearly the fact that competition was used as a means of teaching, for such statements were made as: "Let the struggle be to . . ." (13a:54) and "The competition is to . . ." (13a:76).

Some of the exercises proved to be a real struggle. In fact, in examples like the following, it seemed texts were attempting to test the endurance as well as the ability of students.

Write the following words in two columns; in one column, write the singular form of each word, and in the other the plural:

Book, desk, sin, church, witness, glory, sky, money, wife, knife, strife, life, fife, cargo, negro, folio, quarto, trio, no, men, ox, mice, teeth, geese, p, q, 6, 7, +, *, brother-in-law, court-martial, wagon-load, ox-cart, handful, ipse dixit, tete-a-tete, piano-forte, man-servant, Knight-templar, Miss Seward, Mr. Casad, Sir Isaac Newton, Dr. Benson, Mrs. Henderson, brother, die, fish, genius, index, penny, pea, Sarah, oh, my, ah, calculus, arcanum, criterion, thesis, analysis, antithesis, parenthesis, nebula, phenomena, calyx, strata, silver, vinegar, hemp, darkness, oil, ashes, assets, bellows, clothes, scissors, shears, tongs, news, molasses, lungs, alms, corps, mumps, measles, odds, riches, series, suds, tidings, wages, ethics, politics, mathematics, optics, physics, pedagogics, sheep, deer, couple, salmon, trout, gross, hose, yoke, hiss, adz, sash, embryo, grotto, oratorio, buffalo, mosquito, tomato, potato, valley, chimney, money, duty, spy, cow, foot, bandit, cherub, formula, memorandum, focus, terminus, erratum, medium, axis, genus, automaton, hypothesis, basis, crisis, ellipsis, Mrs., Mr., eaves, custom, letter, number, pain, part, liberty, virtue, vices, attorney-general, head, belief, brief, bluff, cliff, staff, ditty, daisy, baby, buoy, turkey, berry, fairy, soliloquy, tray, Chinese, Japanese, forget-me-not. (17:113)

The old Greeks got on with very little punctuation. They even ran their words together, as in the following passage. Try rewriting this interesting little story, separating the words, and putting in punctuation where it is needed.

MrPopehowascrookedandcrosswastalkingwithayoungofficer theofficersaidhethoughtthatinacertainentenceaninterrogation markwasneededdoyouknowwhataninterrogationmarkisnarled outthecrookedcrosslittlemanitisacrookedlittlethingthataasksquestionssaidtheyyoungmanandheshutupMrPopeforthatday. (18b:247)

These came at a time when the theory of mental discipline was widely accepted and authors believed that "more important . . . than anything else is the training in thinking" (19b:9). The pupil was thus given his mental gymnastics and good material for competitive study in the same exercises.

It is not to be supposed that rivalry dropped out of teaching as a means of motivation. Some form of competition was used in every grammar studied, but in the recent ones games and contests were planned, and other means of putting the work on a play basis were suggested. In fact, by the beginning of the twentieth century, textbook writers were putting forth great effort to make their grammars interesting.

As has been said, the need for awakening the pupil's interest was not felt at first, but by the time compulsory education became rather general and grammar was a required subject in the public schools, many children who had no interest in the subject were having to study it. The need therefore arose for making a more attractive text and for finding means of presenting the work in an enjoyable form.

During the latter half of the nineteenth century many new ideas entered grammar texts. These included some of the things discussed elsewhere in this analysis, such as the introduction of pictures both as aids in instruction and as interest factors; the use of forms and models for parsing, analysis, etc.; the use of larger type, wider margins, and

more open space on the page so that the text did not look so heavy and difficult; and the enlivening of the subject matter by basing study on facts and situations within the child's experience.

Drill was placed on a play basis, and children were taught games in which they received practice in correct English (see Figure 13). Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were the first to use this method of holding interest, but after the Robbins-Row series (1907) almost every text included it. A game suggested in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) was on the use of "have" and "haven't":

Go to your Next Neighbor. In playing Go to your Next Neighbor, the leader asks the players in turn for different things, such as sugar, tea, coffee, bread, butter, flour, and crackers. When the leader asks, "Will you lend me some sugar?" the player must be careful to say, "No, I haven't any. You will have to go to your next neighbor." The point of the game is to see if the leader can ask questions around the class without any one's saying *I haven't got any* or *You will hafta*. The number of mistakes is counted each day and written on the board until the record is a perfect one. (23a:8)

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) used what it called a "ladder game" to teach correct pronunciation of certain often mispronounced words. The words were to be written on the rungs of a ladder drawn on the blackboard. The pupils were to start at the bottom and try to climb the ladder without missing a rung (27b:70).

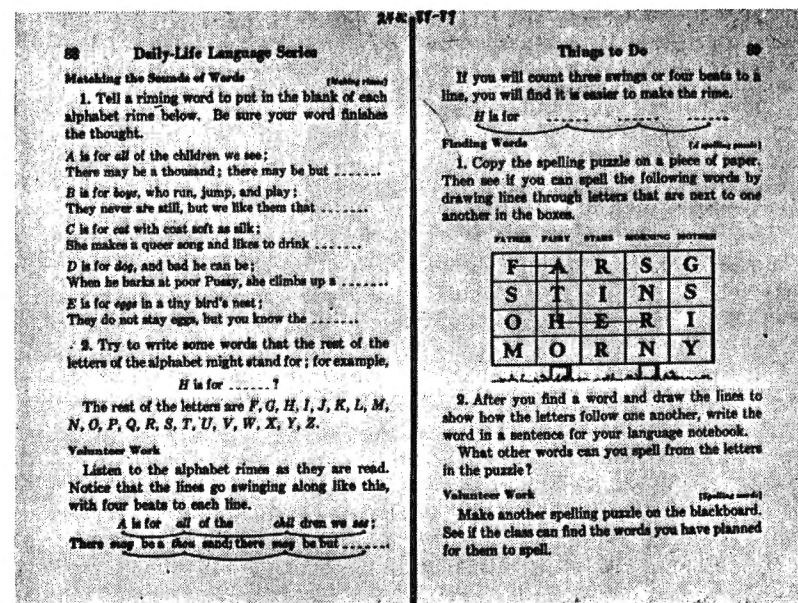
The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) suggested a game designed more for developing imagination and interpretation than for furnishing drill on mechanical phases of English:

Perhaps you would like to play a gesture game. Choose a list of topics to talk about. Then, on the playground or anywhere beyond the hearing of the rest of the class, let one member talk about one of these topics to another, using whatever gestures seem natural to him. The rest of the class can then guess which topic was being discussed. Here are some suggested topics for a simple gesture game. You can think of more difficult ones.

The Fish That Did Not Get Away
Hitting a Home Run
The Shot That Won the Tennis Game
The Man in a Straw Hat on a Windy Day (26e:108-109)

In this series also was the suggestion that pupils make a list of as many words as they could think of that could be made from the letters found in the word "steamship." The pupils were then to put the words in their list in alphabetical order (26b:33).

The use of riddles and puzzles came a little later, but they too were really a form of drill in which enough of a play element was introduced to make it a little less tedious to the pupil. Most of these were nothing more than questions and answers, but the *Adventures in*



(approximately two fifths size)

Fig. 13. Devices used for gaining and holding the pupil's interest.

English series (1939-1944) put the material more nearly in true riddle form than did the others.

Akin to riddles and puzzles was an interesting exercise found in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941):

1. I am the part of your letter that says "Hello." Write my name.
2. I am used to begin the name of every person. Write my name.
3. I am a complete thought. Write my name.
4. I am a short way of writing a word. Write my name.
5. You will find me at the end of every asking sentence. Write my name. (26a:232)

The developing of projects entered texts with the Hyde series (1888-1896) and has been given increasing emphasis through the years since that time until, in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), it was mentioned on nearly half of the pages. Projects included planning parties, programs, and club meetings, making valentines, writing plays, etc.

Dramatization was used as a form of motivation in most of the texts published in the twentieth century. Instruction was always woven into such forms of motivation:

Have you ever tried to act a story or a fairy tale? Today you are to act the story of the elves and the shoemaker. There will be five actors, and the other children in the room will be the audience. What are the five parts which the actors are to take? The actors should talk somewhat like this: (22a:18)

The idea of using a central theme for instruction did not enter texts until the early 1900's, but it was not until the 1920's that various phases of grammar teaching were held together in this way.

In the early grammars the only relation that one sentence in a group of exercises had to another sentence was that it illustrated the same rule. There was no continuity of thought except along grammatical lines. Not until the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) was there evidence of an attempt to arouse the pupil's interest by having an interesting theme run through the exercises. Even here the idea embraced nothing more than the exercises, which, while dealing with the same general subject, were unrelated so far as dependence upon each other for meaning was concerned.

Find the verbs in the following sentences:

1. The earth is a great ball.
2. It seems flat to us.
3. The stars are distant suns.

(20a:232)

This type of organization of material around a central theme proved of value in arousing and holding the interest of the pupils and consequently became very widely used. *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) was the first to weave whole chapters of instruction around a subject like "Playing Indian" (23a:38) or "Bird Neighbors" (23a:84). The teaching in these chapters covered much the same grammatical material as was found in other texts for the same grade, but the examples, the exercises, the composition writing and letter writing, the projects, and so forth, all dealt with some phase of the central theme. For instance, in the chapter on "Playing Indian," a project on Indian life included training in reading for information, reporting information, listening, understanding, etc. (23a:38-42). In the field of grammar itself, the exercises in this chapter taught the correct use of "a" and "an" with such exercises as:

.....old bow	Indian boy
.....new bow	papoose
.....wigwam	old chief

(23a:43)

Poetry, games, a story hour, the writing of an invitation to another class to visit the Indian village made by the class, etc., were all included in the teaching of this unit.

In the most recent of the texts, the units of instruction were more on the level of the child's interests; that is, they concerned things which the child often does in his out-of-school life. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), for example, contained chapters on "Let's See a

Movie" (26e:97), "Using the Library" (26b:161), and "Celebrating Christmas" (26b:116). Such units taught the social uses of English and in this way they made the pupil see more clearly the need for an understanding of the grammatical principles upon which correct usage is based.

The cartoons in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) and the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) were particularly effective in attracting the pupil's attention and getting him interested in the content of the text. In fact, the physical make-up of the recent texts, both inside and outside, has been such as to create a desire to read the book.

Recently it has been the object of authors not only to make the pupil want to study his text but also to make him realize his need for correct English.

In the eighth grade text, the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) startled its students into realizing the need for placing words in correct order in a sentence by saying:

There is more to language than the knowledge of words because *important is used are words which in order the*.

The words in italics make no sense at all, do they? Read them backwards. Do you agree with what they say? (26f:20)

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) explained, in terms the child could understand, the use of punctuation marks:

One of our best friends is the traffic officer. Even if we live far out in the country and do not see him very often, we know that when we visit crowded city streets he will be on hand to help us.

Capitals and punctuation marks are like that. When thoughts and ideas crowd into a sentence too fast, along comes a capital letter or a punctuation mark to keep the sentence traffic straight. (27b:76)

Daringer (1938) showed the pupil what a vast difference one word could make to the meaning of a statement:

An *adjective* is a word which modifies a noun or pronoun; that is, it changes or limits the meaning of the noun or pronoun.

Notice what a change in meaning an adjective modifier can make — all the difference, in fact, between *sweet* milk and *sour* milk, *hot* water and *cold* water, *many* apples and *no* apples. (25:36)

Thus the fact was brought to the pupil's attention that a knowledge of correct English is necessary in almost all everyday situations. He was made to see that the information he gained in his grammar study would be useful to him no matter what he did in life and that it would greatly increase his chances of success. This created in him a desire to study because he realized the advantages to be gained in being able to use English correctly.

Techniques and Devices Emphasized in Different Periods

Among the techniques and devices used in teaching grammar, there were some which were popular in the early texts, but which lost favor as methods of teaching and textbook content changed. These were replaced by others which were more effective in light of the newer psychology in teaching. Many of these techniques and devices were of sufficient importance in their day to be worthy of a place in any discussion of trends in grammar books. They have therefore been included here and are arranged approximately in the order in which they were first introduced into texts.

Use of Parsing. — Parsing was strongly emphasized in early texts but has been dropped entirely, none of the grammars published in the last 20 years having included such material.

Murray (1795) was among those who boasted that his text presented "a new and enlarged system of parsing" (2:7). He not only included a great deal of discussion on the subject, but he even set up parsing in more than one form:¹

In the following passage, all the parts of speech are exemplified:

1 2 7 2 5 1 2 3 7 2 8
The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man; and
5 5 7 4 7 4 3 2 7 1
was bestowed on him by his beneficent Creator, for the
3 8 6 3 2 8 9 6 6 5 4
greatest and most excellent uses; but, alas! how often do we
5 4 7 1 3 7 2
pervert it to the worst of purposes!

In the foregoing sentence, the words *the*, *a*, are articles; *power*, *speech*, *faculty*, *man*, *Creator*, *uses*, *purposes*, are substantives; *peculiar*, *beneficent*, *greatest*, *excellent*, *worst*, are adjectives; *him*, *his*, *we*, *it*, are pronouns; *is*, *was*, *bestowed*, *do*, *pervert*, are verbs; *most*, *how*, *often*, are adverbs; *of*, *to*, *on*, *by*, *for*, are prepositions; *and*, *but*, are conjunctions; and *alas* is an interjection. (2:43)

Parsing was given on about 17 per cent of the pages on which the sentence was discussed in the first period books and on more than 23 per cent in the second period, but it lost its popularity rapidly after 1875. In the third period it was mentioned on less than 10 per cent of the pages, and in the last period on less than one half of one per cent.

