The Mother Tongue

Adapted for Modern Students

By
George Lyman Kittredge
Sarah Louise Arnold

Adapted for Modern Students
By Amy M. Edwards and Christina J. Mugglin

BLUE SKY DAISIES

The Mother Tongue, Book II, An Elementary English Grammar
By George Lyman Kittredge, Sarah Louise Arnold © 1901, 1908

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By Amy M. Edwards and Christina J. Mugglin © 2014

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FOREWORD

2014

THE MOTHER TONGUE

The Mother Tongue, Book II, An Elementary English Grammar is over one hundred years old, yet it still has a loyal following. For some, it is a supplemental grammar reference; for others, it is a primary grammar text used for students in the middle grades, somewhere between fifth and tenth grades. This text, written by George Lyman Kittredge and Sarah Louise Arnold, was originally published in 1901, but was published in a revised edition in 1908. It is known as *Book II* because its companion book *The Mother Tongue Book I* was written for younger children. *Book I* is not a prerequisite to *The Mother Tongue Book II*. Any further reference to *The Mother Tongue* will refer to *Book II* by Kittredge and Arnold.

Why republish a century-old grammar book? We were drawn to *The Mother Tongue* following the recommendation of grammarians who knew better than we, but we found the vintage format difficult to utilize in our homeschools. We wanted the excellent content of *The Mother Tongue*, but in a more readable, modern font and layout.

The written exercises in *The Mother Tongue* are excellent and unlike those found in any recent grammar book. The sentences in these exercises, most of which are taken from literature, are an outstanding ingredient of *The Mother Tongue*. Students with a sharp eye will recognize lines from Shakespeare, Bronte, Dafoe, and many others. These sentences not only give students challenging practice working with English grammar, they will expand their vocabulary and build writing skills.

We wanted our students to complete the excellent practice exercises, but found it particularly time-consuming for them to work the exercises from the old format. In republishing this classic, we wanted to bring these exercises to a new generation of students.

METHODOLOGY IN ADAPTING A CLASSIC

The reformatted and revised edition of *The Mother Tongue* that you hold in your hands, as well as the companion workbooks, is our answer. We preserved the original text of the first edition almost exactly, making only insignificant changes to make it more readable. We incorporated exercises and improvements from the 1908 revised edition. If you are a fan of the revised edition, you will notice that the structure of this book is patterned on the first edition, but the written exercises include improvements from the revised edition. We also have included the very useful appendices on capitalization, punctuation, and syntax that are found in the revised edition.

You will find all of the same outmoded (yet wonderful) terms and all of the same challenging exercises that were in the original *The Mother Tongue*.

Certain examples and student exercises will seem dated to today's students, but we have kept them intact. For instance, modern

grammar books have dispensed entirely with teaching students the pronouns *thee* and *thou* or the verb forms *shalt* and *wert.* This could be distracting, but we find that it is very valuable for students to understand these old forms of English, enabling them to read old books without fear. Likewise, *The Mother Tongue* uses old-fashioned terms such as "genitive case" for possessive case and "preterite," for past tense. These terms remain in place, with footnotes, margin boxes, or parenthetical reminders of what that term means. There is value in knowing these old terms, particularly for those students who will study other languages.

New features. We have added some features that we think modern students will find particularly helpful. **Margin boxes** contain definitions or summary information from chapters to make it easier to study and to remember the key information from that chapter. **New footnotes** throughout the text assist the teacher with unfamiliar terms that have fallen out of use.

We have also added **punctuation and capitalization practice exercises** to the student workbooks. Appendices on capitalization and punctuation rules, which are from *The Mother Tongue Revised Edition,* are included in the textbook. For students who need practice in applying punctuation and capitalization rules, our student workbooks contain extra practice exercises. We created these exercises by removing all capitals and punctuation from sentences taken from *The Mother Tongue* and from literature. Students are asked to copy the sentences, correcting all punctuation and capitalization.

THE COMPANION BOOKS

The Mother Tongue Adapted for Modern Students is a textbook with over 350 pages of grammar instruction, reference, and practice exercises.

The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 1 and *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 2* provide all of the written exercises in a consumable format. Students are given space to complete the work directly on the page.

The Mother Tongue Student Workbook Key 1 and *2* provide answers for the workbook exercises. Until now, no key has been available for *The Mother Tongue*.

FOR THE TEACHER

The Mother Tongue is organized by chapter. Main points in each chapter are divided into numbered sections and are often referenced by section number. The section numbering continues chronologically to the end of the book and are used as a handy reference. This section numbering comes directly from *The Mother Tongue* first edition.

Most chapters include written exercises so the student can put the concept into practice. Some chapters have more practice than others, and some chapters do not have written practice exercises.

Scope and Sequence. *The Mother Tongue* teaches students the fundamentals of English grammar, as well as advanced grammar concepts. Students learn parts of speech, sentence analysis, noun cases, verb tenses, inflection and syntax. The chapters are progressively more challenging.

The Mother Tongue is an ideal resource for your student after he has completed an elementary grammar program.

How to Use *The Mother Tongue*. Some homeschooling families prefer to use *The Mother Tongue* as an oral grammar resource, reading aloud the sections and working the exercises together, a little bit each day.

Others like to use *The Mother Tongue* as a primary grammar text. The text can be used for three to four years in the middle grades, beginning as early as 5th grade and taking a slow pace, or beginning in high school taking an accelerated pace.

We have taught our multiple-age kids *The Mother Tongue* together by reading the chapter aloud in a group after which students work the written exercises independently. Occasionally we work the exercises together orally only.

The Mother Tongue is also an excellent grammar reference book to keep on your shelf.

Managing the Workload

The exercises provide students with plenty of opportunity to sharpen their grammar skills. Some students will not require all of the exercises to master the skill or concept. As the teacher, you must feel free to assign the appropriate amount to your students.

In the following pages, we offer three paces: a three-year plan, a two-year plan, and an accelerated one-year plan. These paces are only a guideline to help get you started.

Amy M. Edwards
Christina J. Mugglin
Editors

Teaching Schedules

Three Year Plan

The three year plan covers the first half of *The Mother Tongue* in one year and the last half in two years. In this plan, the early lessons are assumed to be review and the pace slows down considerably as the more challenging concepts are introduced. Additional capitalization and punctuation practice exercises can be done at the teacher's discretion.

Year One: Complete *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 1,* which covers the first 75 chapters of *The Mother Tongue.*

Year Two: Complete chapters 76-110 of *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 2*.

