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MANUAL FOR THE
Teaching of Grammar

BY

FREDERIC BURK





THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

PREPARED FOR THE USE OF STUDENT-TEACHERS OF GRAMMAR IN THE
SAN FRANCISCO STATE NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOLS

BY

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TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

BY BURK RICH

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PREFACE.

This Bulletin is intended as a manual (with the Sentence Book) for the introduction to the study of grammar. The methodology will be confined to this pamphlet, and the sentences used in each of the exercises are grouped in the accompanying Sentence Book. During the past year, this plan of beginning the study of grammar has been worked out with the students teaching grammar in our Training School, and it is now printed for the guidance of the student-teachers who continue the work for the ensuing year.

Part I contains the work upon the construction of the sentence. Part II, which will not be published for some months, will deal with the methodology of syntax and with the application of grammatical knowledge to correct written composition and oral speech. The State text will be used as a final review in the eighth grade after the work covered by Part I and Part II has been completed.

Texts in grammar are compendiums of reference authorities, not books suitable for *teaching* grammar. They offer no methodology, but simply state in logical order the knowledge which ought finally to be acquired. This manual offers a graded series of steps in teaching grammatical knowledge. No very radical position is taken to elide the unnecessary and useless elements of usual grammar texts, but some important steps are taken in this matter by omissions of useless distinctions in the classes of adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and pronouns.

The goal of grammar teaching is not to teach the pupil to speak or write language correctly. These abilities are only acquired by habit. Children learn to speak correctly without any grammatical knowledge, provided they hear the correct forms.

There are two stages in learning to use language correctly: first, to have the correct form as a copy; and secondly, to acquire this form as a reflex habit. This copy may be obtained, as young children obtain it, by imitation; or it may be obtained by grammatical study. Grammar, then, at best, is a poor substitute for a correct copy given by imitation. This copy obtained either by imitation or by grammatical analysis, it remains in both cases to work this form into a reflex habit by the method of repetition.

The errors which any individual commits are in very close approximation to the errors which as a child he commonly hears. The number of errors committed by the average person circulating in the avenues of general intelligence are really comparatively few. The amount of grammar we give is quite out of proportion. We do not commit errors beyond the limits of the errors of general hearing usage. Grammar study is unnecessary for

the great mass of constructions. Its value is limited to that field where our hearing copies are frequently defective—objective for nominative pronouns, *like* for *as*, improper verb forms, adverbs for adjectives, and verb agreements under confusing conditions. It is the prime business of grammar teaching, therefore, to focus effort upon establishing a means for the pupil to construct the correct forms for each of these specific weaknesses. But this is only one stage. The most important task remains, and this is to establish a habit of self-recognition of these errors and finally the acquirement of a reflex for the correct forms. It is at this point that the best grammar teaching of our schools falls short. Even if the pupils do acquire the grammatical knowledge necessary, there are practically no adequate courses or systems of applying this test knowledge to spoken and written forms. The methodology of this application will form the topic of the last part of this manual.

The educational theory in general terms is reserved chiefly for the Appendix at the close, for theory, if anything, is something which must grow out of experience.

THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR.

Exercise I.

PURPOSE.—The purpose of this first lesson will be to get a visual picture, in the mind, of the relation of the subject and predicate in terms of a diagram. (See Appendix C and E.) We desire eventually to secure an abstract conception of this relation, but as a scaffolding to this more difficult kind of thinking our preliminary goal will be to associate with the terms “predicate” and “subject” a straight line upon which the predicate is written after the subject, with a vertical line separating them. Such a visual picture will not disturb the desired abstract conception which we shall later also associate and, in the stage of learning, will be a scaffolding for the child’s mind.

As a second purpose we desire to form an unconscious mental habit, or reflex (see Appendix A), by which the pupil may find the subject in the sentence. This method, or habit, will at first be a purely mechanical one, requiring no abstract thinking. We shall later associate with this act an abstract grammatical reason, or relationship (see Appendix H); but for the early stage, while the child has no raw materials for grammatical reasoning, this mechanical habit will serve as a scaffolding.

METHOD.—The teacher will write the first sentence upon the board, “Men work.” She will then draw a horizontal line, and then a vertical line as a division between the subject and predicate, and will write “work” in the predicate place, remarking something as follows: “*Work* is the predicate. It is a verb. It tells what the men do. I write it here because this is the place for the predicate.”

_____ | work

She will then write somewhere upon the board, for example above the predicate, “work,” putting an interrogation point after it, and will lastly write “who” before it; thus,

 who work?
_____ | work

Call upon volunteers to answer this question. Upon getting the answer, “Men,” she may reply, “Yes, *men* is the subject. It tells *who work?* We shall write it in the subject place”; thus,

 men | work

The question “Who work?” may now be erased if the pupils show a disposition to regard this as a part of the diagram, but for a few lessons it is well to leave it upon the board. The teacher will now do well to call upon

pupils to tell just what was done, and just the order of the steps in which it was done. If there is any doubt, as most likely there will be, erase and do it over again in as nearly the same way as possible, using the same phrases. Also, if necessary, diagram the second or third sentences until the pupils clearly have followed the successive steps and can repeat them with tolerable accuracy; as, for example, "First you drew a line and put in a division line. Then you wrote *work* on the right-hand side. Then you wrote *work* and put a question mark after it and *who* before it. We answered that question, and you said it was called the subject, and you wrote it on the left-hand side."

Now send the class, or a section of it, to the board and have them take the same sentence or sentences and do, by imitation, just what you did. Finally, allow them to take new sentences, being careful that each step is followed out systematically, because you are working to make this process reflex, and therefore it is essential that there should be no variation in the order or manner of performing it.

For the second lesson give the same sentences again, or the teacher may construct similar ones. (For character of sentences, see Appendix B.) Drill upon this process until all pupils can go through it *without stumbling or hesitation*, being careful to write out each time the question, "Who ——?" by which the subject is found. When this stage is reached we may say the pupils have reached the reflex stage.

Throughout this lesson, but incidental to the main purpose of impressing the visual picture and the acquirement of the process as a reflex, the teacher should keep up a running fire of remarks to the effect that "*Work* is the predicate. It tells what the men do"; or, "*Men* is the subject. It tells who work," etc. (See Appendix F.) Do not at first insist that the pupils shall be able to use these phrases, because if at this stage we should insist upon this, we would be dividing their attention, which is now wholly needed for the primary purpose. But by using these phrases we are associating them with the place in the diagram and the process of procedure. Moreover, we are unobtrusively laying the basis for the abstract notions as associations. Unconsciously the pupils are getting a *feeling* of the predicate as a word which tells what the subject does. We shall not be requiring pupils to memorize an entirely meaningless definition apart from its application. On the contrary, by teaching the definition gradually in immediate application the pupils are absorbing this meaning concretely in advance. (See Appendix F.)

In the same way, at first the subject is found by the purely mechanical process, but after the pupil has learned *how to find* the subject *by doing it* in a mechanical sort of a way, we gradually work over the meaning of the subject as the thing which does the act. In short, our process is first to acquire as a reflex the doing of the diagram, and later, this process no longer requiring attention, we gradually work in the explanation and meaning and proceed to make the process intelligent. (See Appendix D.) It is important that we should not attempt to teach the pupil to do the thing and to understand it simultaneously, for this attempt divides the

pupil's attention. (See Appendix B.) In the stage of first learning a thing the pupil needs all the power of his attention upon just this one thing. Worse still is it to attempt to teach the pupil to understand the meaning of the predicate and subject and their relationship before he has used them. The diagram is a mechanical means whereby we are able to teach the child to place the two in a temporary visual relation, and later to learn, in an intelligent sense, the meaning of these terms and their abstract relationship.

After the formation of the picture of predicate and subject has become tolerably well impressed upon the minds of the pupils, begin to lead the pupils into the use of these language terms and phrases. If they stumble over the pronunciation of subject and predicate, write the words upon the board and have them pronounced distinctly by syllables.

It will be noted that the sentences used contain only a subject and a predicate without complement or modifiers. This type is used for the reason that we wish to focus the attention keenly upon these single elements. The presence of other unknown constructions would confuse the pupils, prevent these selected constructions from being clearly perceived, and thereby divide the attention. We must take up each new form separately. After the pupils can recognize the subject and the predicate and they are reflexly familiar forms, we can introduce a new construction and then centralize attention upon this, the old forms being now familiar and requiring no effort of the attention. In this way we can constantly focus attention upon each new form in turn. (See Appendix B.)