One reason for the great amount of space given to parsing in the first two periods was that the subject was taken up in such great detail. Pupils were not only supposed to identify each part of speech in the sentence, but also to define it, classify it according to the form used, and give the rule which applied. Comly (1805) even suggested that "when the sentence under examination is elliptical, the pupil should

¹ In an earlier edition of his *English Grammar*, Murray placed pronouns ahead of adjectives and numbered his example accordingly.

be required to supply the words omitted, and parse them, as if they were all expressed" (3:136).

The form set up by Kirkham (1823) for parsing nouns and verbs was as follows:

SYSTEMATICK ORDER OF PARSING.

The *order of parsing* a Noun is — a noun, and why? — common, proper, or collective, and why? gender, and why? — person, and why? — number, and why? — case, and why? Rule: — decline it.

The *order of parsing* a Verb is — a verb, and why? — active, passive, or neuter, and why? — if *active* — transitive or intransitive, and why? — if *passive* — how is it formed? — regular, irregular, or defective, and why? — mood, and why? — tense, and why? — person and number, and why? — with what does it agree? — Rule: — conjugate it. (4:50-51)

In recommending this scheme for parsing, Kirkham stated:

The *systematick* order laid down in this work, if pursued by the pupil, compels him to apply every definition and every rule that appertains to each word he parses, without having a question put to him by the teacher; and, in so doing, he explains every word fully as he goes along. This course enables the learner to proceed independently; and proves, at the same time, a great relief to the instructor. (4:11)

When applied, this method of parsing was very cumbersome.

"That great nation was once powerful; but now it is feeble."

Great is an adjective, a word added to a noun to express its quality — pos. great, comp. greater, sup. greatest — it is in the positive degree, it expresses the quality of an object without any increase or diminution, and belongs to the noun "nation," according to

Rule 18. *Adjectives belong to, and qualify, nouns expressed or understood.*

Was is a verb, a word that signifies to be — neuter, it expresses neither action nor passion, but being, or a state of being — third person singular, because its nominative "nation" is a noun of multitude conveying unity of idea — it agrees with "nation," agreeably to

Rule 10. *A noun of multitude conveying unity of idea, may have a verb or pronoun agreeing with it in the singular.*

Powerful is an adjective belonging to "nation," according to Rule 18. *Feeble* belongs to "it," according to Note 1, under Rule 18. *Is* is a neuter verb agreeing with "it," agreeably to Rule 4. (4:74)

Not only was the method of parsing made as intricate as possible, but the exercises to be parsed were often selected especially for their length and difficulty. It seemed textbook writers made a sort of intelligence test out of some of the exercises included in grammars. Two particularly difficult parsing exercises were:

If a brother or a sister be naked and destitute of daily food, and one of you say unto them, Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled; notwithstanding if ye give them not those things which are needful to the body; what doth it profit? (7:142)

My lords, says he, with humble submission, That that I say is this; that that, that that gentleman has advanced, is not that, that he should have proved to your lordships. (3:151)

It was not uncommon for parsing exercises to be based on poetry which was sometimes very hard to understand and almost invariably philosophical or religious in nature. Many of the poems, as well as the prose selections, were 10 to 15 lines in length. Kirkham (1823) introduced poetry into his exercises with the statement:

I will now present to you a few examples in poetry. Parsing in poetry, as it brings into requisition a higher degree of mental exertion than parsing in prose, will be found a more delightful and profitable exercise. In this kind of analysis, in order to come at the meaning of the author, you will find it necessary to *transpose* his language, and supply what is understood; and then you will have the literal meaning in prose. (4:166)

Kirkham was not alone in giving parsing unusual emphasis and in believing it advisable to go into great detail. Almost every author in the first half of the nineteenth century considered the subject a very important phase of grammar teaching. Even as late as 1868, when Harvey published his *English Grammar*, there had been little change in the way the subject was taught.

However, the extreme wordiness of the method began to be very objectionable to some authors because it took up much time needlessly. Bullions, back in 1834, suggested that "it will save much time, which is very important in a large school, if the pupil be taught to express all that is necessary in parsing these and other words, thus: *Father, a noun, masculine, singular, the nominative; . . .*" (7:18). Later, authors tried out the plan of using abbreviations, so that a sentence was parsed by using "rv" for regular verb, "ptp" for past perfect tense, "sp" for simple participle, etc. (11:168). This method did not prove satisfactory, however, because the pupil had to learn abbreviations as well as know the use of the words, and in the end had even more to do than he would have had with the original method of parsing.

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were among the first to make practical suggestions as to what information could be omitted in parsing:

But we must be allowed an emphatic protest against the needless and mechanical quoting, in parsing, of "Rules of Syntax." When a pupil has said that such a noun is in the nominative case, subject of such a verb, what is gained by a repetition of the definition in the Rule; "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case"? Let the reasons for the disposition of words, when given at all, be specific. (13b:208)

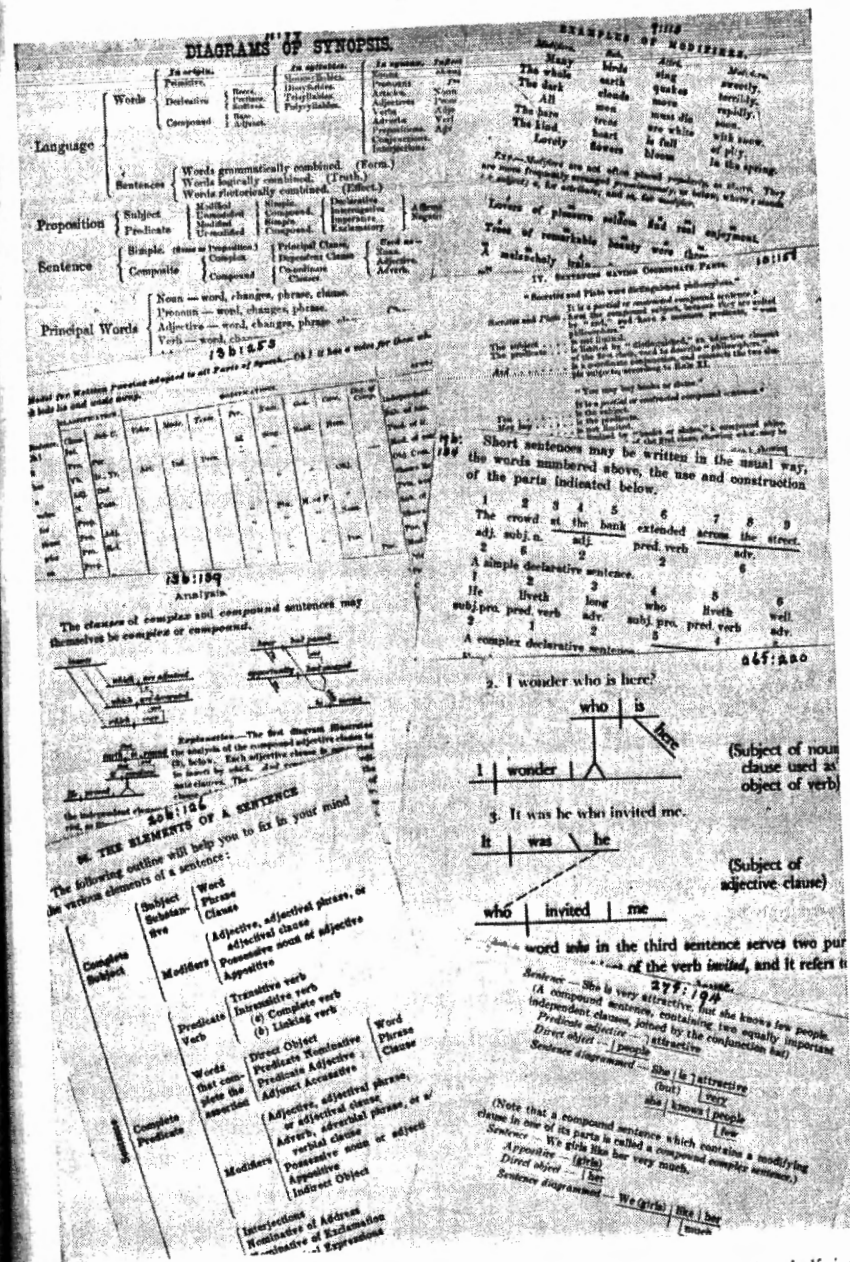


Fig. 14. Methods of parsing, analyzing, and diagramming sentences.

Early in the nineteenth century grammarians began stressing the point that one could not parse correctly until he understood the use of the words in the sentence, for some words could be used as several different parts of speech. Wisely (1896) gave a great deal of space to his explanation of the reasons why analysis was better than parsing, basing his statements on the fact that the sentence is the unit of language.

It might be thought that in working with "Parts of Speech" in grammar, we are dealing with words. A little reflection will show us, however, that we are not dealing with a word as the unit. If we ask, *What part of speech is the word, "fine?"* we are unable to tell until we see it in a sentence. If we say, *It is a fine day*, the word, "fine," is an adjective. If we say, *The fine was remitted*, it is a noun. If we say, *I fine you ten dollars and costs*, it is a verb . . . If we ask, *In what case is the word, "pen?"* we cannot tell until we see the word used in a sentence. If we say, *My pen is gold*, the word, "pen," is in the nominative case. If we say, *I write with my pen*, it is in the objective case. Much more might be said to show that whenever we are dealing with words in the subject of grammar, the sentence is still the unit. We deal with words only as parts of sentences.

This, then, is the distinguishing mark of grammar. It has for its unit the sentence. No other language subject deals with the sentence or has it for its unit. (17:40)

With the emphasis on the sentence, analysis began to take precedence over parsing in the study of grammar (see Figure 14). Instead of deteriorating into a simple statement of the part of speech of each word in the sentence, parsing became a part of analysis. In some books it was termed "syntactical parsing," in others the two subjects were combined under the heading "parsing and analysis," but it was not included as a separate topic in any of the more modern grammars.

Use of analysis. — As has been said, by 1850 most of the grammars were combining the analysis of the sentence with the study of parsing. As Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) stated:

We do not believe that the chief end of the study of grammar is to be able to parse well, or even to analyze well, though, without question, analysis reveals more clearly than parsing the structure of the sentence, and is immeasurably superior to it as intellectual gymnastics. We would not do away with parsing altogether, but would give it a subordinate place. (13b:207-208)

Analysis received its greatest emphasis between 1834 and 1910, but it, like parsing, was dropped from textbooks after the more functional point of view in teaching became popular.

In the earlier texts, analysis was used so extensively that words as well as sentences were analyzed. Pupils were supposed to take their words apart, telling what kinds of letters, sounds, and syllables made

them up. An example of such analysis was found in Greene's text (1853), which was among those to give the greatest emphasis to analysis.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING SYLLABLES.

- An*.....is a syllable consisting of two elements: —
A.....is the essential element, — it is a vowel. (Give its sound.)
n.....is a consonant, and represents a subvocal; it is affixed to *a*. (Give its sound.)
Break.....is a syllable consisting of three parts: —
ea.....is the essential part, — it is a diphthong (why?), improper (why?); *e* is silent, — *a* only is sounded. (Give its sound.)
Br.....is a union of two consonants, both representing subvocals, *b* and *r*, (Rule 1,) which are prefixed to *ea*. (Give their sounds separately, then together.)
k.....is a consonant representing an aspirate, and is affixed to *ea*. (Give its sound.) (10:9)

Kerl (1864) explained the difference between parsing and sentence analysis, as did several other authors:

SECTION VIII.

The most important parts of speech, and the principles which affect them in their combinations, may be presented in the following brief and comprehensive scheme: —

1. { Nouns
and
Pronouns } — words, changes, phrases, and clauses.
2. Adjectives — words, changes, phrases, and clauses.
3. Verbs — words, changes, and phrases.
4. Adverbs — words, changes, phrases, and clauses.

Parsing takes in words and their changes; or it aims to give us such a knowledge of them, that we may know how to avoid mistakes in making sentences, or in our combinations of words to express thoughts.

Analysis disregards changes, but recognizes words, phrases, and clauses, with their relations. (11:30-31)

Kerl was enthusiastic about the use of analysis and gave it a great deal of attention in his text:

We have now presented that general analysis of language which is recognized among all enlightened nations as the best yet discovered for practical popular use. We have also endeavored to present this analysis, especially in the last ten pages, with all the help of a new, simple, and philosophical system. The intelligent teacher can readily see that *parsing* is but an examination of a word according to the various changes which belong to its class of words. (11:42)

As in the case of parsing, long involved exercises were used in the teaching of analysis. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), whose text appeared in the latter part of the century, included some of the longest exercises found in any of the texts, but this was the last book to use such unwieldy statements.

Detailed outlines for analysis were included in many of the texts. In the early grammars these included definitions and rules as well as identification and explanation of the parts of the sentence, but later, as in parsing, some of the unnecessary detail was omitted. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the "model for analysis" had become somewhat simplified and very specific.

Model for Analysis. — "A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter."

1. This is a compound assertive sentence.
2. Formed by uniting two simple assertions.
3. The essentials of the first assertion are *fool speaks mind*.
4. The subject *fool*, is modified by the adjective *a*.
5. The verb *speaks* is modified only by its object *mind*.
6. The object *mind* is modified by the adjective *all*, and by the possessive *his*.
7. The essentials of the second assertion are *man reserves something*.
8. The subject *man* is modified by the adjectives *a* and *wise*.
9. The verb *reserves* is modified by the prepositional phrase *for hereafter*.
10. The object *something* is unmodified.
11. The conjunction *but* unites the two assertions. (18b:73)

The Scott-Southworth series (1906) was one of the last texts to teach sentence analysis to any great extent. The subject was found in four of the books published after this date, but only one of these was put out within the last 20 years.

Use of diagramming. — Kerl (1864) was the first to mention diagramming, a sort of "charted" analysis, in teaching sentence structure, but he recommended the use of letters instead.

In some books, diagrams are used to teach Analysis. But these are useful only as an introduction, and as furnishing a concise mode of recitation. For this last purpose, however, it is probably more convenient to use letters; and we therefore present the following scheme, for written exercises.