Year Three: Complete chapters 111-143 of *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 2.*

Year 1: First Semester		Year 1: Second Semester		Year 2: First Semester		Year 2: Second Semester		Year 3: First Semester		Year 3: Second Semester	
Wks	Chap	Wks	Chap	Wks	Chap	Wks	Chap	Wks	Chap	Wks	Chap
1	1-2	11	37-38	1	76	11	93	1	111	11	128
2	3-4	12	39-40	2	77	12	94	2	112	12	129
3	5-6	13	41-42	3	78	13	95	3	113	13	130
4	7-8	14	43-44	4	79	14	96	4	114	14	131
5	9-10	15	45-46	5	80	15	97	5	115	15	132
6	11-12	16	47-48, Review	6	81	16	98	6	Review	16	133
7	13-14	17	49-50	7	82	17	99	7	116	17	134
8	15-16	18	51-52	8	83	18	100	8	117	18	135
9	17-18	19	53-54	9	84	19	101	9	118	19	136
10	19-20	28	55-56	10	85	28	102	10	119	28	137
11	21-22	29	57-60	11	86	29	103	11	120	29	138
12	23-24	30	61-62	12	87	30	104	12	121	30	139
13	25-26	31	63-64	13	88	31	105	13	122	31	140
14	27-28	32	65-67	14	89	32	106	14	123	32	141
15	29-30	33	68-70	15	Review	33	107	15	124	33	142
16	31-32	34	71-72	16	90	34	108	16	125	34	143
17	33-34	35	Review, 73	17	91	35	109	17	126	35	
18	35-36	36	74-75	18	92	36	110	18	127	36	

Two Year Plan

The two year plan covers *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 1* in one year, and *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 2* in one year. Students cover about two chapters a week. Additional capitalization and punctuation practice exercises can be done at the teacher's discretion.

Year 1: First Semester		Year 1: Second Semester		Year 2: First Semester		Year 2: Second Semester	
Weeks	**Chapters**	**Weeks**	**Chapters**	**Weeks**	**Chapters**	**Weeks**	**Chapters**
1	1-2	11	37-38	1	76-77	11	109-110
2	3-4	12	39-40	2	78-79	12	111-112
3	5-6	13	41-42	3	80-81	13	113-114
4	7-8	14	43-44	4	82-83	14	115-116
5	9-10	15	45-46	5	84-85	15	117-118
6	11-12	16	47-48, Review	6	86-87	16	119-120
7	13-14	17	49-50	7	88-89	17	121-122
8	15-16	18	51-52	8	Review, 90-91	18	123-124
9	17-18	19	53-54	9	92-93	19	125-126
10	19-20	28	55-56	10	94-95	28	127-128
11	21-22	29	57-60	11	96-97	29	129-130
12	23-24	30	61-62	12	98-99	30	131-132
13	25-26	31	63-64	13	100-101	31	133-134
14	27-28	32	65-67	14	102-103	32	135-136
15	29-30	33	68-70	15	104	33	137-138
16	31-32	34	71-72	16	105	34	139-140
17	33-34	35	Review, 73	17	106	35	141-142
18	35-36	36	74-75	18	107-108	36	143

One Year Accelerated Plan

This plan will help advanced grammar students quickly get through *The Mother Tongue* in one year. *The Mother Tongue Student Workbook 1* is covered in 12 weeks and *Student Workbook 2* is covered in the remaining 24 weeks.This plan assumes that chapters 1-75 will be review for the student. Additional capitalization and punctuation practice exercises can be done at the teacher's discretion. Students work about five days a week.

Week Q1	Chapters	Week Q2	Chapters	Week Q3	Chapters	Week Q4	Chapters
1	1-10	10	61-67	11	97-98	28	116-117
2	11-15	11	68-71	12	99	29	118-119
3	16-23	12	72-75	13	100-101	30	120-122
4	24-31	13	76-80	14	102-104	31	123-124
5	32-39	14	81-84	15	105-106	32	125-126
6	40-46	15	85-88	16	107-109	33	127-128
7	47-50	16	89-90	17	110-111	34	128-136
8	51-53	17	91-94	18	112-114	35	137-140
9	54-60	18	95-96	19	115	36	141-143

PREFACE TO THE ORIGINAL *MOTHER TONGUE BOOK II*

1901

The purpose of this book is to set forth the elements of English grammar in their relation to thought and the expression of thought. This object has been the guiding principle in the selection and arrangement of material, in the treatment of forms and constructions, and in the fashioning of the very numerous illustrative exercises.

The Introduction explains in simple language certain general conceptions too often ignored in the study of grammar: the nature of language, its relation to thought and to style, the processes which affect its growth and decay, the province of grammar, and the relation of grammar to usage. These chapters are intended to be read aloud by the pupils or by the teacher and to serve as the basis for informal discussion in the classroom. The pupil should not be allowed to study them mechanically. Above all things, he should not try to learn them by heart. The main principles which they embody are summed up in chapter 1, page 1, with which the definite study of grammar begins.

Chapters 2-58 deal primarily with the parts of speech and with their combination into sentences in the expression of thought. In this part of the book only so much inflection is included as is necessary for an understanding of the structure of sentences. As soon as the pupil has learned something of the nature of substantives and verbs, he is introduced to simple sentences, and from this point to the end of chapter 56, the study of analysis and synthesis is carried on in connection with the treatment of the parts of speech until all the main elements of sentence-structure have been exemplified. Chapter 57 sums up, by way of review, the analytical processes with which the pupil has become familiar in the chapters which precede.

With chapter 59 a more detailed study of inflection begins. This continues through chapter 115, and includes all the important phenomena of English inflection, which are explained, not as isolated facts, but as means of expressing varieties of human thought. The explanations are made as simple as possible, and this very simplicity necessitates a somewhat fuller treatment than is usual in school grammars. The paradigm of the verb has been much simplified by a careful discussion of verb phrases. A number of notes in fine type deal with some of the more striking facts of historical grammar, and may be used by the teacher at his discretion to illustrate the true nature of the forms and constructions of which they treat. The study of this part of the book implies constant reviews of the earlier chapters. For convenience, the point at which such reviews may be advantageously made is indicated in footnotes, but the teacher will of course use his own judgment. In particular, it will be found desirable to continue practice in analysis, and for this purpose abundant material is contained in the exercises appended to the several chapters.

A number of the more difficult syntactical questions are deferred until inflection has been mastered (see chapters 116-142). Their treatment at this point affords an opportunity for a thorough and systematic review of the structure of complex sentences.

