Professor Meiklejohn's

Grammar and History

of the

English Language

....

- A re-publication of the famous work of 1886 by
J.M.D. Meiklejohn, M.A.
founder of the Faculty of Education
at St. Andrews' University, Scotland -

....

completely revised and re-edited

by

Fraser A. McKen

- Abbreviated Edition -

John Miller Dow Meiklejohn (1830-1902)

In 1854 at the age of twenty-four, John Miller Dow Meiklejohn translated Immanuel Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason* into English and it would remain the standard translation for many years, However, it was in another area of Victorian writing that Meiklejohn's name would become celebrated. He wrote and published the most comprehensive set of schoolbooks, lesson materials and instructional texts for schoolmasters yet seen in an English-speaking classroom.

Foremost and longest lasting among those books was *The English Language: its Grammar, History and Literature*, *(1886),* which reached over thirty editions in Britain, the U.S.A. and the British Commonwealth. This edition marks the 125th anniversary of its first publication by Blackwood and Sons in London.

Professor Meiklejohn's inaugural address at the University of St. Andrews in 1876 anticipated the science of child psychology and psychometrics, the student-centred curriculum, heuristic lessons…and even kindergarten. He stated that parents did not want their children to learn separate and unrelated facts amounting to "limited knowledge of a limited topic". Instead, Meiklejohn said, they want their children to acquire "an intelligent appreciation of scientific triumphs and their resulting social benefits."

Prof. Meiklejohn was against the popular notion of a proficient teacher as one who could "fill the mind in record time. "For instance," he said, "investing a child with a greed for facts in history instead of having the student read historical biography, results in a view of the government of God on earth as accident tempered by catastrophe."

As for English Grammar, Professor Meiklejohn objected to the practice in his era of parsing and analysis of sentences without any reference to the context of the sentences provided - and to the view of grammar as "an easy and agreeable training in elementary logic" when, in fact, there are more errors made than rules followed.

Modern instruction in grammar is aware of those inconsistencies. As Prof. Meiklejohn would have had it, modern grammatical values are induced through imitation of satisfactory writing models presented to students through prescribed reading and monitored writing.

But it's *Professor Meiklejohn's Grammar and History of the English Language*, which presents those rules for teachers of English "in an easy and agreeable way". Rules can then can be inscribed as what is observed in writing by students themselves becomes the rule for the students' own writing.

It's the hope of this editor that this new edition continues to fulfill both teachers' need for information about the English Language and Professor Meiklejohn's intentions for the continuing development of student writing.

Fraser McKen, editor

March, 2011

Foreword - 2011

In 1886, John Miller Dow Meiklejohn published his The *English Language: its Grammar, History and Literature*. This 125th anniversary edition preserves the original division of the text into three "books": "Grammar Of The English Language"; **"**Composition, Punctuation, Paraphrasing And Prosody"; and "The History Of The English Language".

The first book is a set of lessons on English Grammar, starting with the nine "parts of speech" - the building blocks of the English Language, with examples chosen by Meiklejohn from literary passages dating from Shakespeare to Tennyson. This section is heavily cross-referenced so that every time a grammatical term is used, a page reference is inserted such that the reader can review the term if a review is required. Next is a comprehensive section on "syntax", the proper placement of words in an English sentence, followed by description and definition of the four types of sentence and how to analyze each of them.

An "intermediate index" follows (pp.112-113), which is intended to allow the reader to locate and review terms and definitions learned over the first 111 pages. After this index is a section on word building and word derivation, which shows how words have been created over time through various combinations of "root words", "prefixes" and "suffixes" taken from the principal languages of English History; namely Latin, French, Ancient Greek and Anglo-Saxon. Then comes an interesting and sometimes amusing collection of words derived from names of people and places ("parrot"); words with oddly different meanings from their originals ("clumsy**"**); or other words in a disguise ("porpoise")

Part II examines the application of English to daily reading and use with sections on Composition, Punctuation, Paraphrasing and Prosody**.** It includes such topics as style, organization in writing, punctuation, paraphrase and avoiding common pitfalls such as sentence ambiguity and hackneyed expression.

Part III of the book is Professor Meiklejohn's original writing on the History of English dating from the first settlement of German fisherman on the south coast of England to the late 19th C. His final assessment of English is of a language of growth, with borrowings from many other of the world's languages – and the section ends with a timetable of the major events in the development of English to his own era, the Victorian Age.

The final portion of the book consists of exercises and solutions to accompany the first section on the parts of speech of the English Language

Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION [1886]

1.   What a language is - A language is a number of connected sounds which convey a meaning. These sounds, carried to other persons, enable them to know how the speaker is feeling, and what he is thinking. As people grow more and more intelligent, the need of written language becomes more and more felt. Accordingly, all civilised nations have, in the course of time, slowly and with great difficulty made for themselves a set of signs. It has been the aid of these signs that the sounds have come to be represented on paper. But it is the sounds that are the language, and not the signs. The signs are more or less artificial, and more or less accurate; they are a mode of representing the language to the eye. Hence the names language, tongue, and speech are themselves sufficient to show that it is the spoken and not the written language that is the language, - that the spoken language is the more important of the two, and indeed gives life and vigor to the other.

2. The Spoken and the Written Language - Every civilised language had existed for centuries before it was written or printed. Before then, it existed merely as a spoken language. Our own tongue existed as a spoken language for many centuries before any of it was committed to writing. Many languages are born, live, and die out without having ever been written down at all. The parts of a spoken language are called sounds; the smallest parts of a written language are called letters. The science of spoken sounds is called 'Phonetics'; the science of written signs is called 'Alphabetics.'