Let *S* stand for sentence; *P*, for preposition; *X*, for any independent element; *C*, for principal or independent clause; *c*, for dependent clause; *c'*, *c''*, *c'''*, etc., for degrees of dependence below the first; and = for equivalence.

Let *pn* represent "proper noun"; *cn*, common noun; *cnl*, collective common noun; *pp*, personal pronoun; *rp*, relative pronoun; *ip*, interrogative pronoun; *ap*, adjective pronoun; *mg*, masculine gender; *fg*, feminine gender; *cg*, common gender; *ng*, neuter gender; *1p*, first person; *2p*, second person; *3p*, third

person; *sn*, singular number; *pn*, plural number; *nc*, nominative case; *pc*, possessive case; *oc*, objective case.

Most people, who embark in the voyage of life, wish to advance rather by the impulse of the wind than by the strokes of the oar; and many are foundered, while they lie waiting for the gale.

$S=C$, *c*; C , *c*.

People — *cnl*, *cg*, *3p*, *pn*, *nc* — subject of *wish*. Rule II.

Who — *rp*, *cg*, *3p*, *pn*, Rule VIII., *nc* — subject of *embark*. Rule II.

Voyage — *cn*, *ng*, *3p*, *sn*, *oc* — object of *in*. Rule V.

Life — *cn*, *ng*, *3p*, *sn*, *oc* — governed by *of*. Rule V. (And so on.)

An excellent way to teach analysis and parsing, is to furnish your pupils with blank copy-books: give them a pithy sentence daily, or as often as convenient; let them write it into their copy-books, and analyze and parse it as here shown. To examine this work expeditiously, let the pupils exchange copy-books, and criticise one another, while you go through the lesson and comment upon it. (11:108-109)

It is hard to agree with Kerl that his scheme is more "convenient" than that of diagramming. Like the shortened system of parsing, it involves much more learning on the part of the student, and, for one who is not thoroughly acquainted with the symbols used, it is very confusing.

Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), who were the first to make real use of diagramming, apparently considered the idea excellent, for they included the subject on 56 of their 613 pages. This was the greatest emphasis given to diagramming by any of the texts analyzed. The authors of this series were careful, however, to state that their text could be used profitably by a teacher who wished to omit this phase of the work, although their experience in its use had convinced them of its value.

In written analysis, the simple map, or diagram, found in the following lessons, will enable the pupil to present directly and vividly to the eye the exact function of every clause in the sentence, of every phrase in the clause, and of every word in the phrase — to picture the complete analysis of the sentence, with principal and subordinate parts in their proper relations. It is only by the aid of such a map, or picture that the pupil can, at a single view, see the sentence as an organic whole made up of many parts performing various functions and standing in various relations. Without such a map he must labor under the disadvantage of seeing all these things by piece-meal or in succession. (13a:8)

In spite of their great faith in this means of teaching sentence construction, Reed and Kellogg recognized the fact that it could be abused, and they brought out this point in their preface:

Analysis by diagram often becomes so interesting and so helpful that, like other good things, it is liable to be overdone. . . . When the diagram has served its purpose, it should be dropped. (13a:9)

In presenting the diagram, very simple sentences were used at first, such as "Waves dash," "Lions roar," and "Grammarians differ" (13a:22). The sentences gradually increased in length to include modifiers and clauses, until some of those diagrammed were rather long and involved.

The diagram was not given any attention after this until 1914, when the Pearson-Kirchwey series included it, but from that time on almost every text at least touched upon the subject. Some grammars taught only the simple signs used in diagramming — a vertical line placed between the subject and predicate; a line slanting toward the subject, used to separate the subject complement from the verb; and a perpendicular line, ending at the base line, to separate the object of the verb from the verb itself (25:86). Others underlined the various parts of the sentence with different kinds of lines to indicate their use. Styles have changed more in diagramming than in most phases of grammar, and even today no standard method is used.

While this method of teaching sentence construction is still used, and was found in every text published within the last 25 years, it has never been given as much emphasis as in the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877). This fact may be accounted for, in part at least, by the increased interest in making English alive and expressive, and since diagramming is necessarily mechanical, it deals with the framework rather than with the beauty and clarity of the sentence.

Providing for individual differences. — When the problem of meeting the needs of each pupil individually was first given consideration in education, the solution suggested by those in the field of English grammar teaching was that of providing certain "minimum essentials." These were to be the core around which the rest of the course was built and the part which every pupil would be expected to master.

A nation-wide survey was made to find out just what material should be included in these minimum essentials, and, when determined, many educators accepted them as a necessary part of every English course. Few of the texts studied, however, made much mention of the subject, although the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) stated that the accepted minimum essentials constituted "the backbone of the series" (22a:iii).

About this time, in the early 1920's, the problem of individual differences was being given a great deal of attention in education and its effect was evident in textbooks. The problem had been discussed now and then in grammars for a number of years, but no very good solution had been found. Grading of texts had helped meet the situation, but this did not, of course, provide for differences in the rate of learning of children in the same grade.

Considerable comment on the subject was found in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928), which was published soon after the *Essential Language Habits* series, at a time when interest in the subject was at its height. This text claimed to contain three types of material:

... one type that appeals to immature and less imaginative pupils; a second type that appeals to the creative instinct of pupils near the class median in ability; and a third type that calls forth the initiative and thought power of the most advanced pupils . . . able to undertake tasks that are both appealing and profitable. (23b:iii-iv)

The Open Door Language Series recommended its program particularly for use in small classes where "pupils may work independently, each progressing at his own rate of speed" (23b:iv).

Almost every text published after this date mentioned the fact that provision had been "planned to admit of flexibility in use to meet . . . the needs and capacities of different groups and individuals" (25:iv).

Adjusting to grade level needs. — It is evident from the discussion of content in the early texts that no effort was made at first to meet the needs of the student. He was considered capable of understanding all the terms used by the trained grammarian and information was given him from that point of view.

However, as has already been mentioned, it was not long before textbook writers realized the need for more nearly meeting the student at his own level. The first real evidence of this was in the introduction of the inductive method, which attempted to use what the child already knew as a basis on which to build new information. It was not easy to do this when students of different levels of ability and education were using the same text, and therefore authors began dividing their texts into two volumes. Pinneo (1850) was among the first to use this plan, but his *Analytical Grammar of the English Language* included in this study, was not a two-book series. The first such series analyzed was that of Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877). This text included a volume for the elementary grades and one for the advanced grades.

Hyde (1888-1896) was the only other author studied to put out a two-book series before the beginning of the twentieth century. After this, however, almost all texts appeared in at least two volumes, and the later ones appeared in six, one for each grade. In this way it was much simpler to keep the book on the level of the child for whom it was designed.

Until the 1920's no mention was made in the grammars of any scientific effort to establish the standards for material to be included at each grade level. *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) then stated that it had "furnished standards that are psychologically adapted to the different ages of the pupils" (23c:iii).

It was not uncommon for authors to state that "great care has been taken to avoid the use of words too difficult for the pupils" (24a:viii). However, it was soon realized that the child's readiness for new material and his understanding of vocabulary were not the only things to consider in adjusting texts to grade level needs. Students were growing

in other ways besides educationally. With a greater background of experience and a more mature physical, emotional, and mental development, their interests changed also. The newer texts made a great effort to keep the work for the various grade levels as nearly within the limits of what might be desired by a child of that grade as possible. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) claimed to offer "a studious adjustment of content and procedures to the gradually unfolding capacities, interests, and needs of the pupils" (24a:vii). Great care was put forth in all the recent books to take these facts into consideration. In the third grade text, of the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), for instance, were found chapters on "A Christmas Party," "A Pet Show," and "Helping at Home," while the sixth grade text included chapters on "Biography — The Study of People" and "Patriotism." These topics were among those found through scientific study to be most interesting to pupils of the age for which the text was designed.

Use of "catchy" ways of introducing subjects. — It is a well established fact in the psychology of learning that one understands and remembers new information better if he can relate it to some fact or experience within his knowledge.

While such a relationship was established now and then in the early texts, it was found very seldom and was always given as instruction, usually in explaining a grammatical construction. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), for example, said that "we classify birds according to their form, color, etc., but we group words into classes, called Parts of Speech, with respect to their use in the sentence" (13a:30), and Wisely (1896) likened a table and its parts to a sentence and its parts (17:13-14).

Modern analogies have had more life in them — they give the child an imaginative experience that helps fix the new teaching in his mind:

The Court Circle of English Words

1. During the past year you have renewed your acquaintance with six of the characters who make up the Court Circle of English Words. You will learn more about two of the characters of the circle in the present chapter. In this Court Circle the Verb is the Queen and is almost always the most important word in a complete sentence; next come the noun and the pronoun, who may be likened to the King and the Prince or Princess. At least one of these three members of the royal family accompanies the Queen in almost every complete sentence.

Most sentences have Gentlemen and Ladies in Waiting, gracefully nodding and bowing. These are the adjectives and adverbs. They are supposed to serve the royal family and sometimes even to help each other. Prepositions are like pages; they summon other parts of speech into the circle. Conjunctions are like servants also, because they are always busy putting things together about the palace. An interjection may be likened to the Court Crier, who shouts out loud the news. Some people liken the interjection to the Court Fool! He is mostly in the way.

The Queen, almost always accompanied by her husband, the King, or by a Prince or a Princess, attended usually by gallant

Gentlemen or Ladies in Waiting and surrounded by Pages, rules over the Court Circle. (24c:231-232)

Did you notice the twin traffic officers in the story of Bowser and his little visitor? The twin traffic officers look like this: ". They are called *quotation marks*.

Quotation marks tell the reader to listen — someone is talking. One pair of marks is placed at the beginning of what is being said, and another pair is placed at the end. Here is an example.

"Please tell us another story," said the children. (27b:107)

Short catchy poems were sometimes used, a few examples of which have been given in the section on the use of quotations. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) used this method of teaching present and past tense.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

The pirate tore
His hair and swore
At men who wore
Their swords ashore.

When did the action of the above lines take place? Every reader knows that the action took place at some time in the past. The verb forms *tore*, *swore*, and *wore* indicate past time. These forms are called the *past tense*. *Tense* means time. (26e:189)

Does the action of the following lines take place in the past or in the present? Which words give you the answer?

She sadly swears
That no one cares
How much she tears
The clothes she wears.

The forms *swears*, *tears*, and *wears* are called *present tense*, which means that they tell of action which takes place at the present time. *Swears* is used only when its subject is singular and is neither the person speaking nor the person spoken to. (26e:190)

One of the favorite ways of teaching careful pronunciation was in the use of tongue twisters.

Tongue-twisters are good for exercising the muscles with which you speak. It is necessary to be slow and deliberate at first in order to utter the sounds correctly, but after practicing a while you can repeat every word without stumbling. How many of the following combinations can you repeat without stumbling? Say each rapidly after first trying it slowly:

Rubber baby buggy bumpers.
A canner, exceedingly canny,
One morning remarked to his granny,
"A canner can can
Anything that he can;
But a canner can't can a can, can he?"

(27f:35-36)

The same psychological principle of teaching new content in familiar and interesting circumstances was found in the *Adventures in English*

27a:116-117

Study 42. More "n't" Words

Hasn't is a shorter way of saying *has not*. *Haven't* is a shorter way of saying *have not*. We follow the same rules in using *hasn't* and *haven't* that we follow in using *don't*, *aren't*, *doesn't*, and *don't*. These are the rules:

Use *has* and *hasn't* when speaking of only one person or thing.

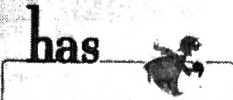
He has gone.
John *hasn't* come.

Use *have* and *haven't* when speaking of two, or more persons or things.

We have eaten.
The girls *haven't* finished yet.

Always use *have* and *haven't* with the words *I* and *you*.

I have been there.
Have you ever played tennis?



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Special Practice

I. Copy these sentences, using *has* or *have* in each blank.

- George ____ an Airedale dog.
- Do you ____ a dog, Nelson?
- I ____ a bull terrier.
- Dan and Jim ____ collies.
- ____ you ever seen an eagle?

II. Read these sentences aloud and use *hasn't* or *haven't* in each blank.

- I wish I could go, but I ____ time.
- Julia says that she ____ been invited.
- ____ you been invited yet?
- I ____ been, but I am expecting to be.
- Who ____ seen an elephant?

III. Copy in your notebook the rules for *has*, *have*, *hasn't*, and *haven't*.



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(approximately two fifths size)

Fig. 15. A catchy way of teaching the use of the apostrophe in contractions.

series (1939-1944) in the use of cartoons for illustrating points of grammar or usage (see Figure 15). The presenting of material according to this principle has taken many other forms in recent texts, and promises to increase in popularity.

Personal element. — With the growing interest in making texts attractive to the pupil has come a greater understanding of the child as an individual, and with that understanding has come a sort of comradeship between the author of the text and the pupil whom he is attempting to instruct. This has led to a friendly, helpful point of view in the books which may be described as a personal element.

This personal quality did not enter texts to any extent until the 1930's. Authors had tried to secure such an attitude in the early years covered by this analysis, but without much success. One means used was that of giving directions in the first or second person instead of the more formal third person. However, this method failed because the pupil was always kept on the level of an intellectually inferior being, who was "told" what to do. Instructions often began with some such phrases as, "Let the pupil be required to . . ." (10:214). Once in a while there was a note of exasperation, not so much with the pupils as with other grammarians who did not happen to agree with the author. Kirkham (1823), for instance, made the statement:

Now, five grains of common sense will enable any one to comprehend what is meant by case. Its real character is extremely simple; but in the different grammars it assumes as many meanings as Proteus had shapes. (4:41)

Though not directed at the pupil, remarks like this did not add to a feeling of friendliness, and the author's assurance that his own ideas on the subject were correct led to a lack of consideration for others that prevented a true understanding of his pupil's problems.