The appendix contains a list of irregular verbs and other material intended for reference. The lists of irregular verbs may be used in connection with the lessons on the preterite and the participles (chapter 91-95). These lists differ from those furnished by most grammars in one important particular: they contain only such forms as are unquestionably correct in accordance with the best modern prose usage. Experience has shown that the attempt to include in a single list rare, archaic, and poetical verb- forms along with those habitually employed by the best prose writers of the present day is confusing and even misleading to the beginner.[1] Accordingly, such archaic and poetical forms as have to be mentioned are carefully separated from the forms regularly used in modern prose.

Exercises for practice are furnished in liberal measure. It is not intended that every pupil should necessarily work through all these exercises. Each teacher is the best judge of precisely how much practice his pupils require. The aim of the authors has been to provide such material in abundance and with due regard to variety.

In the choice of technical terms, the authors have preferred those names which are universally intelligible and have the authority of long-continued usage in all languages, to other terms which are scarcely seen outside of the covers of elementary English grammars. Thus, for example, the term genitive has been preferred to possessive. One advantage of this plan is that it does not isolate the study of our own language from the study of foreign languages. Here again, however, the individual teacher can best judge of the needs of his pupils. Hence the alternative terms are regularly mentioned, and they may be substituted without inconvenience.

The authors make no apology for employing certain shorthand grammatical terms which cause no difficulty to the youngest pupils. A studious effort to separate the name from the thing named, for example, may be important for the philosopher, but it is only baffling to the beginner. No real confusion of thought can ever arise from speaking of an adjective, for example, as "modifying, or describing, a noun," instead of always taking pains to represent it as "modifying the meaning of the noun" or "describing the person or thing for which the noun stands." Scientific grammarians the world over have given their sanction to such shorthand expressions, and they have been unhesitatingly used in this book whenever directness could be gained thereby. Surely there is no danger that the youngest child will ever mistake the word *apple* for the object which bears that name!

[1] See Appendix B.

INTRODUCTION

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

Language is the **expression of thought** by means of spoken or written **words**.

The English word *language* comes from the Latin word *lingua*,"the tongue," and was originally applied to oral speech. But the art of writing is now so common that it is quite as natural for us to speak of the **language** in which a book is written as of the language in which an address is delivered or a conversation carried on.

Many savage tribes (for example, the North American Indians) have a method of conversing in gestures without speaking at all. This is called the **sign-language**. All language, however, is really **the expression of thought by means of signs**; for spoken words are signs made with the voice, and written words are signs made with the pen.

Thus when we speak or write the English word *dog*, we are just as truly making a sign as an Indian is when he expresses the idea *dog* by his fingers. Our spoken or written sign for *dog* cannot be understood by anybody who does not know the English language; for different languages have different words, that is, different signs, for the same thing or idea. Thus the German word for *dog* is *Hund*; the Latin word for dog is *canis*, and so on.

Most **words** are the **signs** of definite **ideas**.

For example, *soldier, sailor, dog, cat, horse, tree, river, house, shop,* call up in our minds images of persons or things; *run, jump, write, travel*, suggest kinds of action; *red, black, tall, studious, careful*, suggest qualities belonging to persons or things.

By the aid of such distinct and picturesque words as these, we can express many thoughts and ideas; that is, we can talk or write after a fashion. But we cannot talk in a connected manner. If, for example, we wish to say that the house is on fire, we can express our thought imperfectly by saying simply, "House burn!" or "House! fire!" as a young child, or a foreigner who knew very little English, might do. But if we wish to express our thought fully, it would be natural to say, "The house is on fire." That is, besides the words that express distinct ideas, we should use little words, *the, is, on*, which do not call up any clear picture in the mind.

To express thought, then, language needs not merely words that are the signs of distinct ideas, but also a number of words like *is, was, in, to, but, if*, which serve merely to **join words together** and to **show their relations** to each other in connected speech.

The **relations of words to each other in connected speech** are shown in three ways:

(1) by their **form**;
(2) by their **order** or **arrangement**;
(3) by **the use of words** like *and, if, to, from, by,* etc.

I. In the phrase "John's hat," the **form** of the word *John's* shows the **relation** of *John* to the *hat*; that is, it shows that John is the **owner** or **possessor** of the hat.

II. Compare the two sentences:

John struck Charles.
Charles struck John.

The meaning is entirely different. In the first sentence, *John* gives the blow and *Charles* receives it; in the second, *Charles* does the striking and *John* gets hit. Yet the forms of the three words *John, Charles*, and s*truck* are the same in both sentences. In each case the relation of the three words to each other is shown by the **order in which they stand**; the word which comes first is the name of the striker, and the word which follows *struck* is the name of the person who receives the blow.

III. Let us examine the use of such words as *of, by, to, from*, and the like. In the following phrase,

The honor of a gentleman,

the relation of *honor* to *gentleman* is shown by the word *of.* The *honor*, we see, **belongs to** the *gentleman*.

The relation in which a word stands to other words in connected speech is called its **construction.**
Grammar is the science which treats of the **forms** and the **constructions** of words.

The study of grammar, then, divides itself into two parts:

(1) the study of the different **forms** which a word may take (as *John* or *John's*; *walk* or *walks* or *walked*; *he* or *him*);
(2) the study of the different **constructions** which a word may have in connected speech.
(3) The first of these parts is called the study of **inflection**, the second the study of **syntax**.

The **inflection** of a word is a **change in its form** to indicate its construction.
Syntax is that department of grammar which treat of the **constructions of words.**

In some languages, the constructions of words are shown to a great extent by means of **inflection**. Thus, in Latin, *lapis* means "a stone"; *lapidis,* "of a stone"; *lapide,* "with a stone"; *lapidum* "of stones," and so on. The word *lapis,* it will be seen, **changes its form** by inflection as its **construction changes**. English was formerly rich in such inflections, but most of these have been lost, so that in modern English the constructions of many words have to be shown either by their order or by the use of various little words such as *of, with.*

The **rules** of grammar get their authority from **usage**.

By **usage** is meant the practice of the best writers or speakers, not merely the habits of the community in which a person happens to live. There are, of course, varieties in usage, so that it is not always possible to pronounce one of two expressions grammatical and the other ungrammatical. In some cases, too, there is room for difference of opinion as to the correctness of a particular form or construction. But in a language like English, which has been written and studied for centuries, all the

main facts are well settled. Usage, then, is practically uniform throughout the English-speaking world. Pronunciation differs somewhat in different places, but educated Englishmen, Americans, and Australians all speak and write in accordance with the same grammatical principles.