Before the second exercise is taken up the class should be readily able, besides performing in the process of diagramming the predicate and subject reflexly, to point out the predicate place and the subject place, to use these names easily, to be able to say promptly that a given word is the predicate because it tells what — (the subject) does, and that — is the subject because it answers the question, "Who —?"

Exercise II.

PURPOSE.—The subject, whether a word, phrase, or clause, may always be found by asking the question formed by placing either *who* or *what* before the predicate. We have taken exercises involving the form of question using *who*. The purpose of this lesson will be to make familiar the form, "What —?" The next exercise gives sentences indiscriminately arranged.

METHOD.—Pursue the same method as in Exercise I, using *what* where *who* was previously used. After a few sentences have been diagrammed, so that pupils find that no serious difficulty confronts them, explain that we now use *what* instead of *who*, because *what* refers to animals and lifeless things, while *who* in the previous sentences referred to persons. Make this explanation several times throughout this exercise in preparation for the third exercise.

Begin in this exercise to use the term "part of speech," remarking, for

example, that “—— (*i. e.*, the predicate) is a verb, because it expresses action. Predicates are always verbs. A verb is the name of one of the parts of speech,” etc., and “—— (the subject) is a noun, because it is the name of a —— (using person, place, or thing, as the case may be). A noun is another part of speech. Nouns are the names of persons, places, and things. In this case it is the name of a ——.” Gradually call upon the pupils to give back to you the same phrases in answer to questions. (See Appendix F.)

REVIEW.—Continue the questions of the first lesson calling for the use of the terms subject and predicate, and of the phrases “—— is the predicate, because it tells what —— (*i. e.*, the subject) does (or did)”; “—— is the subject, because it tells what —— (*i. e.*, the predicate).” After the pupils have drawn the horizontal line and put in the vertical line, sometimes stop them and have the vacant predicate place and subject place pointed out merely as places. (See Appendix C.)

Exercise III.

PURPOSE.—(a) The first purpose of this lesson will be to train the habit of asking the right question (*i. e.*, “Who ——?” or “What ——?”) for finding the subject.

(b) To fix as a reflex the language form of analysis expressive of the diagramming of predicate and subject.

METHOD.—(a) Draw attention, for example, in the first sentence, to the fact that *snakes* is the name of an animal and therefore we must use *what* in forming the question; while in the second sentence *Bakers* is the name of persons and therefore we use *who* in the question. Go through the sentences orally first, asking whether *who* or *what* shall be used, thus focusing the attention upon this feature of person or non-person. Diagram with the pupils a few sentences, asking them to tell you which question to ask, and then write the selected form over the predicate. After the analysis form has become thoroughly reflex, as it should be by the close of this exercise, no longer require these forms to be written out. Insist, however, that the question shall always be expressed orally. The finding of the subject and predicate is the fundamental key of the sentence, and, later, when phrases or clauses are used as subjects, the value of a firm reflex for asking this question will be appreciated.

(b) The pupils have now been drilled to familiarity in the use of the terms *subject* and *predicate*, and of the phrases “because it tells *who* ——,” etc. Let us now put these together in a continuous language form and drill upon it until the order is reflex and it runs smoothly from the tongue. (See Appendix F.) We may adopt as our analysis form, using the first sentence as an example:

“Snakes crawl. *Crawl* is the predicate, because it tells what is done. What crawl? Snakes crawl. Therefore, *snakes* is the subject, because it tells what crawl.”

ANALYSIS BY MEMORY AND IMAGINATION OF MENTAL PICTURE.—Require pupils first to diagram the sentence, then, *looking at the diagram*, to go through this language form of analysis without stumbling, help from teacher, or hesitation. When this end is reached with any given pupil and sentence, have him turn away from the diagram and go through this analysis form. This is a drill in imaginative diagramming—an end we wish to reach whereby the pupil sees in mental image the diagrammatic form and follows it as he analyzes.

REVIEW.—After the sentences in Exercise III are exhausted in the above imaginative drill, give the pupils their texts, and turning to Exercises I or II, the sentences of which have already been diagrammed, require pupils, without actually diagramming, to analyze according to the forms given. If there is any doubt in the teacher's mind that a certain pupil has not a visual picture of the diagram in imagination, she should diagram the sentence for the child, and continue this process until she is sure the pupils are following a mental diagram as they analyze.

Throughout Exercise III, keep up the concrete drill upon the use of the term "part of speech" and of the phrases "— is a verb, because it expresses action," and "— is a noun, because it is the name of a — (*i. e.*, person, animal, or thing)." This is necessary as a preparation for an analysis language form to be given in the next exercise.

Exercise IV.

PURPOSE.—This exercise has for its chief purpose the acquirement of a reflex for finding the complement.

METHOD.—Taking the first sentence as an example, the teacher at the board will allow the pupils to pick out the predicate, and diagram as heretofore learned the predicate and subject. She should then write above the complement, the subject and predicate, and after the latter, *what* (or *whom*), with a question mark at the end; thus,

cows		eat		cows eat what?

Call upon the pupils to give the answer. The teacher then writes *grass* in the complement place, remarking that *grass* is the complement because it answers the question, "Cows eat what?" Repeat this process a few times with the same or different sentences, and it will probably not be found necessary to give much preliminary drill upon this form, but the pupils may pass directly to the analysis form, after they have diagrammed the entire sentence, as follows:

"Cows eat grass. *Eat* is the predicate, because it tells what is done. What eat? Cows eat. Therefore, *cows* is the subject, because it tells what eat. Cows eat what? Grass. Therefore, *grass* is the complement, because it tells what the cows eat."

Exercise V.

PURPOSE.—Some sentences have no complement, as those in Exercises I, II, and III, but these were used, as incomplete, because we had not then introduced the form for finding the complement. Now, that we have

done so in Exercise IV, it is of essential importance for the pupil to know and state whether or not there is a complement; otherwise, he will entangle himself in a network of confusions. Some sentences of this exercise have complements and some have none. If they have none, insist, nevertheless, that the question for finding it be constructed and the reply given, "There is no answer; therefore, there is no complement." The complete form, using the second sentence, will be as follows: "Miners dig. *Dig* is the predicate, because it tells what is done. Who dig? ...Miners. Therefore, *miners* is the subject, because it tells who dig. Miners dig what? There is no answer. Therefore, there is no complement."

LANGUAGE FORM FOR NAMING PARTS OF SPEECH.—After a sentence has been diagrammed and then analyzed, require a pupil to name the part of speech of each word in the sentence; thus, "*Cows* is a noun, because it is the name of an animal. *Eat* is a verb, because it shows action. *Grass* is a noun, because it is the name of a thing." Make this a habit requiring no prompting, each word being taken in its order.

The regular order for board work will therefore now be:

1. Diagramming.
2. Analysis, looking at the diagram.
3. Naming parts of speech.

Exercise VI—Review.

PURPOSE.—To review all reflex diagrammatic and analysis forms.

By the end of Exercise V pupils should be able to do the following things without stumbling:

1. To diagram sentences of the types given.
2. To analyze, without prompting, according to the forms given when the diagram is before them; and to analyze, *from a visual picture in the mind*, sentences which they have recently diagrammed.
3. To name the nouns and verbs and give the phrases used as reasons.
4. To use the terms *predicate*, *subject*, and *complement*, unhesitatingly, and be able to point out their respective places in a skeleton diagram.

METHOD.—Use each of these sentences for diagramming, analysis, and naming of parts of speech. For the second lesson use the same sentences for imaginative and memory drill in visualizing sentences in diagrammatic form. If pupils are backward in visualizing, use the sentences of Exercises III, IV, or V, before proceeding to Exercise VI. The visualizing of diagrammatic forms without the diagram should now take a more important place in the work, increasing with each exercise, but do not attempt to force matters, for there can be no true imagination unless pupils have had the actual images of the diagram first firmly impressed by seeing them. As soon as pupils show strength in this matter permit them to analyze new sentences, without diagramming, provided the teacher is sure they are using visual images and are not merely saying the words. Sentences similar to those given may be constructed by the teacher and written upon the board. (See Appendix B.)

Exercise VII.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form of adjectives as modifiers of the subject.