The first grammar to show clearly that the author had a sincere desire to help the pupils individually with their problems was the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934), which often made suggestions as to "how to improve." Such comments were found as "You will find that you will do better in school if you will think of both your writing and your spelling in all the work you put on paper" (24a:161).

Even in this series the personal element entered in only here and there. Much of the instruction still had the teacher-pupil relationship found in the texts of the nineteenth century. In the last two series analyzed, however, the attitude of the author toward the student, for whose benefit he was preparing the text, was that of friend to friend.

In some of the recent texts, correct usage was taught not solely from the standpoint of correctness and conformity with rules, but also from the angle of courtesy and social correctness. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), for example, brought this out in the following:

Have you noticed the polite way in which a man always lets a lady go first when they enter a room or an automobile? When you have candy to share with your friends, do you always offer it to them before you take a piece yourself? One of the best ways to be polite is to remember "Others first."

When you speak of someone else and yourself, you will speak politely if you will speak of the other person before you speak of yourself.

The Polite Way

You and I
Jack and I
He and I

The Wrong Way

I and you
I and Jack
I and he

It does not make any difference whether you are a girl or a boy. Always say the name of the other person first. (26a:88)

This text also included helpful hints about study habits, advice concerning the learning of the names of people, and suggestions as to friendly ways of meeting different situations in everyday life:

Whether you study at home or at school, you will find that your work will be easier if you have regular habits of study. Have you ever noticed how walking seems easier when you walk in step with someone? It is the same with work. Rhythm counts. Make up your mind to do your studying at a regular time every day and to work for a certain number of minutes. (26e:25)

Part of your vocabulary is your list of names of people whom you know. This is a very important part of your

vocabulary. Successful people are often those who know many people by name. (26e:12)

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) used a clever means in the fourth grade book of making the pupil feel his text was his friend. In the front of the text it included a message written to the student, supposedly by the book itself:

Let's Get Acquainted!

I am only a book. Look at me for just a few minutes. Look at my cover, glance through my pages. Please do it right now before you read any more, but come back here when you have finished.

What did you really see? Let me tell you, please. All you really saw was some cloth, some paper, and some dried ink.

"Oh," you may say, "you are wrong. I saw letters, numbers, words, sentences, pictures, stories, exercises, poems, letters, and many other things."

Yes, you did see all these other things, but your mind had to help you. If you had not learned to read, these letters, the pictures, and all the other marks of language would be just so much ink, wouldn't they? I would be only so much cloth and paper. Language gives me meaning.

My two authors made me so I can help you in your language study. They want you to know me as well as you can. I have a title page, a copyright page, a message for your teacher, a table of contents, a fine list of books for you to read, a list of words to spell, and an index. Find each one of these parts of me, and talk about them with your classmates. When you have finished discussing them, you will be ready to start Study 1.

I hope you will enjoy using me very much. (27b:x)

Instruction in this text and in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) was seldom dogmatic. In teaching correct usage, for example, the pupil was usually informed of the type of error commonly made:

Look at the word l-i-b-r-a-r-y. How many *r*'s are there in this word? Are you careful always to pronounce both of these *r*'s when you say this word? Some people do not pronounce the first *r*. They say *liberry*. This is not correct. (26b:184)

The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) stressed the need for relaxation, and throughout the books was found material for restful reading or suggestions as to other means of relaxing. These sections began, "It is time for another study recess. This time we shall have a radio recess" (27b:149), or "It's time again to stretch the play muscles in our minds" (27b:151).

Thus the idea of working and playing together was carried out in this series. Such a close personal relationship was built up between authors and pupils that, when the school year ended and the pupils had completed the work of another grade, the authors wished them well:

With all best wishes for a happy vacation,
David Sinclair Burleson
Laurie Cash (27d:276)

Mechanical Form in Which Material Was Presented

Teaching content was presented in a number of forms through the years, the popularity of the form used and the variations adopted being in keeping with the general method of teaching in vogue at the time. Some means of presenting material were used only during certain periods, while others were found in texts of every period. Among the more common forms used are those given in Table X.

TABLE X. PERCENTAGE OF PAGES IN GRAMMAR TEXTBOOKS ON WHICH EACH MECHANICAL FORM OF PRESENTATION WAS FOUND

Form of presentation	Books of first period	Books of second period	Books of third period	Books of fourth period	All books
Exercises.....	22	43	35	35	35
Examples.....	28	53	40	25	32
Questions.....	13	22	18	16	17
Illustrations.....	1		6	28	16
Definitions.....	14	25	14	9	12
Rules.....	31	22	9	7	10
Notes.....	30	19	15	2	10
Review, drill, tests.....	3	1	8	17	10

According to Table X, the most decided drop in popularity of any of the means of presenting material was in the use of notes. As many as 30 per cent of the pages in textbooks published during the first period contained notes, while only 2 per cent of those in the last period used them. Rules also lost favor during the years covered by this study, dropping from 31 per cent in the first period to only 7 per cent in the last. Illustrations, on the other hand, came into use during the 150 years. During the first period pictures were on only 1 per cent of the pages, all in Dilworth's text (1740), while in the last period 28 per cent of the pages were illustrated. Although review, drill, and tests did not make as great a gain as did illustrations, this means of presentation also was used much more often toward the end of the period covered by this analysis than at the beginning.

Exercises.—So many different types of exercises were found in the various texts that it would be impossible to discuss them all separately. A few of the principal ones should be pointed out, however, in order to show changes that took place in this type of material.

A kind of exercise to appear in the very early textbooks was that of false syntax, or sentences to be corrected according to the rule of syntax under which they were given in the book. Authors of the first texts analyzed not only used this kind of exercise almost exclusively, but they sang its praises:

To demonstrate the utility, and enforce the necessity, of exercising the learner in correcting *false Syntax*, I need no other argument than the interesting and undeniable fact, that Mr. Murray's labours, in this department, have effected a complete revolution in the English language, in point of verbal ac-

curacy. Who does not know, that the best writers of this day, are not guilty of *one* grammatical inaccuracy, where those authors who wrote before Mr. Murray flourished, are guilty of *five*? And what has produced this important change for the better? Ask the hundreds of thousands who have studied "Mr. Murray's exercises in False Syntax." If, then, this view of the subject is correct, it follows, that the greater portion of our philosophical grammars, are far more worthy the attention of literary connoisseurs, than of the great mass of learners. (4:35-36)

In almost every book in which false syntax was found, these exercises were included under the rule which applied, or, if they appeared at the end of the book or of the section on which they were based, the student was directed to the proper rule, so that he would make no mistake.

The errors in exercises in false syntax were often so obvious that a student who failed to correct them properly would probably have failed at anything, for an understanding of the rule was not even necessary. For instance, exercises found under the rule concerning double comparatives and superlatives in Bullions' *English Grammar* (1834) included the following:

It argued the most sincerest candor to make such an acknowledgement. After the most strictest sect of our religion I lived a Pharisee. He always possessed a more serener temper. 'Tis more easier to build two chimneys, than to maintain one. (7:115)

The plan of always giving the rule which applied was not wholly acceptable to some of the authors. Brown (1823), for example, gave many of his exercises under designated rules, but he also included some "Promiscuous Examples of False Syntax" with the statement, "It is here expected that the learner will ascertain for himself the proper form of correcting each example, according to the particular Rule or Note under which it belongs" (5:214).

Several authors included "promiscuous examples," but the later ones did not give the pupil assistance in discovering and correcting errors in the exercises. All exercises were of a rather serious type, even when short sentences were used.

Promiscuous examples of false Syntax, to be corrected by the rules and notes.

.....
Teach me to feel anothers woe.
By exercising of our memories they are improved.
Wisdom and virtue is superior to every other endowment.

(3:128)

False syntax was a popular form of exercise throughout the early 1800's, but later its desirability began to be questioned. Hyde (1888-1896) was among those who said that "it is believed that incorrect forms should not be placed before children" (16a:iv). By 1875 this type of ex-

ercise had been dropped entirely, although for some time after this authors continued to explain that they had omitted it intentionally.

Contrary to popular belief, the type of exercises known today as new-type questions are not new. Brown, in 1823, used the completion exercise in much the same way as it is used today. In the study of prepositions, he included the following exercise:

Insert suitable prepositions in the place of the following dashes: Plead the dumb. Qualify thyself action study. Think often the worth time. Live peace all men. Keep compass. Jest not serious subjects. Take no part slander. Guilt starts its own shadow. (5:123)

Smith (1832) also used this type of exercise, but he was sometimes so indefinite as to be a little confusing, as, for example, when he said, "Will you fill up the following with one or more words that will make sense?" (6:60). Greene (1853) made the mistake of including too many blanks in such exercises as "..... fades" (10:115). Most authors, however, made very good use of the completion exercise, a form that has been popular in texts up to the present time.

A deviation from the true completion exercise was used in many of the texts of the twentieth century. In this form, instead of inserting a blank, parentheses were used, with both the correct and the incorrect forms of the word given. The pupil was supposed to underline the correct form or cross out the incorrect form. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) made another variation on this form, either placing the word (usually a verb) at the end of the sentence and asking the pupil to write the correct form of that verb in the blank in the sentence, or using the blank with the first letter of the word to be filled in. In the latter case, the sense of the sentence would be such that there could be no doubt as to the word to be used, the correct form being the only question involved.

In the most recent of the texts, exercises involving a choice of words were put in the form of a story instead of in sentences not dependent upon one another for their full meaning. The interest element in such exercises attracted the child's attention to the point where he noticed the thought as well as the problem involved and thus was made to see a value in correct usage beyond that of merely answering the question correctly.

Rewrite the following story, choosing the correct word in each case:

Granddad's First Skating Experience

Nothing (ever, never) pleases Granddad better than to go along with (us, we) boys on one of our trips, (without, unless, except) it (is, are) to tell about his boyhood experiences. During the recent cold spell, when the big pond (froze, frozen) over, we (went, gone) skating and invited Granddad to go along, for he looked (like, as if) he wanted to go. When he (seen, saw) that (we, us) boys (were, was) (real, really) anxious for him to go along, he gladly accepted and soon (fell, fallen) (in, into) one of his jolliest moods.

"I wonder what kind of skater you (was, were) in your young days, Granddad," inquired Bill, who (was, were) rather proud of the capers he (himself, hisself) could cut on the ice. (27e:148)

Oral exercises were first introduced into grammar texts about 1830. Brown (1823) mentioned them, but scarcely used them, and Smith (1832) used them only as a teaching device. By the middle of the century, however, oral exercises were commonly found in texts. Greene (1853) explained their use:

An oral exercise, in which it is supposed that the learner is about to enter upon a new field of inquiry, is first given. In this nothing is to be taken for granted, nothing presented dogmatically The way is thus prepared for the definitions which immediately follow. They give expression to the very distinctions which, in the oral exercise, the pupil has learned to make. (10:vi)

When first adopted by textbook writers, the type of oral exercise included in texts was definitely a part of the inductive method of teaching and was so different from the oral exercise used today that an example is included here:

Notice what I write: "John took John's hat, and put John's hat on John's desk." Do you think this is a correct sentence? *Ans.* — No, sir, we do not. What words are unnecessarily repeated? *Ans.* — "John" and "hat." Write the sentence on your slates as you think it should be written. Sarah, you may read what you have written. (Sarah reads "John took his hat, and put it on his desk." The teacher writes it on the blackboard.) Now, the words used in the place of "John" and "hat," are called *Pronouns*, which means "instead of nouns." What shall we call all words used instead of nouns? *Ans.* — Pronouns. (12:49)

Oral instruction of this type was not found in the later texts, although most of the books introduced part of their exercises with some such statement as "Tell," "State," or "Select." In such cases it was probably left up to the teacher to decide whether the pupils were to do them orally or on paper. Only two texts, the Hyde series (1888-1896) and the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914), arranged their material under the headings "Oral Exercises" and "Written Exercises."

A common use of the type of oral exercise in the early 1900's was to help impress upon the child the correct form of an often misused word. For example, after a list of short sentences on the use of a pronoun as the predicate nominative, Robbins and Row (1907) said: "Repeat the above sentences until you can say them from memory. It is better to repeat them aloud, so that the ear becomes accustomed to the correct form" (19a:144). The Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) used a similar exercise for teaching "It is I," telling the pupils to "ask and answer the following questions aloud until the form of the replies seems perfectly natural" (20a:204). This was followed by "Who is there?" and similar questions.

In the last 60 years, oral work received its greatest emphasis in the field of composition and story telling, and, since the beginning of the century, it appeared most often in connection with activities of various kinds, such as club meetings, programs, and so forth.

About the middle of the century suggestions were found in a few texts for carrying on exercises on the blackboard or on slates. Pinneo (1850) included some of these, introducing them with some such statement as, "Those exercises which admit it, should always be *written* on a slate or blackboard, or on paper" (9:10). Greene (1853) suggested that the teacher "let the scholars exchange slates, and correct each other's errors" (10:xv).

Blackboard work was also mentioned in Kerl's text (1864), but it did not appear again until the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914). Since that time a few exercises of this type have been found in most of the texts.

Dictation as a form of exercise was introduced by Hyde (1888-1896), who used it particularly in the teaching of correct form in letter writing, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Sentences or paragraphs were read to the pupils, who were to write them on their papers correctly. Most of the grammars published during the twentieth century included dictation, the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) and the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) giving it the most emphasis.

Copying, which was, in a way, a kind of dictation, since the form of the material to be reproduced was already set up for the pupil, was introduced by Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877), but it did not become very popular. Exercises were selected which contained a great deal of detail, so that the pupil could be graded on many points.