> Since language is the expression of thought, the **rules of grammar agree**, in the main, with **the laws of thought.**

In other words, **grammar** accords, in the main, with **logic**, which is the science that deals with the processes of reasonable thinking.

There are, however, some exceptions. Every language has its peculiar phrases or constructions which appear to be irregular or even illogical, but which, because they have become established by **usage**, are not ungrammatical. These are called **idioms** (from a Greek word meaning "peculiarities").

For example, if we say "When *are you going* to study your lesson? "we use the word *going* in a peculiar way without any reference to actual motion or *going*. We mean simply "When *shall you* study?" This use of "are you going" for "shall you" is, then, an **English idiom**.

One may speak or write **grammatically** and still not speak or write in what is called a **good style**. In other words, language may be grammatical without being clear, forcible, and in good taste.

Thus in the sentence "Brutus assassinated Caesar because he wished to become king," no rule of grammar is broken. Yet the style of the sentence is bad because the meaning is not clear; we cannot tell who it was that desired the kingship — Caesar or Brutus. Again, "He talks as fast as a horse can trot" is perfectly grammatical, but it would not be an elegant expression to use of a great orator.

Good style, then, is impossible without grammatical correctness, but grammatical correctness does not necessarily carry with it good style.

The ability to speak and write correctly does not depend on a knowledge of grammatical rules. It is usually acquired by unconscious imitation, as children learn to talk. Yet an acquaintance with grammar is of great help in acquiring correctness of speech. In particular, it enables one to criticize one's self and to decide between what is right and what is wrong in many doubtful cases. *Grammar, then, is useful as a tool*.

But the study of grammar is also valuable as training in observation and thought. Language is one of the most delicate and complicated instruments which men use, and a study of its laws and their application is a worthy occupation for the mind.

DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE

Language never stands still. Every language, until it *dies* (that is, until it ceases to be spoken at all), is in a state of continual change. The English which we speak and write is not the same English that was spoken and written by our grandfathers, nor was their English precisely like that of Queen Elizabeth's time. The farther back we go, the less familiar we find ourselves with the speech of our ancestors, until finally we reach a kind of English which is quite as strange to us as if it were a foreign tongue.

Such changes take place gradually—so slowly indeed, that we are hardly aware that they are going on at all—but in the long run they may transform a language so completely that only scholars can recognize the old words and forms as identical, at bottom, with the new. Indeed, the changes may go so far that entirely new languages are formed.

Thus from Latin, the language of the ancient Romans (which is now dead) have come, by these gradual processes, a whole group of living modern languages, including French, Italian, and Spanish, differing from each other so much that a Frenchman cannot understand an Italian or a Spaniard any better than he can an Englishman or a German.

The changes which a language undergoes are of many different kinds. Most of them, however, we can observe in our own experience if we stop to think of what takes place about us. They affect

(1) **vocabulary**, that is, the stock of words which a language possesses,
(2) the **meanings of words**,
(3) their **pronunciation** and **spelling**,
(4) their forms of **inflection**,
(5) their **construction**, that is, the manner in which they are put together in expressing thought.

I. Many. words and phrases which once belonged to the English language have gone out of use entirely. Such words are said to be obsolete (from a Latin word which means simply "out of use").

Thus *holt* ("wood"), *couth* ("known"), *thilk* ("that same"), *achatour* ("buyer"), *warray* ("to wage war"), are obsolete English words.

Many words and phrases, though obsolete in spoken English and in prose writing, are still used in poetry. Such words are called **archaic** (that is, *ancient*).

Examples are *ruth* ("pity"), *sooth* ("truth"), *wot* ("know"), *ween* ("think"), *eke* ("also").

But changes in **vocabulary** are not all in the way of l**oss**. New words and phrases are always springing up, whether to name new things and ideas or merely for the sake of variety in expression. Thus within the memory of persons now living the words *telegraph telegram, telephone, dynamo*, and the like, have come into existence and made good their place in the English language.

Both of these processes—the **rise** and the **disappearance** of words—may be observed by every one in the case of what we call **slang**. Slang words spring up almost daily, are heard for a time from the lips of old and young, and then vanish (become *obsolete*), only to be replaced by newcomers. Now and then, however, a slang word gets a footing in good use and so keeps its place in the language. Thus, *mob, snob, boss, chum*, were originally slang, but are now recognized members of the English vocabulary.

II. Changes in meaning. The words of a living language are constantly **changing in sense**. Old meanings disappear and new meanings arise. Thus, in the following passages from Shakespeare, the italicized words all bear meanings which, though common three hundred years ago, are now out of use {*obsolete*):

She is of so sweet, so gentle, so blessed a *condition*. [*Condition* here means "character" or "nature."]

Advance your standards. [*Advance* means "lift up."]

Make all the money thou canst. [Make here means "collect," "get together," not, as in modern English, "earn" or "gain."][2]

III. Changes in pronunciation and spelling. The business of spelling is to indicate pronunciation. In a perfect system, words would be spelled as they are pronounced. Such a system, however, has never been in use in any language, and, indeed, is impracticable, for no two persons pronounce exactly alike. Even if a perfect system could be devised, it would not remain perfect forever, since the pronunciation of every language is constantly changing so long as the language is alive at all. In the last five hundred years the pronunciation of English has undergone a complete transformation. Our spelling, also, has been much altered, but, as everybody knows, it is far from doing its duty as an indicator of the sounds of words.

IV. Inflection, as we have learned, is a change in the form of a word indicating its construction (or relation to other words in the sentence). Thus, are all inflectional forms of the same verb.

In the time of Alfred the Great, in the ninth century, our language had many **inflectional forms** which it has since lost. Its history, indeed, is in great part the history of these losses in inflection. English of the present day has very few inflectional forms, replacing them by the use of various phrases (see preface, p. ii). The study of such changes does not come within the scope of this book; but a few of them must be mentioned, from time to time, to illustrate modern forms and constructions.

V. The changes to which our language has been subjected in the matter of grammatical **construction** are numerous and complicated. The general tendency, however, especially for the past two hundred years, has been in the direction of law and order. Hence very many constructions which are now regarded as errors were in former times perfectly acceptable. In reading Shakespeare, for instance, we are continually meeting with forms and expressions which would be ungrammatical in a modern English writer. Two practical cautions are necessary:

(1) A construction which is ungrammatical in modern English cannot be defended by quoting Shakespeare.

(2) Shakespeare must not be accused of "bad grammar" because he does not observe all the rules of modern English syntax.

The language which one uses should always fit the occasion.