METHOD.—It will be noted in all these sentences that the adjective is placed in its regular order before the subject, and the pupil will first learn to recognize it by this position. There is no harm in this, for, later, after we have gradually developed, by concrete examples, the abstract meaning of adjectives, we will introduce sentences with adjectives out of their regular order (see Appendix H); pupils will then be obliged to use the abstract notions which, by these earlier exercises, will be developed. We will put the simpler association, which is thought in visual picture, first.

Tell the pupils to look at the sentence, to find the predicate, and diagram it as far as they can. When the predicate and subject are placed, drop a slanting line from *dogs* and put *young* upon it, remarking, for example, "This is a new part of speech. It is an adjective (write the word and have it distinctly pronounced), because it tells what kind of dogs. It modifies *dogs*"; thus,



Then have class take the next sentence and, by imitation of what you have done, diagram the sentence. Keep up a running fire of remarks, at every opportunity using the terms "adjective," "modifies," and the phrase "because it tells the kind of —," gradually calling upon pupils to give these in reply to questions. If there is any hesitancy, show the pupils or tell them. There is no harm in imitation, provided we make good use of it, nor can we draw terms, phrases, and reasons from a child until we have put them in him.

It is just as well that the term "modifier" should have the visual significance of being a word on a slanting line dependent from another line. We can not give the abstract significance before there are visual images.

REVIEW.—If each sentence is completely diagrammed and analyzed and the parts of speech are named, all previous work will be reviewed. Give some sentences of previous exercises each day, however, for imaginative picturing.

Exercise VIII.

PURPOSE.—To introduce the use of *the*, *an*, or *a*, as adjectives which point out, and to introduce adjectives modifying the complement.

METHOD.—Proceed as in Exercise VI, teaching the use of the term *point out* in the use of *the*, *an*, or *a*. It will perhaps not be necessary to make any preparatory remark about adjectives modifying the complement, unless pupils fail. If they do, help them, but let them try first. We have already given them some thought material, and we may now begin to expect some originality and initiative in constructions similar to those

which they have been taught. Also introduce the use of the expression, in the use of adjectives, "modifies the noun —." Remark frequently that "adjectives modify nouns," with the concrete illustration before the class.

In this exercise begin the training of a definite reflex form for analysis of adjectives, as follows:

"— modifies the noun —, telling what kind of — (or *points out*), and is therefore an adjective."

Exercise IX.

PURPOSE.—To concentrate drill upon the analysis form of adjectives in connection with the complete analysis of the sentences.

METHOD.—Taking the first sentence, the complete form to be given after a given sentence is diagrammed, will be as follows:

"The fat cows eat the green grass. *Eat* is the predicate, because it tells what is done. What eat? Cows. Therefore, *cows* is the subject, because it tells what eat. Cows eat what? Grass. Therefore, *grass* is the complement, because it tells what the cows eat. *The* modifies the noun *cows*, pointing out cows, and is therefore an adjective. *Fat* modifies the noun *cows*, telling what kind of cows, and is therefore an adjective. *The* modifies the noun *grass*, pointing out grass, and is therefore an adjective. *Green* modifies the noun *grass*, telling what kind of grass, and is therefore an adjective."

Exercise X.

PURPOSE.—To introduce adjectives telling *how many* and *what*.

METHOD.—It is well, now, to throw pupils upon their own resources in facing these new varieties of adjectives. Ask them what the word *two* tells about, and what it tells about *boys*. Finally, get the form "how many." So with *every* and *each*, and finally secure the form "tells what." The pupils should be able to discover that *these*, *those*, and *that*, *point out*. Introduce these alternative phrases in the analysis form.

By the close of this exercise the pupils should be so familiar with concrete examples and the use of the alternative phrases regarding them that this statement can be given for definite memorizing:

Adjectives modify nouns, and generally tell what, what kind, how many, or point out.

This needs to be memorized in a definite order, to the end that when confronted by adjectives, adjective phrases, and adjective clauses, pupils may try, in turn, each of these phrases to determine the use.

Exercise XI.

PURPOSE.—To offer, in review, sentences exercising the imaginative picturing of diagrammatic forms.

METHOD.—Call for the analysis of these sentences without previous diagramming. If, however, pupils do not readily meet this requirement, then diagram the sentences; and it is advisable to have each diagrammed after analysis, for the benefit of the weaker pupils in the class.

Exercise XII.

PURPOSE.—To develop the diagrammatic form for representing adverbs, and to acquire the analysis form for the same.

METHOD.—The same method of developing adjectives should be used for adverbs. First, show how to diagram a few sentences, remarking, as you do so, that the word modifies — (the predicate), telling how (where, when, or how much) the — (subject) — (predicate), and is therefore what we call an adverb.

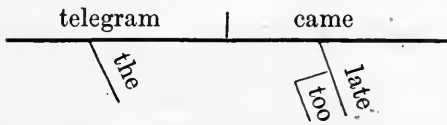
Under this exercise are given four sets of sentences. Each should be worked over thoroughly until the notion of adverb is associated in place with the verb, never with nouns, and in abstract quality with the questions, *how*, *when*, *where*, or *how much*. After a few lessons and reviews have developed these phrases to a state of unhesitancy, give the complete analysis form for adverbs, as follows:

“The boy ran quickly. * * * *Quickly* modifies *ran*, telling how he ran, and is therefore an adverb.” Use in the same way the expressions “telling where,” “telling when” (sometimes “how long”), etc.

Exercise XIII.

PURPOSE.—To develop the diagrammatic form of adverbs as the modifiers of other adverbs and adjectives.

METHOD.—Probably by this time the pupils have had enough concrete experiences in determining the words which other words modify, and in distinguishing shades of meaning, to see for themselves the relation of adverbs as modifiers of other adverbs and adjectives. Therefore, before showing the class how to diagram this class of modifiers, call for suggestions. If you do not get them, it is time enough to fall back upon imitation. As for the diagrammatic form, it is convenient to adopt the following:



By the end of this exercise we should be able to gather up the loose phrases with which pupils have been becoming familiar and have a definite statement memorized, as follows:

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, and generally tell how, where, when, or why.

THE DEVICE OF THE SKELETON DIAGRAM.

As a means of quick drill upon place forms and relations of the parts of speech, the device of the skeleton diagram will be found serviceable.



Draw the skeleton upon the board, or such part of it as may be needed. To drill upon the place forms, point to a place and call upon pupils to give the names (*i. e.*, subject, predicate, complement, modifier of the subject, modifier of a modifier, etc.). To drill upon the parts of speech, point, for example, to the subject place, and expect pupils to say that nouns may occupy this place, etc. From this may be developed a visual realization that adjectives can modify nouns and never modify verbs; that adverbs may modify adjectives, verbs, or other adverbs.

Exercise XIV.

PURPOSE.—To memorize, as a visual picture, the conjugation form of an irregular verb.

We may, in the matter of learning the various forms of a verb, very profitably make use of the strong visualizing tendency of children which leads them to remember a thing by its place on the page. The conjugation forms have, therefore, been arranged by position and different types, to make this as easy as possible. The fact that pupils make the first step in recognizing the past tense by its position on the page rather than by the abstract conception of past time expressed, in no way prevents nor incapacitates them from later grasping the idea of past time and associating it with the place. This location is in fact the entering wedge of understanding and offers something tangible and definite upon which they can hang the abstraction of past time. (See Appendix G.) While the conjugation forms are few in which mistakes are made (*e. g.*, the past participle of *lay* for the past tense of *lie*, *have went* for *have gone*, etc.), nevertheless it is necessary to learn all forms in order not to be mystified when comparatively infrequent forms appear; thus, unless pupils definitely learn the participles, they do not recognize them when they do appear, and incorrectly construe them as predicates, and thereby make sentences where they mean to use clauses.

An attempt is made also to reduce the number of these different forms to their smallest compass. It is not the purpose in the elementary schools to teach grammar logically, nor as a science. We are dealing with the lowest foundations. Therefore, we do not cumber our conjugation with the archaic forms of the second person, *thou seest*, *ye see*, etc.; these can be studied in the later text review, or better, in the high school. Nor do we give the past tense of the subjunctive mode in order to be logical, since it is the same as the past tense of the indicative mode. The English verb really has only two tenses; other ideas of time are not expressed by inflection (*i. e.*, change in the form of the verb), but by helpers, or signs, which are really adverbs, since they “modify” or change the meaning of the verb as to time, compulsion, ability, etc.