Pupils may be required to copy choice selections from literature, and to note carefully capitals, punctuation, and the use of adjectives, etc. We offer the following exercise as a specimen:

We piled with care our nightly stack
Of wood against the chimney-back, —
The oaken log, green, huge, and thick,
And on its top the stout back-stick;
The knotty fore-stick laid apart,
And filled between with curious art
The ragged brush; then, hovering near,
We watched the first red blaze appear,
Heard the sharp crackle, caught the gleam
On whitewashed wall and sagging beam,
Until the old, rude-furnished room
Burst, flower-like, into rosy bloom.

Whittier. — *Snow-Bound* (13a:59-60)

Copying was not found in many texts, however. Presumably it was dropped because, while similar to dictation, it was less desirable in that it did not call for as much understanding of rules and form.

Hyde (1888-1896) was the first to include exercises for memorization. While pupils had always been expected to memorize the rules and definitions in their texts as a part of their grammar teaching, the type

of memorization included by Hyde was entirely different, for its purpose was that of teaching children examples of beautifully written English within their range of comprehension. The value of this type of exercise was recognized, and passages to be memorized were included in most of the texts published since Hyde's time, but few texts gave it as much emphasis.

Now and then in exercises the pupil was told not only what kind of errors to look for but also how many. Pinneo (1850) did this in a note at the bottom of the page, in which he stated that, "of the preceeding examples, *six* are correct" (9:186). Other authors, however, made this helpful information a part of the directions.

Direction. — *Two of the sentences below are correct. Give the Cautions which the other sentences violate, and correct the errors.* — (13b:157)

Five of the following sentences are correct and five are wrong. (25:173)

Exercises of many other kinds were found in the texts, most of them applicable to only a certain type of content. Perhaps the largest group of such exercises was that based on the sentence, since there were so many angles from which such study could be taken up. In the earliest of the texts, exercises based on the sentence were almost invariably in the form of parsing or sentence analysis. Selections for this purpose were often quoted and usually long and involved, as can be seen from the following:

"Let gratitude in acts of goodness flow,
My love to God, in love to man below:
Be this my joy, to calm the troubled breast,
Support the weak, and succour the distress'd;
Direct the wand'rer, dry the widow's tear,
The orphan guard, the sinking spirits cheer.
Though small my power to act, though mean my skill,
God sees the heart, he judges by the will." (3:143)

The common fluency of speech in many men, and most women, is owing to a scarcity of matter and scarcity of words; for whoever is a master of language, and hath a mind full of ideas, will be apt, in speaking, to hesitate in the choice of both; whereas common speakers have only one set of ideas, and one set of words to clothe them in, and these are always ready at the mouth. So people come faster out of a church, when it is almost empty, than when a crowd is at the door. — *Swift*. (8:250)

When we see one word of a frail man on the throne of France tearing a hundred thousand sons from their homes, breaking asunder the sacred ties of domestic life, sentencing myriads of the young to make murder their calling, and rapacity their means of support, and extorting from nations their treasures to extend this ruinous sway, we are ready to ask ourselves, Is not this a dream? and, when the sad reality comes home to us, we blush for a race which can stoop to such an ab-

ject lot. At length, indeed, we see the tyrant humbled, stripped of power, but stripped by those who, in the main, are not unwilling to play the despot on a narrower scale, and to break down the spirit of nations under the same iron sway. — *Channing*. (13b:275)

The first evidence of having pupils construct sentences rather than tear them apart in order to show their understanding of sentence structure came in Smith's text (1832):

SENTENCES TO BE WRITTEN.

Will you compose a sentence exemplifying Rule VIII.? One, Rule IX.? X.? XI.? XII.? XIII.? XIV.? Will you compose a sentence *on the use of the dog?* One, *on the clouds?* One, *on night?* One, *on wind?* One, *on snow?* One, *on hail?* One, *on ice?* One, *on skating?* One, *on fishing?* One, *on courage?* One, *on cowardice?* One, *on filial duty?* One, *on indolence?* One, *on schools?* (6:115)

Such an exercise as this was, of course, so restricted by the fact that certain rules had to be illustrated, that the pupil did not have much opportunity to be creative, nor did he necessarily prove his understanding of the rules since he could follow the pattern of the examples already set up.

It was not uncommon for pupils to be asked to draw upon a given list of words in making up sentences (11:10), to match the nouns and verbs in a given list and make correct sentences (13b:33), or to arrange scrambled sentences, like those found in the Reed-Kellogg (1875-1877) text:

Make a sentence out of the words in each line below:

He Sunday church goes the on to
Indians America intemperance are thinned the out of by
(13a:74)

Hyde (1888-1896) included many rather constructive types of exercises on the sentence, such as "write sentences containing the following words used as relative pronouns: — 1. *Who* with the antecedent *boy*" (16b:148) or "Use the words *it is* with *I, he, she, we, or they*, in answering the following questions: — 1. *Who is knocking at my door?*" (16a:119), or "Rewrite the following sentences, changing the verbs to the passive form" (16b:47).

One of the cleverest types of exercises on sentence writing was found in the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923):

121. Writing Sentences

Betty was asked the following questions in a test. Write the statement which you think Betty wrote in answering each question.

1. How many glasses of water should one drink each day?
2. Why should one eat plenty of vegetables?

3. How often should you brush your teeth?
4. How many hours do you sleep at night?
5. How much milk should a child drink each day?

Write a question about each of the following subjects: sunshine, sleep, breakfast, fruit, bathing, fresh air. Then exchange papers with a classmate and write the answers to his questions. Be sure to check your work. (22a:142)

After the beginning of the twentieth century there was more evidence of an effort to teach students to apply their knowledge of rules. Among exercises of this type were the following:

Point out the errors in the use of the possessive, and give the rule violated. (18b:95)

Copy the following sentences, using the right word from those in parentheses. Be prepared to explain your choice. (19b:258)

Prove that each of the following sentences contains all of the eight parts of speech except the interjection. (23c:212)

More than the mere understanding of sentence structure was tested in exercises. As the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) stated:

[Exercises] are not confined to practice that requires mere recognition of various grammatical elements, and to analysis and parsing; but they enter the borderland of composition in their constructive capacity. Thus, the pupil is required to change sentences from the natural to the transposed order or the reverse, to expand sentences by changing adjectives and adverbs to adjectival and adverbial phrases or clauses, and to gain through many other exercises the skill that leads to ease and force in speaking and writing. (20b:v)

The study of the sentence led to the study of words and their value in making a statement clear or interesting. This was, in a way, a phase of composition writing, yet it was also a part of sentence making. The later texts contained a number of exercises for the sake of helping the pupil express himself well, such as:

Write after each of the following verbs as many adverbs as you can think of to carry out the idea suggested by the words inclosed in parentheses; as,

I walked (so that I should disturb no one).

I walked noiselessly, carefully, lightly, gently, softly, quietly.

1. The boy whistled (as though he were happy).

2. She sang (in a way that gave pleasure). (20a:252)

The following sentences tell facts. By using picture words, make them interesting. The whole class may work together on these sentences.

For example:

"We heard the noise of the train," could be changed to, "Roaring and shrieking, the train thundered past us."

1. There is snow on the mountain.
2. My dog came to meet me.
3. The baby is crying. (26b:83)

Sentence structure also involved punctuation and capitalization, and a number of exercises were based on instruction in these two fields. One of the more common kinds of exercises was, of course, the printing of a sentence or passage without punctuation or without capitalization, and asking the pupil to mark it correctly. Examples of this were found in the very early as well as the very recent texts:

By doing or at least endeavouring to do our duty to God and man by acquiring a humble trust in the mercy and favour of God through Jesus Christ by cultivating our minds and properly employing our time and thoughts by governing our passions and temper by correcting all unreasonable expectations from the world and from men in the midst of worldly business habituating ourselves to calm retreat and serious recollection by such means as these it may be hoped that through the Divine blessing our days will flow in a stream as unruffled as the human state admits. (3:169)

Divide the following group of words into paragraphs, using periods, commas, question marks, quotation marks, apostrophes, and capitals properly:

the members of miss parkers class were discussing the choice of a biography to be studied by the class i think thomas edisons life would be interesting to read said clarence johnson why do we have to study about men most of the time asked marjorie lewis cant we read about some famous woman for a change at this point miss parker remarked dont you think the life of a famous man might be the boys choice and the biography of some noted woman might be the subject of the girls study it was decided that the boys would read the life of daniel boone and the girls would read the life of clara barton everyone in the class was satisfied with this plan. (26d:212)

A modern type of exercise, designed to make pupils realize the real use of punctuation in a sentence was found in the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941):

By adding, moving, or omitting commas, change the meaning of each of the following sentences:

1. Sam, hit the ball.
2. Put your hat on Donald.
3. The order was for ice, cream, chocolate, cake, and a dozen oranges. (26e:169)

In the early books, lists of correct and incorrect pronunciations were given instead of exercises in pronunciation. In the more recent texts, however, exercises were given covering the more difficult commonly used words as well as the short and often carelessly pronounced words. Robbins and Row (1907) included several such exercises, one, for instance, beginning, "Pupils may pronounce the words in turn from their books, or better, from the blackboard every day for a week"

(19a:64). The *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) included two lists, one made up of such words as "just," "can," and "catch," the other made up of short words rhyming with the correct pronunciation of these words. Pupils were to see whether they could pronounce the words correctly and then match them with the rhyming words (27a:45).

Beginning with the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) and continuing through the remaining years covered by this analysis, many kinds of exercises concerned composition and letter writing. At first topics for writing were assigned or suggested in the text. Later, much greater freedom in the selection of topics was allowed. Often a pattern as to form and organization was given, with a few guiding words as to what kind of subject matter to use in filling in that pattern. One of the more interesting exercises of this type, since it was different from the usual narration and description asked for, was the writing of a fable. An example was given and the pupil was asked to use it as a guide in writing his own fable.

100. ORIGINAL FABLES.

The Two Buckets

"How dismal you look!" said a bucket to his companion as they were going to the well.

"Yes, and with good reason," replied the other. "I was reflecting on the uselessness of our being filled; for let us go away ever so full, we always come back empty."

"Dear me! how strange to look at it in that way!" said the first bucket. "Now, I enjoy the thought that however empty we come, we always go away full." — Aesop.

Read the fable of "The Two Buckets" carefully. Using it as a model, write the two original fables suggested below. Imitate the model as closely as possible in style and in the arrangement of paragraphs.

Indent each paragraph and be especially careful to inclose in quotation marks all direct quotations.

I. *The Trees.*

Two trees.

They lose their leaves in the autumn.

They get new leaves in the spring.

II. *The Coasters.*

Two boys.

It is fun going downhill.

It is hard work climbing up. (20a:146-147)

Although the exercises discussed here give a general idea of the various types found in different periods and on different subjects, they include only a few of the many kinds found in the grammars studied. Numerous other interesting exercises could be cited, but most of these were merely a variation of a type already discussed.

Examples. — Whenever rules or principles of grammatical construction were given in textbooks, they were accompanied by examples

illustrating their application. The value of these examples was recognized throughout the years covered by this analysis, although it was during the second period that they received the greatest emphasis. Between 1835 and 1875 texts averaged at least one example on every other page, but during the first and last periods of the study only about one page in four contained such material.

Kerl (1864) explained the use and value of examples in a rather flowery but enlightening manner:

Illustrations and exercises are the natural and acceptable food of the young mind, and the proper relief to the essence of abstractions. Show a child the essence of roses in an apothecary's bottle, and he will hardly know it; but take him to the bush on which the roses bloom, and he will be delighted. In consideration of all these things, and of the favor with which the author's former views in the same direction have been received, he now ventures to offer the public a small manual in which the classification is exceedingly compact, in which all that belongs to the same topic is carefully grouped together; and in which every important subject has received the true, the best simplification, — that of illustrations and exercises, of the most beautiful, pithy, and practical kind. (11:4)

In the early texts a surprisingly large number of examples were quoted, many of them being selections from poetry. In the first few books examples were long and difficult to work with, the theory being that every possible phase of a subject should be shown, but it was soon realized that shorter examples were just as valuable. It would seem that authors thought it possible to help their students live a clean, moral life by selecting only philosophical, religious, or moral examples for their texts, for by far the largest proportion of examples in the early grammars were of this type. Many of the selections were sad and even morbid in thought, although there were a few in a lighter vein, such as "The rainbow on the clouds, is a beautiful sight" (3:14).

One of the first subjects included in grammars was that of parsing. Parsing was done in great detail, and usually the example used was one that included every part of speech. A favorite was the four-line poem:

O how stupendous was the power
That raised me with a word;
And every day, and every hour,
I lean upon the Lord. (7:74)

Bullions (1834) parsed this as follows:

O, an interjection — *how*, an adverb — *stupendous*, an adjective, in the positive degree, compared by more and most; as *stupendous*, more *stupendous*, most *stupendous*, — *was*, a verb intr., third person singular, imperfect, indicative, (agreeing with its nominative *power* here put after it) — *the*, an article, the definite, — *power*, a noun, neuter, singular, the nominative, — *That*, a relative pronoun, neuter, singular, the nominative, here used for *which*; its antecedent is *power*

— *raised*, a verb, trans. imperf. indic. active, third person, singular, (agreeing with its nominative *that*) — *me*, the first personal pronoun, masculine, or feminine, singular, the objective, (governed by *raised*) — *with*, a preposition — *a*, an article, the indefinite — *word*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective (governed by *with*) — *And*, a conjunction — *Every*, a distributive pronoun — *day*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective, (because the preposition *through* or *during*, is understood, or, obj restrictive §50.) — *hour*, a noun, neuter, singular, the objective (because *day* was in it, and conjunctions couple the same cases of nouns, &c.) *I*, the first personal pronoun, masculine, or feminine, singular, the nominative — *lean*, a verb intr., first person, singular present, indicative — *Upon*, a preposition — *the*, an article, the definite — *Lord*, a noun, masculine, singular, the objective, (governed by *upon*.) (7:74)

Some of the texts went into even greater detail, and the process of parsing became so intricate and time-consuming that several of the authors suggested a shortened form. Kerl (1864) was among those who wished to shorten syntax, but his method, like several others, gave the student more to memorize and an extra step to take in describing a term (that of changing the statement into an abbreviated form), so that in the end the shortened process probably took more thought even though it took less time to say in words and less space to print. Kerl illustrated his shortened syntax as follows:

Let *rv* stand for "regular verb;" *irv*, for irregular; *ta*, for transitive and active; *tp*, for transitive and passive; *int*, for intransitive; *im*, for indicative mood; *sm*, for subjunctive; *pm*, for potential; *ipm*, for imperative; *pr*, for present tense; *prp*, for present-perfect; *pt*, for past tense; *ptp*, for past-perfect; *fr*, for future tense; *frp*, for future-perfect; *em*, for emphatic form; *prg*, for progressive form; person and number, as heretofore; *ss*, for solemn style. Let *sp* stand for "simple participle;" *cp*, for complex participle; *i*, for infinitive; *pr*, for present; *pt*, for perfect or past; and use, as heretofore, the abbreviations for parsing nouns and adjectives.