Colloquial English (that is, the language of ordinary conversation) admits many words, phrases, forms, and constructions which would be out of place in a dignified oration or a serious poem.

[2] Any large dictionary will afford abundant illustration of obsolete words and senses of words. See, for example, such a dictionary under *bower, cheer, favor, secure, convince, instance, insist, condescend, wizard, comply, soon, wot, mote, whilom, trow, hight*.

On the other hand, it is absurd always to "talk like a book," that is, to maintain, in ordinary conversation, the language appropriate to a speech or an elaborate essay. We should not "make little fishes talk like whales."

In general, written language is expected to be more careful and exact than spoken language. A familiar letter, however, may properly be written as one would talk.

The **poetical style** admits many **archaic** (that is, *old*) words, forms, and constructions that would be out of place in prose. It is also freer than prose with respect to the order or arrangement of words.

The **solemn style** resembles in many ways the style of poetry. In particular it preserves such words as *thou* and *ye*, and such forms as *hath, doth, saith findest, findeth*, and the like, which have long been obsolete in everyday language.

English Grammar

CHAPTER 1
General Principles [3]

Language expresses thought by using words.

❧

Construction refers to the way words are put together in connected speech.

❧

Inflection is a change in a word's form to change the word's meaning.

❧

Grammar is the science of the forms and construction of words.

❧

Rules of grammar take their authority from usage.

1. Language is the expression of thought by means of spoken or written words.

Words are signs made to indicate thought.

2. Some words express **definite ideas**: as, *horse, sunset, run, headlong*.

Other words (like *to, from, at, is, was, though*) express thought vaguely or in a very general way. Their use in language is to **connect** the more definite words, and to show their **relations** to each other.

3. The relation in which a word stands to other words in connected speech is called its construction.

The **construction** of English words is shown in three ways:

1. by their form;
2. by their order;
3. by the use of little words like *to, from, is*, etc.

4. **Inflection is a change in the form of a word which indicates a change in its meaning:**

George, George's
man, men
kills, killed

5. **Grammar is the science which treats of the forms and the constructions of words.**

6. The **rules of grammar** derive their authority from custom or **usage**. They agree in general with the processes of thought.

[3] This chapter summarizes some of the general principles explained in the introductory chapters.

CHAPTER 2
The Parts of Speech

8 Parts of Speech

1. Noun
2. Pronoun
3. Adjective
4. Verb
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

7. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
   The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea;
   The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
   And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

A study of this stanza of poetry shows that different words in it have different tasks to perform in expressing the poet's thought.

Thus, *tolls, wind, leaves* **assert** or **declare** that somebody or something is **acting** in some manner. *Herd, plowman, world* are the **names** of persons or things. ***Weary*** is not the name of anything, but it **describes** the *way*. *And* calls up no picture in our minds, as *plowman*, or *herd*, or *darkness* does; it merely **connects** the fourth line of the stanza with the third. *Of* in the first line **shows the relation** between *knell* and *day*. *Me* is not the name of anybody, but it nevertheless **stands for** a person, — the speaker or writer of the poem.

Every **word** has **its own work** to do in the **expression of thought**. To understand the different tasks performed by different kinds of words is the first business of all students of language.

8. **In accordance with their various uses, words are divided into classes called parts of speech.**

9. **There are eight parts of speech: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.**[4]

[4] The definitions that follow should not be committed to memory at this point. They are for reference, and for use as a review lesson after chapter 26.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

A NOUN **is the name of a person, place, or thing.**
EXAMPLES: Charles, John, Mary, man, woman, boy, girl, London, Paris, city, town, street, horse, cat, dog, wood, iron, hammer, shovel, goodness, truth.

A PRONOUN **is a word used instead of a noon. It designates a person, place, or thing, without naming it.**
EXAMPLES: I, you, he, she, it, this, that, who, which, whoever.

Nouns and pronouns are called **substantives**.

An ADJECTIVE **is a word which limits or defines a substantive, usually by attributing some quality.**
EXAMPLES: good, bad, red, green, blue, heavy, large, pleasant, disagreeable, mysterious, idle.

A VERB **is a word which can assert something (usually an act) concerning a person, place, or thing.**
EXAMPLES: runs, jumps, travels, study, dig, fly, swim, try.

An ADVERB **modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.**
EXAMPLES: quickly, slowly, angrily, carefully, here, up, down.

A PREPOSITION **shows the relation of the substantive which follows it to some other word or words in the sentence.**
EXAMPLES: of, in, by, from, with, during, over, under.

A CONJUNCTION **connects words or groups of words.**
EXAMPLES: and, or, but, for, because, however, if.

An INTERJECTION **is a cry or exclamatory sound expressing surprise, anger, pleasure, or some other emotion or feeling.**
EXAMPLES: oh! ah! pshaw! fie! ha! alas! bravo!

CHAPTER 3
Nouns

10. One of the first duties of language is that of **naming** persons and things. It is impossible to express our thoughts unless we can, as the saying is, "call things by their right names."

In the following passage the italicized words are the **names** of various objects. Such words are called **nouns**.

> There was a most ingenious *architect*, who had contrived a new method for building *houses*, by beginning at the *roof* and working downward to the *foundation*; which he justified to me by the like practice of those two prudent *insects*, the *bee* and the *spider*. — SWIFT.

A **noun** is a person, place, or thing.

❧

There are two classes of nouns: **common** and **proper.**

The word *noun* is derived from the French word for "name."

11. A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing.

> EXAMPLES: Charles, Mary, man, woman, boy, girl, horse, cow, cat, camel, city, town, village, kitchen, shop, Chicago, Texas, California, house, box, stable, car, boat, curtain, hatchet.

12. **Nouns are divided into two classes:**

> 1. **Proper nouns**
> 2. **Common nouns**

The difference may be seen in the following examples:

> *Charles* rode the horse to water.
> The *boy* rode the horse to water.

Charles is a person's own name, — the name which belongs to him and by which he is distinguished from other persons. It is therefore called a **proper name** or **proper noun**, "proper" in this use meaning "one's own."

Boy, on the other hand, is not the name of a particular person. It is a **general term** for any one of a large **class** of persons, — male human beings below the age of manhood. Hence it is called a **common noun**, that is, a name common to a whole class of objects.

The same distinction is found in the names of places and things: *Boston, Cincinnati, London, Paris, Germany, France, Mt. Washington, Sahara*, are proper nouns. *City, country, mountain, desert,* are common nouns.

Two Noun Classes

❧

Proper: special name for a particular person, place or thing.