For the present we need not concern ourselves with the abstract differences in significance between the modes or tenses, nor with those between the emphatic or potential forms, etc. We must centralize attention upon the form. We therefore class together *do*, *did*, *may*, etc., for the verb-phrases of each are formed in the same manner. The usual distinction

given in grammars that *shall* is used in the first person exclusively and *will* in the second and third is omitted because it is not true. Both *shall* and *will* are used in all persons, but with different significance. These significances may be treated later.

METHOD.—It is not intended that this exercise shall be finished in one lesson. It will require several lessons and many reviews. For the succeeding lessons until the verb and pronoun forms are thoroughly learned, at least one half of the time of each day's lesson should be given to memorizing these conjugation forms; and the analysis and diagramming should take a second place.

The important factor in memorizing these forms is to get the intensive attention upon the forms, and not to vary the geometric shape. If pupils copy it, or the teacher should put it upon the board, the same relative position of the place upon the page should be maintained.

The two pages should be taken separately. The first page should be completely learned in every detail, the names of the modes and tenses being learned carefully, since these names are of somewhat common use. In the matter of the verb-phrases, however, it is important to learn only the forms; the names "future tense," etc., stated in the brackets, may be left to chance memory; it is better to refer to the verb-phrases as "the verb-phrase with *have*," "the verb-phrase with *may*," etc. By so doing, the attention is thrown upon the form.

Since we are first attempting to get the intensive attention upon the form, let us avoid dividing the attention by attempting to develop the abstract ideas too early. Let us be content, for a time, that a form is in the past tense "because it is the second tense"; and it is plural number "because it is on the right-hand side of the page," etc.

Device 1. Read the first page over with the class, pronouncing the new words with them, pointing out the arrangement, to wit: that there are two tenses in the indicative mode, that the singular number is on the left hand, that each person is both singular and plural, etc.

Device 2. Stand in the rear of the room where you can look over the shoulders of the pupils. With open books before them ask them to point with their fingers to the tenses and principal parts as you call out the name of each.

Device 3. Give the new words as a spelling lesson, and have pupils study this lesson from the books.

Device 4. Assign as a lesson a portion of the page. As a test have pupils reproduce, from memory, upon the blackboard or upon paper at their seats, the forms asked for.

Device 4. Same as Device 3, except the forms may be given orally. Insist that these forms be given finally without hesitancy or stumbling.

Device 5. (The most serviceable, but to be given only after the other devices have developed a tolerably clear memory.)

(a) The teacher should make a skeleton of the conjugation upon large sheets of paper (brown wrapping paper will do). Write the names of the principal parts, modes, tenses, number, and person, but leave the verb

forms blank. Then with a pointer call upon pupils to give the verb form when its space is pointed out. Reverse this plan and give a pupil the pointer to point out the right place when a given form is called for. Care should be taken in making this skeleton that the relative position upon the page should correspond with the page in the book. Drill especially upon those forms and facts where errors are usually committed, viz: third person singular present tense, the fact that the past form only occurs in the past tense, the employment of the past participle in the perfect participle, the verb-phrases with *have, has, had, shall have, may have, etc.*, the use of *has* in the third person singular in place of *have*. In order to distinguish between the past form and past participle, the conjugation of an irregular verb is taken instead of a regular verb.

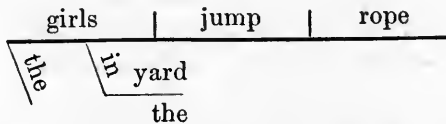
(b) After the forms of *see* have been thoroughly learned, use other irregular verbs, especially those in which errors usually occur, viz: *lie, lay, eat, blow, grow*. Finally, take up regular verbs in the same way. Teach the definitions of regular and irregular verbs, but no mention need be made of the distinctions of transitive, intransitive, etc.

Exercise XV.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form of a prepositional phrase; also, to give exercise in recognizing tense and verb-phrase forms of the predicate.

METHOD.—The general method will be identical with that for teaching previous forms, especially that of adjectives and adverbs. First, the teacher will diagram at the board one or more sentences, explaining and stating a good deal that she does not expect the pupils to return to her immediately.

"*In the yard* is a prepositional phrase modifying the noun *girls*, telling what girls. Therefore, we call it an adjective phrase. It begins with the preposition *in*—this is a new part of speech—and therefore we call it also a prepositional phrase.



Yard is a noun, used as the object of the preposition *in*," etc.

Secondly, have pupils in imitation diagram the other sentences. Have the new words distinctly pronounced and spelled. Then gradually, after frequent repetition by the teacher, familiarize the pupils in the use of these language forms.

After the sentences of any group containing a given preposition have been diagrammed, go over the sentences, putting the attention clearly upon the preposition and obtaining such replies as, "In the first sentence *in* is a preposition and its object is *yard*."

Beginning with set B, there will be found predicates in tenses other than present and past. These should not be taken up until the study of the con-

jugations has reached these forms. Teach pupils to recognize the form by their signs, *has, had, shall have, having*, etc.

After phrase diagramming and analysis have become so reflex that pupils readily reply in the language forms used by the teacher, group these parts in analysis forms for adjectives and adverbs, as follows:

For Adjectives: — modifies — (a noun), telling what (or what kind, how many, etc.) — (the noun), and is therefore an adjective phrase.

For Adverbs: — modifies — (*i. e.*, the verb, adjective, or adverb), telling when (or where, how, etc.). It is therefore an adverbial phrase.

When these sentences have been finished give some reviews, asking pupils to name quickly the prepositions in several sentences. Aim to have the pupils learn the common prepositions by sight.

REVIEW.—Devote the larger part of the lessons to work upon the conjugation forms. Keep up the drill constantly upon all analysis and parsing forms previously taught, and frequently use the skeleton diagram until these relations are understood and can be readily expressed. Especially drill upon adverbs as they come up in the sentences.

Exercise XVI.

PURPOSE.—To teach certain relations of the construction in active verb forms.

The past tense of certain verbs is frequently confused with the past participle (notably in the case of *went* for *gone*, *laid* for *lay*, etc.). From a grammatical standpoint the pupil needs to realize clearly that the past form of the verb is never used except in the past tense, and that the past participle is used in all the perfect tenses and verbals.

METHODS.—1. Write upon the board the principal parts of a number of irregular verbs and have the pupils conjugate them orally in the verb-phrase tenses, using the conjugation of *see* as a type.

2. Write the principal parts of verbs in which errors are commonly made and teach the pupils to construct the conjugation of these from the principal parts and signs, drilling upon such forms in which errors are commonly made until they are remembered. For example, have them note, and be able to express, that the tenses with *have (has)* or *had* are formed by the sign *have (has)* or *had* and the past participle; then have constructed such forms as *have gone, have seen, have grown, have blown, had gone, had grown*, etc. Insist that pupils shall clearly explain the process of this construction. (Verbs which should especially be used are: *lie, break, eat, see, set, go, sit, blow, grow, lay, begin, run.*)

After this work for any verb has been carried out, distinctly point out the common error and repeatedly have explained why this form is wrong.

It is true there is a didactic rule that pupils should not be shown errors, but this rule is sound only in so far as it introduces new errors to a child's experience. In correcting habitual errors already acquired it is important that the pupil should know that this specific form is wrong, and he should also know why, grammatically, it is wrong. Most of the errors such as

laid for *lay*, *have went*, *growed*, and *seen* for *saw*, are so common that they belong to this class.

Exercise XVII.

PURPOSE.—To teach the conjugation of the verb *be*.

METHOD.—The method to be pursued is identical with that given for the study of the verb *see*. The verb-phrases are not given, as they may be learned by construction from the plan of the conjugation forms of *see*; they should, however, receive thorough drill. (See Appendix G.)

Exercise XVIII.

PURPOSE.—To teach the use of the subjective complement.

METHOD.—The method is the same as heretofore used. The teacher should first diagram a sentence; thus,

I | am \ young

showing the slanting line. She should explain that *young* is an adjective describing the subject *I*. Do not at first introduce the abstract conception that subjective complements always refer to the subject, but teach that all forms of the verb *be* never take an object complement. After this fact is realized associate the abstract conception with this form.

Pronouns have not heretofore been introduced, in order that the varieties of parts of speech should remain as small as possible. Do not teach the definition that pronouns stand instead of nouns, but have the children first learn them as individuals—*I*, *you*, *we*, *they* are pronouns. The personal pronouns do not really “stand instead of nouns.”

In giving the parts of speech after a sentence has been diagrammed always have the tense or verb-phrase of the verb given.

Give attention to the tense forms. As soon as pupils readily recognize the tense by the form, begin developing the abstract idea of time as expressed by this form, whether past, present, or future.