Let them return better equipped

Let — *irv*, *ta*, *ipm*, *pr*, 2p, *sn*; and agrees with *thou*, understood.
Rule X.

Them — *pp*, *cg*, 3p, *pn*, *oc* — governed by *Let*. Rule IV.

Return — *i*, *pr*, *int*; and depends on *them*, and partly on *Let*.

Rule XI.

Equipped — *sp*, *pt*, *tp*; and belongs to *them*. Rule IX. (11:168)

All the early texts contained examples of analysis, and, like examples in other phases of grammar, they were usually quoted and almost always of a very serious nature. Brown (1823) used a passage from Dr. Chalmers:

"Even the Atheist, who tells us that the universe is self-existent and indestructible — even he, who instead of seeing the traces of a manifold wisdom in its manifold varieties, sees nothing in them all but the exquisite structures and the lofty

dimensions of materialism — even he, who would despoil creation of its God, cannot look upon its golden suns, and their accompanying systems, without the solemn impression of a magnificence that fixes and overpowers him." — Dr. Chalmers, *Discourses on Revelation and Astronomy*, p. 231.

Analysis. — This is a compound sentence, consisting of three complex members, which are separated by the two dashes. The three members are united in one sentence, by a suspension of the sense at each dash, and by two virtual repetitions of the subject, "Atheist," through the pronoun "he," put in the same case, and representing this noun. The sense mainly intended is not brought out till the period ends. Each of the three members is complex, because each has not only a relative clause, commencing with "who," but also an antecedent word which makes sense with "cannot look," &c. The first of these relative clauses involves also a subordinate, supplementary clause, — "the universe is self-existent and indestructible," — introduced after the verb "tells" by the conjunction "that." The last phrase, "without the solemn impression," &c. which subjoined by "without" to "cannot look," embraces likewise a subordinate, relative clause, — "that fixes and overpowers him," — which has two verbs; the whole, antecedent and all, being but an adjunct of an adjunct, yet an essential element of the sentence. (5:128-129)

Kerl (1864) carried his idea of shortened syntax into the field of sentence analysis also:

The father strove his struggling grief to quell,
The mother wept as mothers use to weep,
Two little sisters wearied them to tell
When their dear Carlo would awake from sleep.

A compound declarative sentence; consisting of three independent clauses, two of which have each a dependent clause. The last dependent clause is used as a noun, the object of *to tell*. S = C, C, Cc. (11:199)

The transposing of sentences was another phase of teaching which was found in most of the early texts. In the first grammars this was usually taught from the point of view of showing the student how to rearrange his words in a sentence in order to make them have a certain effect. In the later books it was more often included with the idea of helping the pupil make his meaning clear by placing modifiers near the words they modified. It was, of course, very simple to illustrate the latter type, by giving an example of a poorly constructed sentence, such as "I found a cent walking over the bridge" (13a:116). The older type of transposition, however, required a longer and more involved statement as an illustration. It was not uncommon in early grammars for selections from poetry to be used for this purpose:

Address to the Almighty. — Pope.

What conscience dictates to be done,
Or warns me not to do,
This teach me more than hell to shun,
That more than heav'n pursue.

Transposed

O God, teach thou me to pursue that (*the thing*) which conscience dictates to be done, more ardently than I pursue heaven; and teach thou me to shun this (*the thing*) which conscience warns me not to do, more cautiously than I would shun hell. (4:167)

Besides the use of "models" to direct the pupil in carrying on some rather complicated process in grammar, examples also illustrated the less involved phases of grammar. Among these, the principal parts of verbs, both regular and irregular, were always included. As might be expected, in light of the fact that English grammars were developed so closely along the same pattern as the Greek and Latin, the example used almost invariably in the early texts to illustrate the conjugation of the regular verb was "to love." Time and again books carried the following illustration of the principal parts of a regular verb:

The regular active verb LOVE, conjugated affirmatively.

Principal Parts

<i>Present</i>	<i>Preterit</i>	<i>Imper. Participle</i>	<i>Perfect Participle</i>
Love	Loved	Loving	Loved

(5:75)

Another example found often in connection with verb forms was a Sentence illustrating the use of "shall" and "will." This example, "I will drown! Nobody shall help me!" (18b:179) was particularly effective because it attracted attention by being ridiculous when the incorrect forms were used.

In general, examples continued to include a number of Biblical quotations, and the use of proverbs increased considerably during the third period, probably because they had the educational and moral value of the older type of example and the advantage of the shortness of the newer type. A new type of example also entered texts about this time, that of statements of historical or scientific fact. This came at a time when educators were first attempting to correlate the various subjects in the curriculum, teaching history in the English course, English in the arithmetic class, and so forth. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) included many such statements as:

Were it not for the warm waters of the Gulf Stream, the harbors and the rivers of Britain would be blocked up with ice for a great part of the year. (13b:117)

Elizabeth's favorite, Raleigh, was beheaded by James I. (13b:208)

Hyde (1888-1896) used this type of example even in teaching correct punctuation:

1. Abraham Lincoln was the sixteenth president of the United States.
2. He was born February 12, 1809.
3. He died April 15, 1865. (16a:38)

Early in the twentieth century a new source of material for examples was drawn upon — that of statements selected particularly because they were within the range of the child's interests and experiences. The Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) was among the first to use actual examples of children's work.

Extensive use is made of models selected, some from the masters of English, some from writers of lesser note, and some even from school children's letters and compositions. (20a:v)

Other grammars adopted the same plan, and all the recent texts used examples that would attract the child's attention and impress him with the use of correct forms in language construction. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) illustrated, in a short story, how to use various forms of the verb "rise" correctly.

Notice how the different forms of the verb *rise* are used in the following paragraph. Notice also how the different forms of the verb *raise* are used.

The First Morning in Camp

We were up and stirring an hour before the sun *had risen*. We washed our faces in the icy water of a spring which *rose* beside the camp. Our tent, which we *had raised* with some difficulty the night before, was quickly taken down and rolled into a neat bundle. The smoky smell of frying bacon *rose* from the camp fire. Our horses, which *had been raised* in city barns, snorted nervously as they nibbled at the heavy grass which surrounded them. (26d:81)

Similarly, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) used lines from a fairy tale to illustrate correct punctuation (23b:18); the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) printed a selection showing what a page of a magazine would look like if it were not properly punctuated (24c:25); and the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) gave a clear picture of the difference between itemized facts and a well-written description using those facts, by quoting the two beside each other on the page.

Compare these two descriptions:

Height: 47"	Tall as a fence post, hefty as four pecks
Weight: 50 lbs.	of potatoes, his hair like the rising sun, with
Hair: red	freckled face and happy grin, Jim bore his
Eyes: blue	nine years lightly. (27c:201)
Age: 9 yrs.	

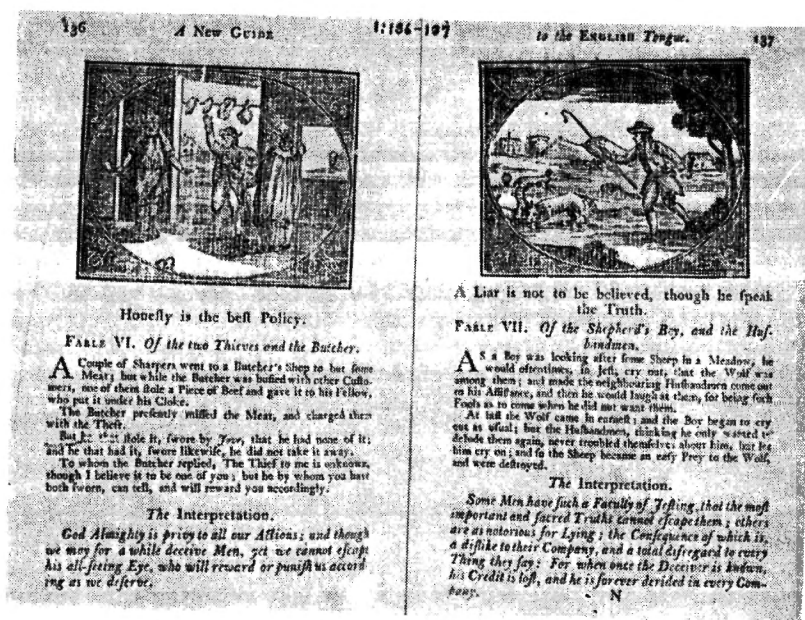


Fig. 16. Illustrations from Dilworth's *New Guide to the English Tongue* (1740).

(one half size)

hand-written letters, as examples of correct form in letter-writing. Many such letters were found in Hyde's text (1888-1896) and in most of the texts published since that time, but the more recent books have contained less material of this kind than did those published around the turn of the century.

Hyde (1888-1896) also included 11 human-interest pictures to be used as a basis for composition or story writing. As the authors of the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) said: "These exercises not only afford an opportunity for careful observation, but they serve to cultivate the pupil's power of invention and imagination" (20a:vi). The idea of including pictures for this purpose was very popular for a period of about 20 years, but since 1914 only two texts, the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) and the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), have used this type of material extensively.

The use of illustrations has grown very rapidly in popularity, with all except two of the texts of the twentieth century including them. These two, that by Lewis and Lynch (1918) and that by Daringer (1938), were the two designed for the upper grades and confined strictly to a study of grammatical construction. The great increase in the use of illustrations showed up particularly in the last two series published. Each of these contained approximately 700 illustrations, or almost one to every other page. In the *Step by Step in English* series

(1940-1941) a few of these were full color pictures but most of them were black and white sketches included for their interest value, while in the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) the majority were cartoons or sketches in black and one color.

A few photographs were included in six of the texts, all published recently. The first picture in full color was found in the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914), and two or three each were included in the *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) and the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944). The only text to have many full color illustrations however was the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941).

At first, illustrations were used almost entirely for instructional purposes. In fact, up to 1930 only about one out of 10 pictures was included solely for the purpose of adding interest to the text. However, the change to the use of pictures to make a text more attractive gained favor quickly when it came. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) was the first to include many interest pictures, averaging about one for every three instructional pictures. With the publication of the last two series analyzed, however, the proportion was changed, there being two or three times as many interest as instructional pictures.

Definitions. — Definitions were just as much an integral part of early grammar texts as were rules, each new topic being introduced by a rule and a definition. In introducing a new topic the rule was given first, then a definition of any terms that might be used in that rule, then an example of the application of the rule, and finally, exercises in its application.

While every text contained definitions, the greatest emphasis was placed on them in the second period, when about one page in four contained at least one definition. The percentage of pages containing this type of content was the same in the first and third periods, 14 per cent, but in the last period it dropped to 9 per cent. Bullions (1834) gave this form of presenting material the most space accorded it by any of the texts, and Whitney (1877) gave it the least.

Murray (1795) felt that definitions and rules, as stated in the grammars of his day, were difficult for the student to understand, and he tried to correct this weakness:

With respect to the definitions and rules, it may not be improper more particularly to observe, that in selecting and forming them, it has been the author's aim to render them as exact and comprehensive, and, at the same time, as intelligible to young minds, as the nature of the subject, and the difficulties attending it, would admit. He presumes that they are also calculated to be readily committed to memory, and easily retained. — For this purpose, he has been solicitous to select terms that are smooth and voluble; to proportion the members of the sentences to one another; to avoid protracted periods; and to give the whole definition or rule, as much harmony of expression as he could devise. (2:4)

Others, also, saw the problem of including involved statements for the pupil to memorize and apply in his study of grammar. Greene

(1853) even suggested that "it will be well at times to omit the definitions" (10:31), but of course neither he nor those who followed him carried out this suggestion to any great extent.

In every early textbook, the field of grammar was the first subject defined, so that the student could gain an idea of the subject matter he would find in his text. Most of these definitions were similar to that of Smith (1832):

English Grammar is the art of speaking, reading and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, with their classes and modifications.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification. (5:17)

Kirkham (1823) was less formal and more practical in his definition, and in this was far ahead of his times:

Grammar teaches us *how to use words in a proper manner*. The most important use of that faculty called speech, is, to convey our thoughts to others. If, therefore, we have a store of words, and even know what they signify, they will be of no real use to us unless we can also apply them to practice, and make them answer the purposes for which they were invented. Grammar, well understood, enables us to express our thoughts fully and clearly; and, consequently, in a manner which will defy the ingenuity of man to give our words any other meaning than that which we ourselves intend them to express. To be able to speak and write our vernacular tongue with accuracy and elegance, is, certainly, a consideration of the highest moment. (4:18-19)

Every part of speech, every part of the sentence, every punctuation mark, in fact, every topic taken up in the grammars was accompanied by a definition. Some of these in the early texts were very interesting:

Q. *What is a Colon?*

A. The *Colon* marked thus (:) is a Note by long Breathing, as is exemplified below.

Q. *What is the use of a Colon?*

A. It distinguisheth a perfect Part of a *Sentence*, which has a full Meaning of its own; but yet leaves the Mind in Suspence, and Expectation to know what follows. (1:87)

A Parenthesis is a clause containing some necessary information, or useful remark, introduced into the body of a sentence obliquely, and which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction; (6:192)

A *syllable* is a letter or letters pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and forming a word or part of a word; as, *I, man, though*.