Common: a name for a whole class of similar persons, places or things.

13. A proper noun is the special name by which a particular person, place, or thing is distinguished from others of the same kind or class.

EXAMPLES: John, James, Mary, Elizabeth, Washington, Grant, Shakespeare, Milton, Rome, London, Cuba, Rocky Mountains, Cape Hatteras, Klondike.

14. A common noun is a name which may be applied to any one of a whole class of similar persons, places, or things.

EXAMPLES: man, woman, child, dog, cow, fairy, street, house, monument, knife, bookcase.

In writing, proper nouns begin with a capital letter and common nouns usually begin with a small letter.

15. The English word "thing" is not confined in its use to objects that we can see, hear, taste, or touch. We may say, for example:

Patriotism is a good thing.
Cowardice is a contemptible thing.
I wish there were no such thing as *sorrow*.

Such words as *patriotism* and *cowardice*, then, come under the general heading of names of things, and are therefore nouns.

16. When the name of a person, place, or thing consists of a number of words, the whole group may be regarded as a single noun. Thus,

Charles Allen is my brother.
William Shakespeare is the author of "Hamlet."
"The Rime of the Ancient Mariner" was written by *Samuel Taylor Coleridge*.
North America is connected with *South America* by the *Isthmus of Panama*.

Chapter 3 Exercise

In the following passages pick out as many nouns as you can find, and tell whether each is a common or a proper noun.

1. Drake with his one ship and eighty men held boldly on; and, passing the Straits of Magellan, untraversed as yet by any Englishman, swept the unguarded coast of Chili and Peru, and loaded his bark with gold-dust and silver-ingots of Potosi, and with the pearls, emeralds, and diamonds which formed the cargo of the great galleon that sailed once a year from Lima to Cadiz.
2. In that same village, and in one of these very houses (which, to tell the precise truth, was sadly time-worn and weather-beaten), there lived many years since, while the country was yet a province of Great Britain, a simple, good-natured fellow, of the name of Rip Van Winkle. He was a descendant of the Van Winkles who figured so gallantly in the chivalrous days of Peter Stuyvesant and accompanied him to the siege of Fort Christina.
3. An inhabitant of Truro told me that about a fortnight after the St. John was wrecked at Cohasset, he found two bodies on the shore at the Clay Pounds.
4. Oliver Goldsmith was born on the tenth of November, 1728, at the hamlet of Pallas, or Pallasmore, county of Longford, in Ireland.

CHAPTER 4
Special Classes of Nouns[5]

17. Certain classes of common nouns receive special names. Particularly important classes are **abstract nouns** and **collective nouns.**

18. In Section 15 we learned that words like *patriotism*, *cowardice*, and *sorrow*, which are the **names** of **ideas** or **qualities**, are nouns. Further examples follow:

> *Pity* is akin to *love*.
> *Order* is heaven's first law.
> A soft answer turneth away *wrath*.
> *Virtue* is bold, and *goodness* never fearful.

Abstract noun: name of a quality or idea.

Collective noun: name of a group, class, multitude, but not a single person, place or thing.

Such names as *pity*, *wrath*, etc., are called **abstract nouns.**

19. An abstract noun is the name of a quality or general idea.

> EXAMPLES: goodness, sweetness, wisdom, ignorance, truth, amiability, sauciness, folly, virtue, wickedness, liberty.

Many abstract nouns end in *-ness* and *-ty*.

20. In the following sentences the italicized nouns are the **names** of **groups** or **collections** of persons:

> A *crowd* gathered almost in an instant.
> The whole *class* studied the wrong lesson.
> The *crew* of the wrecked steamer were all saved.
> These boys formed a *club* to practice rowing.
> Captain Smith is an officer in the *navy*.

Such names are called **collective nouns**.

21. A collective noun is the name of a group, class, or multitude, and not of a single person, place, or thing.

> EXAMPLES: class, fleet, army, host, gang, company, regiment, party, people, nation, multitude, flock, herd, set, lot.

[5] This chapter should not be studied until the pupil is thoroughly familiar with the two main classes of nouns, proper and common. The teacher may prefer to postpone it until after chapter 16 or after.

22. Collective nouns are usually common nouns, but they become proper nouns when they are used as the special name of a particular group, class, or company. Thus,

    The *Congress* of the United States meets in Washington.
    The *Philadelphia Base Ball Club* will play at New York tomorrow.
    The *First Class* will recite at ten o'clock.

23. Any word, when mentioned merely **as a word**, is a noun. Thus,

    Is is one of the shortest words in our language.
    Was is a verb.
    And is a conjunction.

Chapter 4 Exercises

I.

In the following passages pick out all the abstract and all the collective nouns that you can find.

1. A number of young people were assembled in the music room.
2. He leads towards Rome a band of warlike Goths.
3. By ten o'clock the whole party were assembled at the Park.
4. Have I not reason to look pale and dead?
5. People were terrified by the force of their own imagination.
6. The Senate has letters from the general.
7. You misuse the reverence of your place.
8. There is hardly any place, or any company, where you may not gain knowledge if you please.
9. Here comes another troop to seek for you.
10. Their mastiffs are of unmatchable courage.
11. Our family dined in the field, and we sat, or rather reclined, round a temperate repast.
12. Our society will not break up, but we shall settle in some other place.
13. Let nobody blame him; his scorn I approve.
14. The Senate have concluded
    To give this day a crown to mighty Caesar.
15. He is banished, as enemy to the people and his country.
16. Society has been called the happiness of life.
17. His army is a ragged multitude
    Of hinds and peasants, rude and merciless.
18. There is a great difference between knowledge and wisdom.

19. All the country in a general voice cried hate upon him.
20. The king hath called his Parliament.
21. Let all the number of the stars give light to thy fair way!

II.

Give some collective noun which stands for a number or group of something. Thus,

Men. — A company of men

Men, birds, cows, thieves, marbles, school children, sailors, soldiers, football players, musicians, robbers, pirates, books, postage stamps, senators, Members of Congress, partners in business.

III.

Give an abstract noun which names the idea or quality suggested by each of the words in the following list. Thus,

True. — The noun is *truth*.

True, false, good, bad, lazy, careless, free, brave, sinful, cautious, just, beautiful, amiable, insane, passionate, natural, hasty, valiant, angry, grieving, sorry, holy, evil, unjust, accurate, simple.

CHAPTER 5
Pronouns

24. In expressing our thoughts we often have occasion to **mention** a person, place, or thing without **naming** it. Thus,

> The boy found a ball on the ground. *He* picked *it* up and put *it* into *his* pocket.