Exercise XIX.

PURPOSE.—To teach the passive and progressive forms of the verb.

METHOD.—After pupils have thoroughly learned the conjugation of the verb *be* or *am*, teach the passive and progressive forms by construction. Write upon the board the conjugation of *see*, passive form, and develop the fact that it is formed by adding the past participle of the given verb to the forms of the verb *be*. Then have pupils write (or give orally) the passive form in any of the present or past tenses, and verb-phrases. After the passive is tolerably well learned teach the progressive in the same manner.

Device 1. Using the conjugation skeleton, point to a given space and call for the passive or progressive forms.

Device 2. Have individual pupils point to the right place on the skeleton, the passive and progressive forms being given.

Device 3. Write upon the board a miscellaneous list of active, passive, and progressive forms, and pointing to each call upon pupils to give the name of the form.

REVIEW.—Maintain constant drill upon recognizing tenses by the abstract idea of the time expressed, as well as by the form.

Exercise XX.

PURPOSE.—The pupils thus far have been drilled chiefly in diagramming. Their knowledge of relations has been mainly in the visual stage. But it is to be hoped that by this time the diagrammatic forms of the earlier types have become thoroughly reflex. We need now to throw the emphasis of our teaching of these earlier forms upon getting away from this visualizing, and in dealing with relations as abstractive. In the sentences of this exercise, words and phrases are thrown out of their regular order, compelling the pupil to focus his attention upon relationship in order to find the construction. The principle involved is more fully explained in Appendix H.

METHOD.—So far as possible avoid diagramming and call for oral analysis. If, however, pupils do not readily see the constructions in imagination, then use the sentences for diagramming and have them analyzed the next day. In subsequent lessons use these sentences for review in analysis, focusing attention closely upon the abstract relationship of the words and phrases out of order.

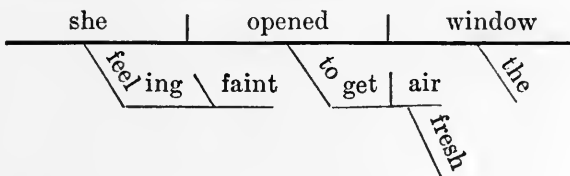
REVIEW.—Make these sentences also review exercises for tense forms, phrase relationships, etc.

Exercise XXI.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form of phrases containing infinitives and participles.

METHOD.—The method should be the same as in presenting new diagrammatic forms. The form to be used may be as follows:

Feeling faint she opened the window to get fresh air.



REVIEW.—Use the sentences of Exercise XXII for analysis without diagramming.

Exercise XXII.

PURPOSE.—To acquire a visual memory of the place of each form of inflected pronouns. (See Appendix G.)

METHOD.—The methods may be the same as in learning the conjugations. The entire page, as a page, need not be visualized, but each declension may be visualized and memorized separately. As soon as the forms are fairly well pictured, the skeleton device may be used to advantage as a means of focusing the attention. The pupils should finally be able to answer, without hesitation, such questions as, “The objective case singular of *I*?” “The nominative singular of *him*?” “The objective plural of *it*?” As a test write all of the pronouns above in columns upon the board and require pupils to name the case immediately without reflection.

Exercise XXIII.

PURPOSE.—To give exercise in recognizing the various inflected forms of pronouns, and to learn the place of each of the cases in the diagram.

METHOD.—Have the sentences diagrammed and attention centered upon the case and place. Have the language forms learned gradually, as in previous methods, so that pupils will readily be able to say without hesitancy; thus, in the sentence, “They sent us to him,” “*They* is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *sent*; *us* is in the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *sent*; *him* is in the objective case, because it is the object of the preposition *to*.”

REVIEW.—Keep up review drill in abstract analysis, using the sentences of Exercises XX and XXI.

Exercise XXIV.

PURPOSE.—To continue the drill in case recognition under condition of compound parts.

METHOD.—Teach the form of diagramming the compound subject or complement and the compound phrase, and give thorough drill, as in Exercise XXIII, upon the case of a given place. Use the skeleton diagram as a device after these places are fairly well learned.

Have the conjunctions named, the teacher remarking repeatedly that conjunctions “connect.”

Exercise XXV.

PURPOSE.—This is an exercise in general review. So far as possible, use oral analysis and diagramming in imagination, but if pupils show any fogginess of mental pictures have the sentences diagrammed.

If pupils have already learned any language forms very perfectly, then permit a looseness in their use and encourage free statements by the pupils. (See reasons as given in Appendix H.)

Drill upon all weaker reflexes in conjugation or pronoun forms, and especially question closely in all constructions out of usual order.

Exercise XXVI.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form of the compound predicate.

METHOD.—Before resorting to imitation, force the issue by asking the

pupils what the subject of one of the verbs is and then the other, and expect them to give some solution to the situation. In the final end see that they comprehend clearly that both verbs have the subject, that only one subject acts, or is acted upon, etc.

Continue the study of conjunctions, aiming to have pupils recognize them by sight and to know that conjunctions connect.

Exercise XXVII.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form of compound sentences, the verbs of the clauses being connected by the conjunction.

METHOD.—Before commencing upon the analysis directly, bring out by questions the essentials of the situation: that the sentence contains two subjects and two predicates, that the conjunction does not connect words merely, but the two clauses. Use the word “clause,” pointing out concretely in several sentences that a clause is different from a phrase in that it always has both subject and predicate.

After the sentences in this exercise have been clearly worked over, take up the sentences of Exercise XXVI and drill the class in changing those sentences into compound sentences, noting that the latter differ from the former in having at least two “clauses.”

Continually review the conjunctions. Do not classify the conjunctions, and treat such forms as *either—or* as *one* conjunction.

Exercise XXVIII.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form and use of the dependent clause used adjectively.

METHOD.—It will be generally necessary and economical in time to teach the first steps by imitation. Name the two clauses “principal” and “dependent,” but aim to make pupils realize that the dependent clause modifies a word just as adjectives or adjective phrases modify words, and that it is adjective because it modifies a noun.

Put attention by questions upon the relative pronoun, naming it such. Write all of the forms of the simple relative pronouns, *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, and *what*, and have them recognized by their form. In the sentence work focus the attention that they both connect and are used as subjects, complements, or objects of prepositions, just as nouns and other pronouns are used. Begin the use (not necessarily by pupils) of the term “antecedent” and of language expressing the fact that the relative pronoun stands for this antecedent.

Lead up to the set language form, “— is a dependent clause modifying the noun (or pronoun) —, telling what (what kind, etc.) — (*i. e.*, the noun); it is therefore an adjective dependent clause.”

Exercise XXIX.

PURPOSE.—To teach the use of dependent clauses used adverbially.

METHOD.—Treat in a manner analogous to the adjective clause, making

it clear that adverbial clauses modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, just as adverbs as words do. Put the attention upon the conjunctive adverbs used, learning the name, and developing the relationship that they connect and also tell when, where, how, why, etc. Drill upon their sight recognition by placing them upon the board and also by rapidly picking them out from sentences.

Exercise XXX.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form for noun clauses.

METHOD.—Use imitation to establish the form. Aim to put the attention upon the fact that they are used in the place of nouns, and really are a group of words which name a thing, just as a word names a thing.

Exercise XXXI.

PURPOSE.—To teach the diagrammatic form and use of words in apposition.

METHOD.—By imitation, show that the word in apposition is put in parentheses on the same line with the word which it explains; thus,

Jones (the carpenter) | is \ thrifty

Develop immediately the idea that words in apposition explain or mean the same person as the words which they explain.

Exercise XXXII.

PURPOSE.—This is a complete review of the previous work.

METHOD.—Use analysis as far as possible, bringing in actual diagramming only as illustrative of foggy or difficult points. If the class as a whole, or individual pupils show weakness in any particular point, construct additional sentences for extra drill upon this point.

When this work is finished, pupils should be able to analyze or diagram any of the common regular constructions of the English language. We have expressly omitted all idioms or occasional constructions. These should only be treated, if at all, after pupils are thoroughly familiar with regular forms, and in Part II some attention will be given to them. Idioms or rare forms should never be diagrammed, for it simply leads to confusion, owing to the inadequacy of the diagram to express nice distinctions. All of this study should be accomplished after the pupil has fully reached the stage of abstract thinking of grammatical forms.

Exercise XXXIII.

PURPOSE.—To learn definitely the few fundamental grammatical facts.