A *word* is composed of one syllable, or more, and is used as the sign of an idea; as *man, manly, manliness*. (9:8)

After the inductive method of teaching entered textbooks, the attitude toward definitions changed somewhat. Wisely (1896) even went so far as to say that a teacher might change a definition if she thought she could state it better or if she did not fully agree with it as stated (17:5). No longer was a student started out with "a..... is a" Instead, he was led from the known to the unknown, so that often he understood what a new topic concerned before he learned the name of it. Examples of this method, taken from the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944), show how the pupil was made acquainted with conjunctions before he was told what such words were called:

Notice how the italicized words are used in the following sentences:

1. I shall eat an apple *and* a pear.
2. I shall eat an apple *or* a pear.
3. I shall eat neither an apple *nor* a pear.
4. I shall eat not an apple *but* a pear.

The words *and, or, nor, and but* are called *conjunctions*. A conjunction is a connecting word. A conjunction may be used to connect related words or related thoughts in a sentence. (26d:117)

In the story that Fred told about his trip to Mexico, he spoke of people, places, and things. As he spoke of them, he used name-words, or *nouns*. A noun is a word which names a person, a place, or a thing. (26b:18)

When people talk together, they talk about many things. One may tell what he is doing or has done, what he likes, or something that has happened to him. Another may tell what he has seen or heard, or what other people have said or done. Such talk between two or more people is called *conversation*. (27b:8)

This method was very popular in recent texts. Sometimes the definitions were so worded that the pupil did not realize he was learning a new term, but he understood its use so thoroughly that he had no difficulty in remembering it.

Rules. — In the early grammars every phase of instruction was set up by rule, and as long as the deductive method of teaching was in vogue, this rule almost invariably introduced the new topic. The examples and exercises were always labeled as to the rule involved, and sometimes as to the note or observation under a rule.

As Brown (1823) said, authors had the idea that "the only successful method of teaching grammar, is, to cause the principal definitions and rules to be committed thoroughly to memory that they may

ever afterwards be readily applied" (5:v). As early as the beginning of the nineteenth century, however, textbook writers were beginning to realize that "no advantage arises from burdening the memories of children with a multitude of precepts which they do not comprehend" (3:3), and therefore they increased the number of examples and exercises in the hope of clarifying the material and helping the student to remember it. The thought that they could have relieved the situation by reducing the number of rules seems not to have occurred to them.

In the early texts lists of rules were given under the topic to which they pertained and were usually numbered. Sometimes as many as 35 rules would be found under one phase of grammar, such as syntax. It is difficult to compare the texts on the basis of the number of rules in each because some authors generalized, including exceptions or minor uses of a rule as remarks or observations based on that rule, while others included each exception or use as a separate rule. Then too, in the newer texts rules were often repeated with slight modifications and considered as separate rules.

The percentage of pages on which rules were given dropped sharply, from 31 per cent in the first period to only 7 per cent in the last. The greatest decrease, a drop from 22 per cent to only 9 per cent between the second and third periods, came at a time when the inductive method of teaching was beginning to show a decided gain in popularity.

Every textbook analyzed, except that by Whitney (1877), included rules concerning punctuation, capitalization, and syntax. In the field of punctuation, most books gave from 10 to 20 rules for the use of the comma and from one to four each for the use of the period, the colon, and the semicolon. Brown (1823) also included two or three rules each for the dash, the parenthesis, and the exclamation point, rules that were now and then found in other texts, too. The grammars also averaged 10 rules each on the use of capitals and from 15 to 35 rules concerning syntax.

About three rules for the forming of plurals were found in every text except Wisely's (1896). Up to about 1875, grammars contained from seven to 11 rules each about spelling. In connection with this, from six to seven rules about syllabication were usually given also. However, there were very few rules concerning either spelling or syllabication in recent texts.

Great pains were taken to make everything fit into a pattern that could be introduced by means of rules. Dilworth (1740) went so far as to include seven rules "for promoting the strength of sentences" (2:360). Even as late as 1875, when the Reed-Kellogg text was published, rules were given a very important place in textbook organization. Sometimes, however, authors found it difficult to follow this pattern. Kerl (1864) seemed chagrined at his failure to make his rule for the use of conjunctions independent of his definition:

Rule XIV. — Conjunctions connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

This Rule is the same as the definition, — an imperfection that can not be easily avoided, for a satisfactory definition can not well be based on any thing but the syntax. (11:187)

A few of the old rules found in many texts of the early 1800's are particularly interesting because they no longer are accepted. Among these were the following:

Rule XVII. When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb, by a comma: as, "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men." "The first and most obvious remedy against the infection is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men." (2:263)

2. [Rules for use of capitals] The first word after a period; and, if the two sentences be *totally independent*, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

But if a number of interrogative or exclamatory sentences are thrown into one general group; or if the construction of the latter sentences depends on the former, all of them except the first, may begin with a small letter: (3:176)

The parenthesis generally denotes a moderate depression of the voice; and, as the parenthetical marks do not supply the place of a point, the clause should be accompanied with every stop which the sense would require, if the parenthetical characters were not used. It ought to terminate with the same kind of point which the member has that precedes it: as, "He loves nobly, (I speak of friendship,) who is not jealous when he has partners of love." (4:217)

In the latter half of the nineteenth century there was beginning to be some disagreement among the authors of grammars concerning the advisability of including so many rules. The coming of the inductive method of presenting material was, of course, the fundamental cause of this dissension because it stressed understanding rather than memorization. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) were not alone in their belief that "the regretful recollection of months and years spent . . . in the tiresome and unfruitful memorizing of iron-clad rules and unapplied principles has moved many more to decry the study of English grammar" (13b:4). Whitney (1877) also stated that "no one ever changed from a bad speaker to a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what he said" (14:iv).

As the inductive method and the tendency to "lead the pupil to form his own rules" gained favor (16b:75), fewer books set up numbered rules at the first of a topical discussion, but all texts continued to include them. The wording changed radically, however, so that in the newer grammars the style used was so different from that of early texts that the rules were hardly recognizable. No longer were they stated in a formal, dictatorial form. Instead, they became helpful and practical in nature.

By 1907, texts were asking pupils to make up their own rules after they had studied a certain phase of grammar until they understood it

thoroughly. This way of presenting rules was still used in the most recent of the texts analyzed.

Do you know the way to write the names of the months, the holidays, and the days of the week? Look at these words:

January Thanksgiving Day Monday

Now can you make a rule?

Begin the names of months, holidays, and days of the week with capital letters. (27a:38)

In this way a pupil was made to realize that there is a standard form to be followed in certain grammatical constructions. By the time he finally arrived at the rule involved, he not only realized the need for such a rule but he also had a background for its use that helped him remember it.

Notes. — Notes were found in every text except the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), but were given far more space in the first period than in any other. The percentage of pages on which notes were found dropped rapidly and steadily through the years, the first period texts having notes on 30 per cent of their pages, the second period on 19 per cent, the third on 15 per cent, and the fourth on only 2 per cent.

Smith's grammar (1832) had a proportionately larger number of notes than had any of the other texts, as 139 of its 192 pages included at least one note. Kirkham (1823) included notes on about every other page, and three or four other texts had as many as one to every four pages. The last text to contain a large percentage of pages with notes was the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877).

The majority of the notes were placed at the bottom of the page, but in a few of the books they were dropped into the text wherever they applied. Footnotes in books published in the first half century of this study were usually used for explanatory purposes or as a means of including references to the decisions of other grammarians concerning some of the finer points in grammar. These discussions often deteriorated into open criticism of the opinions of others on minor technical points. Brown (1823), who showed evidence of believing his own decisions to be superior to those of any other authority in the field, included many rather caustic criticisms of others. Some of his notes were extremely long, continuing from one page to the next, and many were not a necessary part of a text on grammar.

Notes addressed to teacher or pupil entered grammars about 1845. According to Butler, whose text was published at this time, they were used to help remove difficulties in syntax or parsing (8:3). While notes to the pupil were found in very few texts, notes to the teacher were a part of almost every grammar published up to 1926.

Notes were variously called "observations," "philosophical notes," "remarks," "notes to rules," "suggestions," "cautions," "hints," or "remember," the first few of these being found in the early texts and the others in the later books. In the last period, however, notes, where included, were seldom given a caption.

Reviews, drills, and tests. — In the early books, what was termed review amounted to approximately the same thing as the tests and drills in later books, as it was made up of questions on the material presented up to that point in the text. Later, when the terms "test" and "drill" were adopted, some books contained what they called "Review Tests" or "Drill and Review."

The exercises and questions already discussed were often given as a form of review, especially when they appeared at the end of a section of the book and covered the content of that division. Kerl (1864) included questions for review at the bottom of the pages, but usually indicated where the answer was to be found.

... In what relations may a noun or pronoun be used, in sentences (95)? What is a Rule, in grammar (95)? Repeat Rule I.; — II.; — III.; — IV.; — V.; — VI.; — VII.; — VIII.; — Note I.; — II.; — III.; — IV. What antecedents are singular (96)? — plural? (11:239)

Review became an integral part of textbooks long before drill and tests appeared. It was mentioned in books of all periods and was included to some extent in almost every grammar analyzed. Reed and Kellogg (1875-1877) mentioned, in connection with the study of the sentence, that in this phase of grammar "success depends largely on the character of the reviews" (13b:41). Nearly 40 years later, the Pearson-Kirchwey series (1914) stated:

Adequate repetition for the purpose of developing good habits of speech and writing is secured not only by means of the usual summaries and reviews but also through constant reminders of the points already taught, so that errors may be consciously avoided. (20a:vi)

By far the greatest emphasis on review, however, was found in the last two series published, the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) containing reviews at the end of each division of the work. By this time the word "review" was not as commonly used as it had been earlier. Various more "alive" terms were used, such as "Checking Up" (27c:129).

Although drill was given in only two books published before 1914, the Reed-Kellogg series (1875-1877) and the Robbins-Row series (1907), and on only one page in each of these texts, its value was recognized by some of the early authors. As Harvey (1868) said:

Neither the erudition of the teacher, nor the exhaustive completeness of the text-book used, can compensate for the lack of drill in the class-room. (12:iii)

Such material was included in the majority of texts but it was not called drill in many of the books. Often review material or tests were considered drill. Lewis and Lynch (1918), for example, stated in their preface that their text contained a greater amount of drill, to "establish

the essential habit of using the principles learned" (21:iii), yet when this material appeared in the text it was not called drill.

After 1923, however, every grammar except Daringer's (1938) included drill material, *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928) including it on 130 of its pages, and the *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) on 161 pages. In this latter series such material was referred to as "Skill Drills" and was, in a way, a form of review.

The value of drill in relation to other types of material in grammar texts was evidently a point considered by grammarians, for in the latest series published the statement is made that "the aim in all books of the series has been to supply a proper balance of social activities and drill matter" (27f:iii).

On the whole, there was very little difference between what authors included as test material and what they called drill material. Tests as we know them today, however, were not included in grammars until about 1923. In the early texts questions were given covering the material studied, but, except for the 14 pages in Brown's text (1823) which he titled "Examinations," these were more in the form of review than of actual tests. The Scott-Southworth series (1906) and the Robbins-Row series (1907) contained one test each, but the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) was the first to include test material of the kind found in modern textbooks. The *Daily-Life Language Series* (1934) contained more material of this kind than did any other grammar, but both of the most recently published texts gave space to tests.

At the time when the newer type of tests first entered textbooks, the *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) carried the following statement in its preface:

Experimental research studies have been made which show that a liberal use of tests greatly improves the quality of instruction in language and grammar and thus insures greater achievement. . . . The tests included have been made to fit the text and at the same time conform to the approved practice of the objective, or new-type, tests. They represent a variety of types. (22a:iv)

Included in the text were completion, true-false, matching, and other kinds of new-type test questions.

One of the main purposes of the tests in the later books was that of giving pupils an opportunity to check themselves on what they had learned, the idea being that a pupil is stimulated to greater effort when he is conscious of the progress he is making. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941) was particularly clever in this respect, suggesting that the pupils keep a notebook in which to write the things they had learned and the things they had not yet completely mastered. The pupils were then to "see how fast you can change things from the *I Am Learning* part to the *I Know* part" (26a:34).

Chapter VII

Summary

WHEN compared with the old-style grammar book of a century and a half ago, the modern English text seems at first glance to be an entirely different type of textbook. Not only is the book itself much more attractive in its physical appearance, but the subject matter has changed radically and the point of view from which it is presented is far removed from the pedantic, set method of attack found in the early texts.

English grammar, when first studied, was approached from the same angle as were Latin and Greek grammar. Although it was found very difficult at times to fit English constructions into the pattern of the older languages, no attempt was made to change the pattern set up. The terminology used in the study of the foreign languages was also carried over to the study of English. This treatment of English grammar was still in evidence in the first few texts analyzed in the present study, especially in Dilworth's *New Guide to the English Tongue*, (1740) which attempted to use the six cases of the Latin noun, the six moods of the verb, and so forth, in teaching the language.

Grammars were first written for those who had an interest in the subject as a philosophical study or for those who were in need of a good reference book on correct grammatical form. Among the intellectuals, there was considerable rivalry for the honor of being recognized as a good grammarian. Those who studied the subject often did so in order to improve their standing with this group, and authors of texts were inclined to encourage their students to seek the honor. As Kirkham (1823) said, after commenting on the value of studying grammar, "Go on, then, boldly, and with unyielding perseverance; and if you do not gain admittance into the temple of fame, strive, at all hazards, to drink of the fountain which gurgles from its base" (4:62).