Here the boy and the ball are mentioned at the outset, but we do not wish to keep repeating the nouns *boy* and *ball*. Hence we use *he* and *his* to designate the boy, and *it* to designate the ball. These words are not nouns, for they do not **name** anything. They are called **pronouns**, because they stand **in the place of nouns** (*pro* being a Latin word for "instead of").

25. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. It designates a person, place, or thing without naming it.

26. Pronouns are not absolutely necessary to the expression of thought; but they make it possible to avoid awkward and confusing repetition. Compare the passages in the parallel columns below.

THOUGHT EXPRESSED WITH PRONOUNS	THOUGHT EXPRESSED WITHOUT PRONOUNS
The savages had two canoes with *them*. *They* had hauled *them* up on the shore.	The savages had two canoes with the savages. The savages had hauled the canoes up on the shore.

A **pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun. It designates a person, place or thing without naming it.

❧

Main classes of pronouns:
Personal
Relative
Interrogative
Demonstrative

If you try to talk without using *I, you, he, she,* or *it,* you will soon discover what pronouns are good for.

27. The main classes of pronouns are:

> Personal,
> Relative,
> Interrogative,
> Demonstrative.

Their distinction and uses will be studied in later chapters.

For the present, we may content ourselves with recognizing some of the most important pronouns when we see them. Such are: *I, me, you, we, he, his, him, she, her, they, their, them.*

Nouns and pronouns are called **substantives.**

28. Since the chief use of pronouns is to replace nouns, the constructions of these two parts of speech are almost always the same. It is therefore convenient to have a term which means "noun or pronoun," and the term used for this purpose is **substantive.**

29. **Nouns and pronouns are called substantives.**

Chapter 5 Exercises

I.

In the following passages pick out what nouns and pronouns you can find.
If you can, tell what noun is replaced by each pronoun.

1. Goneril, the elder, declared that she loved her father more than words could give out, that he was dearer to her than the light of her own eyes.
2. Bassanio took the ring and vowed never to part with it.
3. The floor of the cave was dry and level, and had a sort of small loose gravel upon it.
4. Having now brought all my things on shore, and secured them, I went back to my boat, and rowed, or paddled her along the shore, to her old harbor, where I laid her up. — *Robinson Crusoe.*
5. Heaven lies about us in our infancy.
6. Blessed is he who has found his work.
7. In fact, Tom declared it was of no use to work on his farm; it was the most pestilent little piece of ground in the whole country; everything about it went wrong, and would go wrong, in spite of him.
8. When Portia parted with her husband, she spoke cheeringly to him, and bade him bring his dear friend along with him when he returned.

II.

Fill the blanks with pronouns.

1. A thought struck _____ , and _____ wrote a letter to one of _____ friends.
2. The flowers were bending _____ heads, as if _____were dreaming of the rainbow and dew.
3. We make way for the man who boldly pushes past _____.
4. "That's a brave man," said Wellington, when _____ saw a soldier turn pale as _____ marched against a battery: " _____ knows _____ danger, and faces _____ ."
5. I know not what course others may take; but, as for _____ , give _____ liberty, or give _____ death.

6. There, in _____ noisy mansion, skilled to rule.
   The village master taught _____ little school.
7. Wordsworth helps us to live _____ best and highest life; _____ is a strengthening and purifying influence like _____ own mountains.
8. As the queen hesitated to pass on, young Raleigh, throwing _____ cloak from his shoulder, laid _____ on the miry spot, so as to ensure _____ stepping over _____ dryshod.
9. Tender-handed stroke a nettle.
   And _____ stings you for _____ pains;
   Grasp _____ like a man of mettle.
   And _____ soft as silk remains.
10. Whatever people may think of _____, do that which _____ believe to be right.
11. No man is so foolish but _____ may give another good counsel sometimes, and no man so wise but _____ may easily err.

CHAPTER 6
Verbs and Verb Phrases

30. In order to express our thoughts we must be able not only to "call things by their right names," but to make statements — that is, to **assert**.

Verbs:
Express or assert action, state, or condition.

31. Let us examine the following groups of words:

    Birds *fly*.
    Fishes *swim*.
    The boy *played* ball well.

Each of these expressions contains a word (*fly, swim, played*) which expresses **action**. Thus, *fly* expresses the action of the birds; *swim*, that of the fishes; *played*, that of the boy.

But these three words, *fly, swim*, and *played*, not only **express** action, they **state** or **assert** the action. Thus, in "Birds fly," it is the word *fly* which makes the assertion that the birds act in a certain way.

Such words are called **verbs**.

Language, then, must furnish us not only with **nouns**, by means of which we can **name** persons, places, or things, but with words of another kind, by means of which we can **state** or **assert** something about persons, places, and things.

32. A verb is a word which can assert something (usually an act) concerning a person, place, or thing.

In each of the following examples pick out the word which states or asserts some act:

The travelers climbed the mountain.
Wellington defeated Napoleon at Waterloo.
The snow fell in great flakes all day long.

33. Most verbs express **action**. Some, however, merely express **state** or **condition.** Thus,

    You *lack* energy.
    This lake *abounds* in fish.
    The soldier *lay* dead on the battlefield.

34. *Is (are, was, were,* etc.) *may, can, must, might, shall, will, could, would, should, have, had, do, did,* have a peculiar use in what are called **verb phrases**: as,

> The company *is charging* up the hill.
> The house *may fall* at any moment.
> We *can swim* to the boat.
> Our friends *will search* the woods in vain.

In the first of these sentences the assertion is made by means of the phrase *is charging*; in the second it is the phrase *may fall* that asserts the action, and so on.

Each of these phrases is formed by combining *is, may, can*, etc., with some word that expresses action, *charging, fall, swim, search.*

Verb Phrases: When an **auxiliary verb** is combined with a verb, a **verb phrase** is formed.

❧

Auxiliary verbs are also known as **helping verbs.**

❧

Auxiliary verbs: forms of *to be, may, can, must, might, shall, will, could, would, should, have, has, had, do, did*

English has many verb phrases, by means of which it is able to express action in various ways. They will be studied in later chapters.

35. *Is (are, was, were,* etc.), *may, can, must, might, shall, will, could, would should, have, had, do, did,* when used in **verb phrases**, are called **auxiliary** (that is, "aiding") **verbs**, because they help other words to express action or state of some particular kind.[6]

36. The auxiliary verb may be separated from the rest of the verb phrase by other words. Thus,

> Tom *may* perhaps *find* his purse.
> We *were* rapidly *drifting* down the river.
> Washington *has* never *lost* the affection of his countrymen.