METHOD.—The facts implied should not be learned from a study of these questions. After the study of verbs has been commenced, Set I should be asked as a review, for they have been the subject of study in the earlier lessons. Set II should be taken later. It is advisable for the teacher, as

soon as her pupils understand from the drill of the exercises any small group of these questions, to copy them upon small cards. Take these cards and use five minutes of a recitation every day or so in rapid questioning. As each new topic is mastered fairly well, add the questions involved, and when this course is completed the sets of questions will also be completed. During the course of Part II, these cards may be used for a quick review weekly.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

Set I.

1. Which parts of speech may be used as subjects?
2. Which questions do adjectives answer?
3. Which part of speech may modify a verb?
4. Which part of speech can modify an adjective?
5. Which part of speech may the predicate be?
6. Which parts of speech do adjectives modify?
7. What is a noun?
8. Which parts of speech can modify a noun?
9. Which part of speech answers the question, How? What? Where? What kind? When? How many? Why? Which points out?
10. Which questions do adverbs answer?
11. Which parts of speech do adverbs modify?
12. What do verbs generally express?
13. Which parts of speech may be used as subjects? As complements?

Set II.

1. When is a pronoun in the objective case?
2. What may prepositions do?
3. In what case is a pronoun which is the object of a verb? Of a preposition? Of a participle? Of an infinitive?
4. What are the signs of the infinitives?
5. What are the usual signs of the participles?
6. Name the relative pronouns?
7. Which parts of speech do participles modify? Do participles ever modify verbs?
8. Name the common prepositions.
9. What do relative pronouns express in a sentence?
10. What do the conjunctive adverbs express in a sentence?
11. What parts of speech may infinitives modify?
12. When is a pronoun in the objective case?
13. Name the forms known as the principal parts of a sentence?
14. What do verbs with *shall* or *will* express?
15. In what letter do verbs in the third person singular end?
16. In what person and number does *has* occur?
17. In what tense does the past form of the principal parts occur? Does this form ever occur in any other tense, or in a verb-phrase?
18. In what case is a pronoun used as the subject of a sentence?
19. After what verb do we always use the nominative case?

20. In what respect are participles like verbs? In what respect like adjectives?
21. In what case is the pronoun used as the object of an infinitive or participle?
22. How is the passive voice formed?
23. How is the progressive voice formed?
24. In what case is a pronoun used as subject of a sentence?
25. In what case are nouns or pronouns which modify other nouns or pronouns?

APPENDIX.

Explanations of the reasons for the various steps outlined in the lessons will be stated in the Appendix more fully, and in more general terms, than is permissible in the exercises themselves. There are certain general principles, constantly recurrent, which will be made simpler if explained as a whole. The place for these explanations is at the end rather than in the preface. Each will, therefore, be stated in separate form.

A. The Reflex Stage.

The term reflex, as it will be used in this manual, refers to those processes, mental or physical, which are performed with little or no conscious attention. For example, by constant repetition the pupil will be able to draw his diagram and go through the successive steps of correctly placing the predicate and subject, then the modifiers of the subject, and finally the modifiers of the predicate, without any distinct attention to the order of these steps. We may say that this process is now "reflex," though at first this order required a severe strain upon the attention. The law of making reflexes is that, in their first stage of formation, intense attention is required and that in the final stage practically no effort of attention is required. They become automatic. For the reason of securing great concentration of the forces of attention, it has been found economical in time, therefore, to train only one reflex at a time, and the various steps in grammatical learning, in this manual, will be found graded upon this principle. The advantage of this system of reflex acquirement is that, a reflex once obtained, the attention can be given to other matters which always require it. Thus, in the example given, if the order of the process of placing the predicate, subject, and modifiers is reflex, then the attention may be concentrated upon the abstract relationships of the words and phrases concerned. If, on the contrary, the order of this process is not made reflex, it constantly requires a share of the physical forces of attention and the pupil is unable to give his whole mind to the abstract relationships.

The first part of this manual, therefore, will be chiefly given to these processes of acquiring the fixed reflexes constituting the mechanical substratum of grammatical comprehension. It is essential to have a sharp realization between the state of "knowing" a process and the same process reduced to a reflex state. For example, in teaching pupils to find the subject and predicate, under the method outlined in Exercises I, II, and III, they must make a distinct effort of the attention at first to remember what to do now, and what to do next. In the final stage, they perform the process automatically, with the attention free to devote to other phases. The former stage is the mere "knowing" stage, requiring the constant presence of the forces of attention and permitting no consciousness of other phases at the same time; while the latter is the reflex stage, when the attention may at the same time be given to other matters. A confusion of these stages is easy, for in both cases the pupil performs his task. But no new task should be undertaken until the reflex stage is reached in the task in hand.

B. The Error of Dividing the Attention.

The entire problem of method, in any form of learning, may be said to hinge upon the intensity of the attention. Methodology consists in securing devices for gaining and concentrating attention. The pupil learns when his attention is upon the thing he is to learn, and his memory, in so far as mere retention is concerned, is directly proportional to this degree of attention. To think of the attention in visual terms, we may perhaps be assisted by likening the mind to a bar of iron, and the state of attention comparable to the condition when the iron is red hot. Under such conditions, impressions which could neither be made nor retained are easily implanted. As a matter of fact, it is probable that areas of the brain in a state of attention are actually flushed with blood; they are also probably the centers of nerve discharges, and are therefore highly sensitized. In all processes of learning, the essential problem is that of securing this condition of attention upon the small compass of one thing to be learned. There seems to be a limit to the quantity of attention. It is as though the forces of attention were contained in a reservoir, and if they are drawn off in several areas at the same time, there is not as much power as if they were concentrated upon one. Experience is showing us, in consonance with this illustration, that if we have several things to teach, it is economical in time to take up each separately and concentrate all forces of attention possible upon this one, then to take up another, and so on, rather than to divide the reservoir of attention among all. None of the irons, as it were, are reduced to a white heat and no impressions are adequately made, whereas by concentration upon each, one at a time, the white heat stage is reached and impressions are made easily and they are retained.

For the same reason, experience is showing us that it is economical in time to break up any problem of learning into as many small pieces as is conveniently possible, and first to treat each separately, under conditions of concentrated attention, rather than attempt to teach all the parts simultaneously. Thus, for example, in teaching the spelling of a word, it is

found more economical to give the word at first under conditions which enable the pupil best to concentrate the attention upon the order of the letters. This order clearly pictured, either in motor or visual terms, he must be drilled by repetition under conditions of attention to write it automatically. Finally, he must be trained to use it in sentences. To train him to acquire all of these processes, in one single act, will take more time than to teach each separately and then combine them. The reason for this fact of experience is probably to be explained by some such conditions as that represented by analogy to the irons, which, if the amount of heat available is applied to all of the parts, none become impressionable. After each step in the process is made automatic, attention is no longer required for it, and the force thus saved may be applied to the next successive step.

The principle discussed may perhaps be stated in the brief form that we should not attempt to learn two new things at once. One should first be acquired, and if a mechanical thing, it should be reduced by repetition to an automatic habit or reflex, and the whole force of attention given to the thing to be learned. We should realize that nothing is ever learned without the attention. "Unconscious learning" may always be discovered to be merely a confused misunderstanding of the real facts.

The sentences of this manual have been constructed therefore in accordance with this principle.

I. The sentences must be in simple language, offering no difficulties, in their *meaning*, to children. The constructions depend upon the meaning, and if we use sentences the meaning of which is difficult of comprehension the pupil's attention is unnecessarily strained at first to get the meaning, whereas this attention is needed for mastery of the mere grammatical forms. The use of quotations from literature is a fatal mistake in our grammar texts for this reason. The sentences we need for *teaching* grammar must offer no unnecessary difficulties in their meaning. After the grammatical constructions have been mastered and require no attention, then we are ready to take up sentences of difficult meaning and, by means of grammatical relationships, to resolve them.

II. The sentences employed are carefully graded. No construction is introduced until this construction has been made the subject of study and drill. We commence with sentences containing only a predicate and a subject; no complements nor modifiers of any kind are permitted until the construction of predicate and subject is mastered. Then the different kinds of modifiers are introduced one by one and treated separately. Only simple tenses are used until the conjugation is learned, in order that compound tenses may be recognized when they are introduced. The forms of the verb *be* are not permitted until the conjugation of this verb is learned; so with all other constructions.