Much of the technical grammar in textbooks was of a controversial nature, with philosophical discussions concerning certain rare or involved constructions. Many details were included in the texts because authors wanted to prepare a grammar to be used either without the aid of a tutor or with very little teaching assistance.

After public schools became rather generally established and children were required to attend, this type of grammar was no longer so desirable. Instead, the study became more practical, as students needed to know how to express themselves correctly and clearly rather than to understand the intricate mechanics of the language. The idea on which texts were written came to be that of leading the child to think his way through the subject and, still later, of giving him the grammatical information he would need in meeting everyday situations.

The changes in almost every phase of the physical make-up of texts

were very noticeable. Early grammars always appeared in one volume, the content being much too difficult for the beginner. However, since about 1900, most of the texts have been put out in at least two volumes, one for the lower grades and one for the upper. The two most recent of the grammars analyzed were published in six volumes, one for each grade from grade three through grade eight.

Modern texts were somewhat larger than were those in the early years covered by this study. Most of the books averaged from 200 to 250 pages to a volume, but the recent ones have shown a slight tendency to be larger. The length and breadth of the book have also increased, the size today being practically standardized at about 7½ inches in length and from 5½ to 6 inches in width.

In outward appearance, the texts have become much more attractive. The first of the books were covered in plain tan leather. Early in the nineteenth century paper covered cardboard was used for covers and publishers took advantage of the opportunity to print on the covers, giving not only the title and author, but much other information, sometimes including advertising. Shortly after the middle of the century, publishers began using cloth covered cardboard, a material that is still in use today. Decorative designs were put on the cloth covers and bright colors were used instead of the pale, grayed shades of the paper covers. In the last two series, each of the six volumes appeared in a different color.

Inside, the books made even greater improvement in appearance. In the newer books, the printed matter was set up in such a way as to make the pupil want to read the text. Most of the type was of a size that was easily read, and there was little variation in either size or kind of type, while in the older books many kinds and sizes were used, most of them being small. Margins were wider and material was no longer crowded on the page. Hyde (1888-1896) introduced the use of illustrations in making the book more interesting, and this idea met with such increasing favor that the last two series studied included illustrations on approximately half of their pages. Color appeared in the illustrations early in the twentieth century, and has been used to some extent in almost every grammar since.

Titles of texts became much less stereotyped and more inviting. While still short, those on the recent texts were worded in such a way as to show the pupil that the book contained something of use or of interest to him rather than that it merely gave information concerning grammatical constructions. Subtitles, which were very long and detailed in the early texts, were dropped altogether.

As has been said, the content of the texts changed radically. In the early books all content was pointed directly toward the teaching of grammatical principles and their application. Vast amounts of detailed information were given, including the discussion of many intricate and seldom-used forms. Grammar was always divided into four main divisions and was taken up in the same order: orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. Grammar was taught for grammar's sake, no attempt being made to add life or interest to the subject. The books were serious and formal. The examples and exercises used were usually based

on religion, philosophy, or moral precepts, and a weighty, gloomy, and often unhappy atmosphere permeated the entire text.

By the middle of the century, however, authors had begun to realize that a knowledge of correct construction does not give one an ability to use correct English in his everyday life. If instruction were to be practical, it had to be put more nearly on the level of the child's understanding and be so related to his daily-life experiences that he could see its value. Authors therefore began in earnest to simplify their texts. The old Latin and Greek constructions and terminology that had applied so poorly to English grammar were gradually discarded, and a simplified, more logical organization was used. The difficulty of breaking away from the traditional grammar caused confusion for a time. As Kerl (1864) said, when simplification first became pronounced, "some teachers are altogether for simplification; some, for condensation; and some, for nothing at all" (11:3).

However, by the middle of the century, the desire to give the pupil the ability to use the English language with ease and accuracy was taking precedence over that of giving him accurate information concerning the mechanics of grammar. With this change, of course, came the need for teaching an understandable grammar.

The emphasis on English usage focused attention on the use of language in all activities both in and out of school. Consequently, more and more attention was given to teaching the kind of English which would function in the child's life. At first, the emphasis was placed on the use of good grammatical form in classes outside the grammar class. Hyde (1888-1896) stated that "careful attention should be given to the language used by the pupil in all recitations" (16a:iii). Later, daily-life activities were brought into the course. The *Essential Language Habits* series (1923) claimed to teach correct language effectively through a "thorough-going utilization of conversation, letters, club work, debates, and other language activities" (22a:iii). The most recent texts have branched out still further. The *Step by Step in English* series (1940-1941), for example, stated that it drew upon "the language experiences of the home, the school, and the community at large, as they affect the child himself" (27a:iii).

About the beginning of the twentieth century, the subject matter in grammar texts broadened tremendously. Up to this time, as Wisely (1896) said, the study of grammar had "become largely a study of dry form; a mere classification of words; a kind of jugglery with symbols. What wonder that most boys and girls, with normal minds, hate it!" (17:23). While much of the traditional material continued to be found in texts, and grammar was still the main part of language study, it no longer dominated the texts. Composition, the first evidence of an attempt to guide the child into any creative use of English, entered texts about 1850. Shortly afterward, letter writing and, still later, story telling, were added.

The study of the sentence and of the parts of speech have always been given from one half to one third of the space in grammar texts. Sentence construction, however, gained decidedly in the last two periods of the study, while syntax, which dealt with the breaking down of the

sentence and its parts, dropped just as rapidly. In the later books, parts of speech were taught only in relation to their function in the sentence, while this relationship had not been emphasized at first. After the sentence as a whole came to be recognized as the unit of language, the emphasis was placed on its use as a means of expressing one's thoughts accurately and interestingly, rather than upon its mechanical make-up.

While the study of prose and poetry was given more stress in the later books, the emphasis in teaching was placed on the use of expressive English and on the understanding and appreciation of well written material. The study of words, too, received increasing emphasis, but the increase was almost entirely in those phases of words needed in developing a functional English. Foreign extraction of words, for instance, was seldom mentioned in later texts, while spelling and the use of clear or vivid descriptive words were given more emphasis than in the early days.

With the exception of letter writing, socially useful activities were seldom mentioned in texts before the twentieth century. However, in the last 20 to 25 years they have been given a great deal of stress. All kinds of everyday experiences have been called upon as means of teaching a functional English. The more recent books contain instruction in holding club meetings, planning programs, telephoning, making personal introductions, and so forth.

The purpose of teaching material of this kind was expressed clearly in *The Open Door Language Series* (1926-1928):

Through the medium of club activities, newspaper study, recreational reading, and various investigations based on community interests, the book gives the pupils a thorough training in English. Moreover, it develops in the members of a class a spirit of cooperation, and ability to lead, both of which are essential characteristics of the future citizens of our country. (23c:iii)

Fully as important as changes in content in bringing about the improvement of grammar textbooks were changes in methods of presenting the material. The early grammars were always very formal and logical. Material was introduced according to a set plan, with each new topic introduced with rules and definitions. This deductive method of teaching took no heed of the fact that the pupil was not necessarily interested in the subject he was studying or that he might be a mere beginner unacquainted with the terminology or with the simpler aspects of grammar.

Examples and exercises followed the rules and definitions and were always based on them, so that no particular understanding was required of the student. All he needed was an ability to apply a rule in a place where he was told it should be applied. Examples and exercises were often very long and involved in order that they might include every possible application and exception to a rule. Many were quoted, the majority of those in the early books coming from the Bible, although some also were taken from well-known writers in the field of literature. All such quoted material was on the adult level, the child's interests never being considered.

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Smith (1832) introduced the inductive method, a system based on the sound educational principle of building up from what the pupil already knew to what he was about to be taught. However, it was not until the middle of the century that this method was accepted generally. After that time, some form of the inductive method of presenting material was used in every text. No longer was a pupil confronted with a rule or definition before he had sufficient knowledge to interpret it correctly. Instead, his knowledge was built up gradually until he saw the application of a rule and the reasons for its use before he was given the rule itself. When this method first became popular, much teaching in various fields of education was done by the use of objects, as this gave a tangible basis for instruction. It was not found very successful in the field of grammar, however, and was soon dropped.

The topical method, which was the next major method of teaching to be adopted, took up subjects one at a time and completed the discussion of each subject before going on to the next. While this method was used rather extensively in the latter half of the nineteenth century, it was not very satisfactory because the pupil was led into involved material in one topic before he was taught the elementary phases of another topic.

In an attempt to overcome this difficulty, the spiral method was introduced, a method that is still used today. According to this plan, the pupil was taught the elementary phases of each topic, then advanced to the more complicated phases. Learning became cumulative, much emphasis being placed on review. The psychological principles involved were sound. When material was presented in this way, it was possible to divide the work by grades, and therefore studies were made to determine the amount of material that should be included in each grade.

The functional method, which became prominent in the 1920's and is more popular today than it has ever been, was really a form of the spiral method, but it dealt with a different type of subject matter. In the spiral method, the grammatical information taught, though simplified, was not radically different from that taught in texts a century earlier, but the form in which it was presented was, of course, very different. In the functional method, all kinds of new content intimately related to the daily life of the student were added to texts. Closely connected with such instruction was the teaching of courtesy, which was found as a phase of many of the activities included in the texts. Here the pupil was taught that correctness in language is not necessarily correctness in grammatical construction. It involves also good taste and the considerate or appropriate use of English as well.

Many techniques and devices were used in the textbooks. In the early books such things as parsing and analysis were more prominent, but more recently the emphasis was upon using "catchy" ways of introducing subjects and attracting the pupil's attention, and upon making the text as personal as possible. Simplification was a major means of making material more interesting, and the standardization of terms aided greatly in making it more understandable. Quotations were used throughout the texts, but in the early days they were always of a religious or

philosophic nature and were used to illustrate sentence construction, while in the later texts they were lighter and more entertaining and were used to introduce into texts a form of relaxation not too far removed from the subject of English teaching. Definitions, rules, and notes were common in early texts; in later books more emphasis was placed on illustrations and means of testing one's knowledge. Motivation, too, was given considerable thought in recent years. Here the need for a knowledge of correct speech in everyday life was emphasized, in the hope that the pupil, seeing the value of such knowledge, would be motivated to learn more in the field.

Every attempt was made in recent texts to show that grammar involves more than a study of form. Technical discussions were avoided, but pupils were taught certain definite standards of grammatical construction, so that they might have a basis on which to judge their own speech and writing. Emphasis was placed on clarity, beauty, and vividness of expression rather than on the technical phases of the sentence. As the *Adventures in English* series (1939-1944) stated: "Language is more than sounds and symbols. Man has breathed into it life and intelligence. The rhythm of creation animates it" (27b:iii). Authors today are making a sincere effort to help students to feel this vitality and force in language, and to make their use of English as effective as possible.

A List of Bulletins in the Field of Education Indiana University

By KATHLEEN DUGDALE

The School of Education at Indiana University has published the following bulletins. All of these may be obtained from the University Bookstore for 50 cents postpaid unless otherwise noted.

Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference (November 23 and 24, 1923). Vol. I, No. 1, 1924. 85 p. (Supply exhausted.)

Investigation of Nursing as a Professional Opportunity for Girls, Part I, Technical Study; Part II, Vocational Information Bulletin. By Florence E. Blazier. Vol. I, No. 2, 1924. 69 p.

Proceedings of the Eleventh Conference on Educational Measurements. Vol. I, No. 3, 1925. 141 p.

Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference (November 14 and 15, 1924). Vol. I, No. 4, 1925. 49 p. (Supply exhausted.)

First Revision of the Bibliography of Educational Measurements. Compiled by the Bureau of Cooperative Research. Vol. I, No. 5, 1925. 147 p. (Supply exhausted.)

Proceedings of the Twelfth Conference on Educational Measurements. Vol. I, No. 6, 1925. 76 p.

The Effect of Population upon Ability to Support Education. By Harold F. Clark. Vol. II, No. 1, 1925. 28 p.

Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference (November 20 and 21, 1925). Vol. II, No. 2, 1925. 77 p. (Supply exhausted.)

A Cross-Indexed Bibliography on School Budgets. By Harold F. Clark. Vol. II, No. 3, 1926. 66 p.

A Comparison of the Results Made on Certain Standardized Tests by Pupils in the Bloomington High School Who Were Taught in Classes of the Same Grade by University Student Teachers and by Regular High School Teachers. By Carl G. F. Franzén. Vol. II, No. 4, 1926. 19 p.

Proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements. Vol. II, No. 5, 1926. 103 p.

When to Issue School Bonds. By Harold Florian Clark and Paul Royalty. Vol. II, No. 6, 1926. 16 p.

Students' Attitude Toward Examinations. By Grover T. Somers. Vol. III, No. 1, 1926. 48 p.

Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference (November 12 and 13, 1926). Vol. III, No. 2, 1926. 27 p.

Index Numbers in School Administration. By Harold F. Clark. Vol. III, No. 3, 1927. 35 p.

Topical Analysis of 234 School Surveys. Compiled by the Bureau of Cooperative Research. Vol. III, No. 4, 1927. 111 p. (Supply exhausted.)

Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Conference on Elementary Supervision. Vol. III, No. 5, 1927. 64 p.

Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements. Vol. III, No. 6, 1927. 66 p.

Some Phases of the Junior College Movement. By I. Owen Foster, Harold F. Clark, Willard W. Patty, and Leo M. Chamberlain. Vol. IV, No. 1, 1927. 125 p. (Supply exhausted.)

Second Revision of the Bibliography of Educational Measurements. By Henry Lester Smith and Wendell William Wright. Vol. IV, No. 2, 1927. 251 p. (75c)

Bibliography of School Buildings, Grounds, and Equipment, Part I. By Henry Lester Smith and Leo Martin Chamberlain. Vol. IV, No. 3, 1928. 326 p. (75c)

Proceedings of the High School Principals' Conference (November 18 and 19, 1927). Vol. IV, No. 4, 1928. 54 p.