Chapter 6 Exercises

I.
In each of the following passages pick out all the verbs and verb phrases that you can find.

1. Count Otto stares till his eyelids ache.
2. But so slowly did I creep along, that I heard a clock in a cottage strike four before I turned down the lane from Slough to Eton.
3. Like as the waves make towards the pebbled shore,
   So do our minutes hasten to their end.

---

[6] Editor's note: Auxiliary verbs are often called "helping verbs."

4. If it rains, we converse within doors.
5. The book you mention lies now upon my table.
6. The fleet in the Downs sent their captains on shore, hoisted the King's pennon, and blockaded the Thames.
7. The little company of the “Pilgrim Fathers,” as after-times loved to call them, landed on the barren coast of Massachusetts, at a spot to which they gave the name of Plymouth, in memory of the last English port at which they touched.

II.
Pick out all the verbs and verb phrases that you can find in chapter 5, Exercise II.

III.
Fill each blank with a verb or verb phrase.

A young friend of mine ____ a clever little dog, whose name _____ Jack. He _____ his master whenever he _____ to school, and always _____ for him until the children _____ . Then the dog ____ along at the boy's heels until home _____ in sight. Once some rascal _____ Jack and _____ him up in a cellar a long way from home. But Jack _____ and _____ his master again. I never _____ a dog that _____ on his hind legs so gracefully as my friend's Jack.

CHAPTER 7
Sentences

A **sentence** is a group of words that expresses a single thought in a complete way.

37. **Language**, as we have already learned, is **thought expressed in words.**

In speaking or writing, however, we do not utter our thoughts in single words, but in **groups of words** which are so put together as to express **connected ideas**. Thus,

Birds fly. Iron sinks.
Wood floats. Lions roar.

These are very simple groups, but each expresses some thought and is, in a manner, complete in itself.

38. If we study a longer passage, we see at once that it may be broken up into a number of groups, some larger and some smaller, each of which is a kind of unit. Thus,

> The soldier awoke at break of day. | He sprang up from his hard couch on the ground. | The drums were beating. | It was time to fall in for the day's march.

The passage falls into four of these groups, each standing by itself and expressing a single thought.

Such groups of words are **sentences** of a very simple kind.

39. In the next chapter we shall study the **structure of sentences**, — that is, the parts out of which they are composed and the way in which those parts are put together.

For the present, we may content ourselves with framing a few sentences for practice. This we can easily do, for we have spoken in sentences ever since we learned to talk.

40. Make a short statement about each of the persons and things mentioned in the list below. Thus,

> *Lions.* Lions are found in Africa.
> *Tree.* A large tree grew in the square.

Ball, kite, top, doll, carriage, dogs, cats, schoolhouse, John, Mary, tigers, fisherman, carpenters, book, history, sugar, leather, vinegar, apples, plums, melon, salt.

In each of the statements you have **expressed a thought in language**. This you have done by means of putting together (**combining**) **words** into **sentences**.

Chapter 7 Exercises

Chapter 7 written work is included in Section 40, above, and may be done orally in the lesson time if desired.

CHAPTER 8
Sentences: Subject and Predicate

41. In the expression of ideas words are combined into sentences.

A **sentence** contains a **subject** and a **predicate.**

❧

The **subject** is a person, place, or thing which is spoken of.

❧

The **predicate** is that which is said of the subject.

❧

A **declarative sentence** declares or asserts something as fact.

42. In its simplest form a sentence is the statement of a single fact. Thus,

Fire burns.	The king reigns.
Water freezes.	Victoria is queen.

Each of these sentences consists, it will be observed, of two parts:

(1) a word or words designating the person or thing that is **spoken of** (*fire, water, the king, Victoria)*;
(2) a word or words **telling something about** that person or thing (*burns, freezes, reigns, is queen*).

The first of these parts is called the **subject** of the sentence, and the second is called the **predicate.**

43. Accordingly we have the following rules:

(1) Every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.
(2) The subject of a sentence is that person, place, or thing which is spoken of;
(3) the predicate is that which is said of the subject.

44. A declarative sentence is a sentence which declares or asserts something as a fact.

There are several forms of the sentence besides the declarative sentence. These will be studied later.

45. In such a sentence as

Victoria reigns,

we have a very simple form of both subject and predicate. *Victoria*, the subject, is a single noun; and *reigns,* the predicate, is a single verb. So in

Fire burns.	Ships sail.
Horses gallop.	Truth prevails.

The subject may, however, be not a noun but a pronoun; for the office of pronouns is to stand in the place of nouns. Thus, in the sentence

He laughs,

he is the subject, and *laughs* is the predicate.

If we examine a somewhat longer sentence, we shall see that it is still made up of the same two parts, — **subject** and **predicate**. Thus, in

The old chief of the Mohawks | fought desperately,

the whole subject is *The old chief of the Mohawks*, and the whole predicate is *fought desperately*.

46. The subject usually precedes the predicate; but not always. Thus,

Down came the rain.	Up flew the window.
Ran Coll, our dog.	Sad was the day.

Chapter 8 Exercises

I.

Fill the blanks with verbs, verb phrases, nouns, or pronouns, so as to make each example a complete sentence. Tell what it is that you have inserted in each case.

1. The teacher _____ at her desk writing.
2. The captain _____ his company in the suburbs of the town.
3. The strife _____ with unremitting fury for three mortal hours.
4. The first permanent settlement on the Chesapeake _____ in the beginning of the reign of James the First.
5. I _____ an aged beggar in my walk.
6. The English army _____ too exhausted for pursuit.
7. The owls _____ all night long.
8. A crow _____ a nest in one of the young elm trees.
9. A famous man _____ Robin Hood.
10. In the confusion, five or six of the enemy _____.
11. The eyes of the savage _____with fury.
12. A little leak _____ a great ship.
13. The blacksmith _____ the red-hot iron.
14. A sudden _____ clouded the sky.
15. My _____ was then in London.
16. The _____ followed us over the moor.
17. _____commanded the American army.
18. The _____have wandered about nearly all day.
19. A high _____ blew hats and bonnets about.

20. The _____ fired a broadside at the enemy.
21. Many _____ were swimming in the pool.
22. Down _____ the timber with a crash.
23. Higher and higher _____the sun.

II.
By means of a vertical line divide each of your completed sentences in **I,** above, into subject and predicate.

For example: The teacher |_____ at her desk writing.