The neglect of this principle is a second fatal error of the usual texts. By introducing in heterogeneous variety many constructions in the sentences used, the pupil can not fix his attention upon one at a time in order to make its form reflex.

C. The Place of Visualizing.

Our thinking seems to be made up of two kinds, or stages—thinking in mental pictures, and thinking without pictures. For example, the word *obedience*, probably, does not call up in most adult minds any concrete picture of a scene or event, but to young children it probably calls to visual memory a very concrete scene of his experience. The mental pictures which we use are of several types—according to the special senses—pictures of sight, of hearing, of touch, etc. With whatever concrete imagery we may begin a certain line of thinking, most of us, in the final stage of intelligent comprehension, have no very clear-cut pictures in thinking abstract terms such as “relation,” “character,” “virtue,” “honesty,” etc. In beginning to think in any new field it seems conclusive that our first form of thought will be in some kind of pictures. A child can not begin to think “virtue,” in an abstract, pictureless state. If nothing else, it will be the visual, or auditory form of the word. At best it will be a concrete act or situation which contains the notion of virtue. Abstract or pictureless thinking is a stage of later development due to frequent employment of concrete pictures expressing the various forms of virtue. So, therefore, we may expect that the beginning point for teaching any class of abstract ideas will be the picture stage. Grammar conceptions, in their final form, are thoroughly abstract and we can not expect to escape the preliminary stage of picture thinking. Because so many teachers have attempted to skip this picture stage and to launch immediately into the use of abstract forms is one reason why grammar teaching is hard, and the reason the results are so unsatisfactory. Abstractions are in some way the distillations of pictures, and this preliminary stage of teaching can not be bridged nor shortened. The teacher who herself has reached this abstract stage, not realizing this principle of growth, expects her pupils immediately to join her in the stage of pictureless thinking. This they can not do, and she must return herself to their stage of grammatical thinking. She is often too easily deceived into accepting mere words of definitions as an indication that abstract comprehension accompanies them. Yet it is an equally serious error to keep pupils longer in this picture stage of grammatical thinking than is really necessary. They must pass through this stage to the pictureless stage.

The diagram and neat paradigm forms offer a means of beginning grammar study in the picture stage. Abstract relations may thus be expressed in geometric form, though of course not adequately. Later, as the abstract relationships, inexpressible in picture form, are developed they may be associated with these visual forms. The pupil must not be permitted to remain longer than is necessary in this picture stage of thinking.

D. The Place of the Understanding.

By “understanding” a grammatical construction, we generally imply that the abstract relationships have been mentally grasped or comprehended. Nevertheless, it is quite possible for a pupil to be able to “do” a process which he does not “understand.” In arithmetical subtraction,

for example, a pupil may "borrow" accurately and rapidly and yet never "understand" why he does so. The "understanding" and the "doing" in this instance and in many similar ones are very manifestly two separate processes with no connection between them. They are not even dependent upon each other, for, as we know, persons may understand borrowing in subtraction and yet be very inaccurate in doing it, or "do" it and have no understanding of the reasons. In certain other phases of learning, such as grammar offers, it is essential that the "understanding" and the "doing" should be finally associated, although the learning of either of the two processes is probably in no way dependent upon the other. Either may be taught first, and then the other, and finally the two should be associated. The only important question to determine is which of the two should come first. In studying the predicate and subject, we may break the problem into two separate tasks: one, to find these parts; and secondly, to "understand" the abstract relationship of the one to the other, that the subject is that which is predicated, that it is that which acts or is acted upon, etc. The general attempt in teaching has been made to teach the "understanding" first, because this order seems logical. However, experience has shown that this order, while the logical order, is not the pedagogical order. The reason doubtless lies in the fact that the doing requires only picture thinking, while the understanding requires abstract thinking. The "doing" as a reflex having been accomplished, the understanding will be easier, because there has now been formed in the mind that which will serve as a foundation for the understanding and with which the abstract relations of the understanding may be associated. After the pupil has "done" the process he can proceed to understand it, just as in subtraction a pupil may best understand why he borrows after the process has been made reflex.

At first it will require his whole attention to follow the steps of this process; *i. e.*, to find the predicate, to put "who" or "what" before it and ask the question thus formed. The more often he does this, the less attention force will be needed, until finally he goes through the process and finds the subject with a slight amount of attention. Now that his attention can be used upon other phases, we may begin to teach him the abstract meaning of the subject and its relations to the predicate and to other parts of the sentence. We associate the two, and in the final product the child can both find the subject and understand what it is.

In forming this reflex for finding the subject, it is essential, therefore, that one fixed form should be given, and regularly followed in literal repetition, for if any modification is permitted, the new forms, or mental debate for preference, will claim the attention and therefore delay the formation of an automatic reflex.

E. The Use and Place of Diagramming.

From what has been said in the previous sections it follows, without argument, that diagramming must precede, not follow, analysis. It constitutes a picture stage of grammatical thinking. Why it has ever been permitted to follow analysis is hard to understand, for it is clearly not

a goal of any practical use, and unless it is a means to the understanding it can have no legitimate place in grammar. Its value as an expression of analytic forms in examinations would not justify the labor spent in acquiring these forms. Diagramming is now in the place of a useful means upon which has been put a work of no use. After we once reach the abstract stage of analysis, we clearly have no reason to descend again to the picture stage of diagramming.

As diagramming will be used in this manual, it will merely be the first step in grammatical thinking, and as soon as abstract analytic thinking can be substituted for it, it will be discarded. Our method, as each new form is taken up, will be to acquire by imitation a mechanical system of diagramming, then to reduce this process to reflex form, gradually introducing analytic reasoning, after which the diagram must be discarded. Thus, we shall teach the pupils the subject, first as a place upon the diagram, to be seen *visually*, and obtained by mechanical device. When we have reduced this device to a reflex, we associate with this place, visually perceived, the abstract meaning of a subject and its relations. Then we shall no longer require the pupil to diagram. Similarly, in teaching the construction of prepositional phrases, we may teach the pupils imitatively a form, in visual terms, for representing the phrase—the line for the preposition, the line for its object, and lines for the modifiers. With this form before them we gradually associate the analytic reasons and relations, and the language forms. This goal accomplished, we have no further use for the diagram.

F. Set Language Forms.

Practical teaching is sadly at sea in the matter of the relation of thought and its language form for its expression. It is one thing to have a vague notion, and quite another to have the language form for this notion's expression. Two extreme faults exist in practice—one which is content to secure from pupils the language form of the expression of a thought, falsely assuming that this expression is an indication of the presence of the thought, and the other extreme which assumes a pupil can fully possess a thought, even if he can not express it in language. The truth of the matter certainly is that the language of expression can be given by the pupil without any thought behind it, and, on the other hand, the language is an essential factor of any thought which is at all abstract, and therefore there can be no adequate "understanding" without some form of language. Abstract thought can not exist without language, but there can be language (if the pupil memorizes the words) without thought. A pupil can be taught to say that "the passive voice of the verb represents the subject as acted upon," and yet not realize in the sentence, "The boy was kicked," that the boy was acted upon. On the other hand, the pupil will not be able to comprehend, in the sentence, that *was kicked* is in the passive voice unless he can use some form of language expressive of this idea. The problem of teaching abstract notions, therefore, is that of enabling the pupil to use the language form, yet putting his attention upon

the notion. In short, he must use the language form reflexly while his mind is upon the abstract notion. The language is a factor in the notion, but not all of it. It clearly follows that we can not teach the two parts, meaning and language, wholly independently of each other. Yet, on the other hand, from what has been said in previous paragraphs concerning the necessity of concentrated attention upon one form in order that it may gradually become reflex and require no attention, and further, of the error of attempting to divide the attention in the early stages of learning new things, the opposite course seems equally difficult. A pupil will not be able to focus his attention upon the abstract relationship of a passive verb to its subject and yet say the words expressive of this relationship. A device of solution is that by which, in the early stages, we make this relationship as simple as possible (as the diagram offers), and instead of the pupil attempting to use the language at the same time, the teacher uses the language forms. (See Exercise I for concrete illustration.) As the idea gradually takes firmer hold in the pupil's mind, using the teacher's language as a factor, yet not requiring his distinct effort for expression, the teacher may lead him to pass from the state of merely listening to using the form. Yet finally, if the idea is at all complex and the form has several parts requiring a memorizing of the order, it will be necessary at a later stage to require the whole attention to the language form in itself.

The method throughout this manual, while the diagram is being acquired, is for the teacher to use freely the language forms of analysis expressing the abstract significance of the diagram; secondly, to lead the pupil gradually to use broken parts of this analysis form until, as parts, they have become reflex; and, finally, when, through the diagrammatic representation and the use of these broken parts of the language form, the pupil has a fairly firm grasp of the notion, time should be taken to put these detached parts together in an orderly form of expression. Thus, for example, while the pupil is being trained in the habit of diagramming adjectives as modifiers of the subject or object, the teacher should continually remark, "*— is an adjective, because it modifies the noun —. It tells about —, describing it (or telling what kind of a —).*" After the pupil can mechanically diagram an adjective without much draft upon the attention, the teacher should ask questions requiring him to reply in such detached forms as the following: "It is an adjective," "Because it modifies the noun —," "It tells about —," "It describes —," etc. As a final step, after this drill in diagramming and language has compelled him to grasp the notion with a fair hold, a systematic exercise should teach him to put these parts together in an orderly form and say (and at the same time comprehend), "*— modifies — (the noun), because it tells about —, and is therefore an adjective.*"

It is quite manifest that this method is essentially different from that which compels the child to memorize the words of the definition of an adjective, and later expects him to apply it to a specific case and comprehend this application. Such a system teaches the definition as separate from the notion, and does not aid him in making use of the words as a factor in the abstract understanding.

After pupils can use set language forms reflexly, they should then be encouraged to invent language of their own expressive of their notions, for now they have the raw material out of which to construct their own language forms, from broken pieces of the set forms.

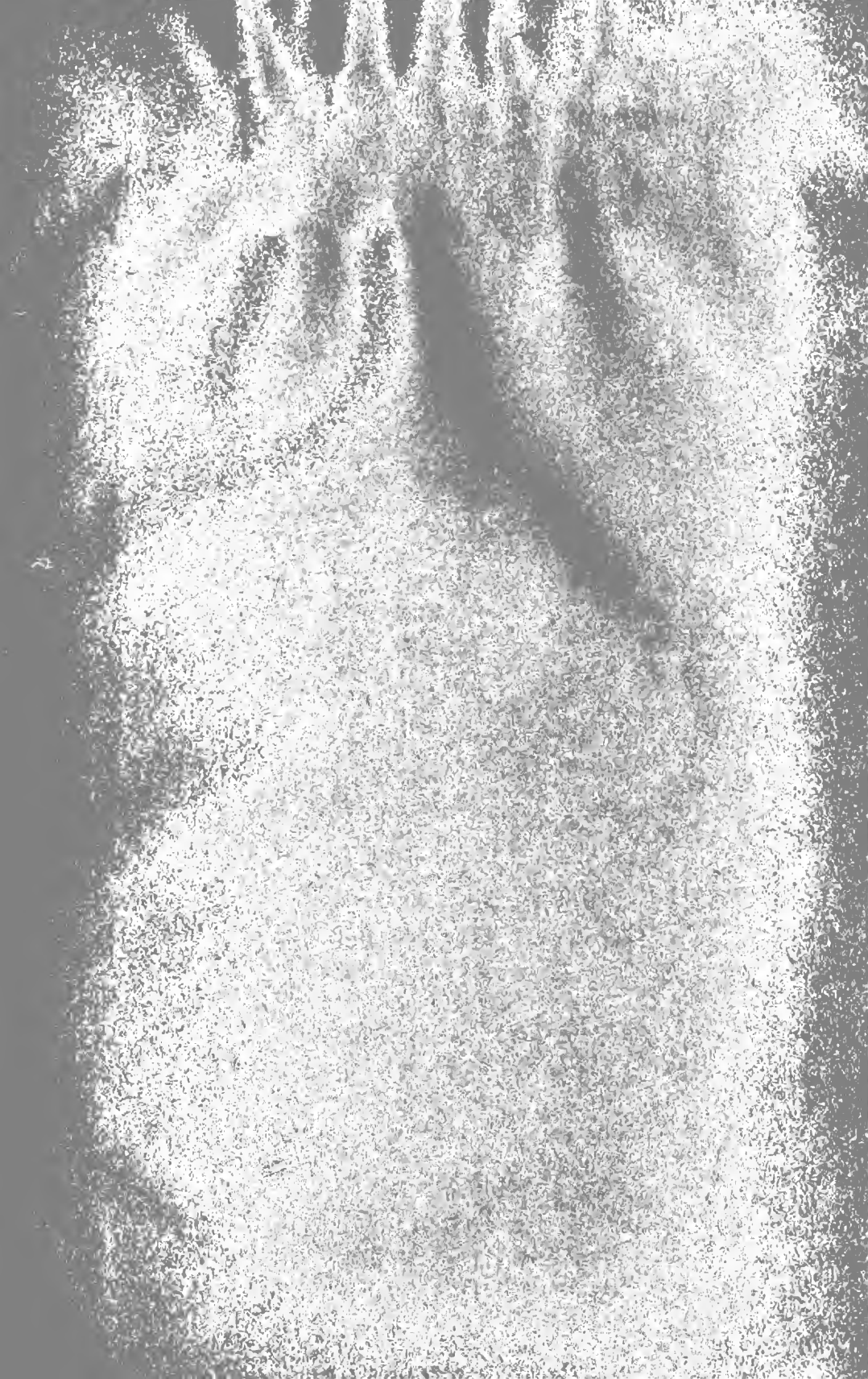
G. Visualizing the Forms of Verbs and Pronouns.

A second important use to be made of the visualizing necessity of the human mind in learning new things is in acquiring clear distinctions of the various inflected forms of verbs and pronouns. Most of us probably realize the large use we make in our thinking by remembering the *place* on the page we saw certain forms or statements. We recall the fact that in our early attempts to grasp distinctions of the Latin inflected forms which our teachers so carefully explained in abstract relationship, we surreptitiously used our memory of these forms *as they appeared upon the printed page* of the Latin grammars. It might have been true, as our teachers labored to show, that *amabo* expressed a personal intention to love *in the future*, but *we* knew it was future, because this form occurred in the third tense on the left-hand side nearly half way down, and, besides, the word *Future* was over the top of it. Later I expect we associated the abstract idea of futurity with this form, but the foundation of our knowledge of this and nearly all other forms of inflection began with visual place memory. This surreptitious use of place memory is so general and so strong in children that it is strange no pedagogical use has been openly and systematically made of it. There exists some sort of a notion that because pupils remember in this way naturally therefore it must be wrong or wicked. In this manual the effort is studied to present a page of forms to assist this visual memory in this way. Such a scheme offers a scaffold around which the abstract conceptions and definitions may be interwoven.

H. Passing from Picture Thinking to Abstract Thinking of Relationships.

We must never lose sight of the fact, in all our grammar teaching, that our chief ultimate goal is to comprehend the abstract relationships of the parts of a sentence. Consequently, our work is never completed when the answers are merely mechanical or in the image stage of thinking. The first foothold, it is true, is some picture representation, diagram or language form. As soon, therefore, as any detail is made reflex, we must begin to associate with it the abstract relationships. When pupils by imitation have learned the form of diagramming the subject, predicate, adverb modifiers, adjective modifiers, phrase modifiers, etc., we must associate in the minds of the pupils the language forms expressive of this diagrammatic relation in the terms of analysis, and finally we must associate the sense of the abstract grammatical relationships. One device for this final end will be the putting of questions in slightly different form, thus forcing the pupils' attention ever more closely upon the abstractions. Another device, of similar character, is that of giving sentences involving the same elements as previously used, but in a different order. Thus, the sentence, "The weary old man rested quietly in his chair under the tree," may be changed

to read, "Quietly in his chair under the tree rested the man, old and weary." In the first form the parts of the sentence are in the natural order to which the pupil is accustomed. A large part of his ability to diagram or analyze, heretofore has depended upon this place order; *old* is an adjective in the pupil's mind, partly because it precedes the noun; *slowly* is an adverb, partly because it is adjacent to the verb, etc. In the new order, the pupil will not be able to recognize *slowly* as a modifier of *rested*, unless he senses in some degree this abstract relationship between the two words. By previous exercises the reflexes of the diagrammatic form and of the language forms of expression have been formed and no longer need require much attention. With the sentence thrown out of order, we may now expect to focus the pupils' attention more directly and exclusively upon this abstract relationship. A series of sentences out of order are given in the book as drills for this purpose. They should be accompanied by close questioning on the part of the teacher to focus attention by every possible means upon these relationships.



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