3. The English Language - The English language is the language of the English people. The English are a Teutonic people who came to this island from the north-west of Europe in the fifth century, and brought with them the English tongue--but only in its spoken form. The English spoken in the fifth century was a harsh guttural speech, consisting of a few thousand words, and spoken by a few thousand settlers in the east of England. It is now a speech spoken by hundreds of millions of people - spread all over the world; and it now consists of a half million words.

4. The Grammar of English - Every language grows. It changes as a tree changes. Its fibre becomes harder as it grows older; it loses old words and takes on new - as a tree loses old leaves, and clothes itself in new leaves at the coming of every new spring. But we are not at present going to trace the growth of the English Language; we are going, just now, to look at it as it is. We shall, of course, be obliged to look back often, and to compare the past state of the language with its present state; but this will be necessary only when we cannot otherwise understand the present forms of our tongue. A description or account of the nature, build, constitution, or make of a language is called its Grammar.

5. The Parts of Grammar - Grammar considers and examines language from its smallest parts up to its most complex organisation. The smallest part of a written language is a letter; the next smallest is a word; and with words we make sentences. There is, then, a Grammar of Letters; a Grammar of Words; and a Grammar of Sentences. The Grammar of Letters is called 'Orthography'; the Grammar of Words is called 'Etymology'; and the Grammar of Sentences is called 'Syntax'. There is also a Grammar of musically measured sentences; this grammar is called 'Prosody.'

(i)   "Orthography" comes from two Greek words: "orthos", meaning "right"; and "graphe", meaning "a writing". The word therefore means "correct writing".

(ii) "Etymology" comes from two Greek Words: "etumos", meaning "true"; and logos, meaning "an account". It therefore means "a true account [of words]".

(iii) "Syntax" comes from two Greek words: "sun", meaning "together", with "taxis", meaning "an order". When a Greek general drew up his men in order of battle, he was said to have them "in syntaxis." The word now means "an account of the build of sentences".

(iv) "Prosody" comes from two Greek words: "pros" meaning "to"; and "ode", meaning "a song". It means "the measurement of verse."

TABLE OF CONSONANT SOUNDS

	MUTES			SPIRANTS		
	Flat (or "Soft")	Sharp (or "Hard")	Nasal	Flat (or "Soft")	Sharp (or "Hard")	Trilled
Gutturals	"g" (gag)	"k"	"ng"	-	"h"	-
Palatals	"j"	"ch" (church)	-	"y" (yea)	-	-
Palatal sibilants	-	-	-	"zh" (azure)	"sh" (sure)	"r"
Dental sibilants	-	-	-	"z" (prize)	"s"	"l"
Dentals	"d"	"t"	"n"	"th" (bathe)	"th" (bath)	-
Labials	"b"	"p"	"m"	"v"&"w"	"f"&"wh"	-

     (i) The above table goes from the throat to the lips; that is, from the back to the front of the mouth.

     (ii) The letters "b" and "d" are pronounced with less effort than "p" and "t". Accordingly, "b" and "d" are called soft, or flat; and "p" and "t" are called hard, or sharp.

NOTE 9 - The Grammar of Letters - Letters are conventional signs or symbols employed to represent sounds to the eye. They have grown out of pictures, which, being gradually pared down, became mere signs or letters. The steps were these: picture, abridged picture, diagram, sign or symbol. The sum of all the letters used to write or print a language is called its Alphabet. Down to the fifteenth century, we employed a set of Old English letters, such as "a, b, c--x, y, z."

     The word "alphabet" comes from the name of the first two letters in Greek: "alpha", "beta".

   NOTE 10.   Our Alphabet - The spoken alphabet of English contains forty-three sounds; the written alphabet has only twenty-six symbols or letters to represent them. Hence the English alphabet is very deficient. But it is also redundant, for it contains five superfluous letters, "c, q, x, w," and "y". The work of the letter "c" might be done by either "k" or by "s"; that of "q" by "k"; "x" is equal to "ks" or "gs"; "w" could be represented by "oo"; and all that "y" does could be done by "i". It is in the vowel-sounds that the irregularities of our alphabet are most discernible. Thirteen vowel-sounds are represented to the eye in more than one hundred different ways.

     (i) There are twelve ways of printing a short "i", as in "sit", "Cyril", "busy", "women", etc.

     (ii) There are twelve ways of printing a short "e", as in "set", "any", "bury", "bread", etc.

     (iii) There are ten ways of printing a long "e", as in "mete", "marine", "meet", "meat", "key", etc.

     (iv) There are thirteen ways of printing a short "u", as in "bud", "love", "berth", "rough", "flood" etc.

     (v) There are eleven ways of printing a long "u", as in "rude", "move", "blew", "true", etc.

THE GRAMMAR OF WORDS, or "ETYMOLOGY"

There are eight kinds of words in our language. They are known as the English Parts of Speech. These are: (1) Nouns - the names of people, places or things. A noun may consist of one or more words. (2) Pronouns - words which take the place of nouns. (3) Adjectives - words or phrases which describe nouns. (4) Verbs - A word or phrase which describes the action of a noun or action performed upon a noun is called a verb. (5) Adverbs - These are words or phrases which describe verbs, adjectives or even other adverbs. (6) Prepositions - These words introduce groups of words which describe nouns or verbs. (7) Conjunctions - These are words which connect words or groups of words to one another. (8) Interjections - These words express feelings and do not have any connection to other words or groups of words. (NOTE - A Phrase is defined as any group of words.)

NOUNS

NOTE 1 - A Noun is a "name," or any word or group of words used as a name for a person, place or thing. "Ball", "house", "fish", "John" and "Mary" are all names, and are therefore "nouns". "To walk in the open air is pleasant in summer evenings." The two words "to walk" are used as the name of an action; "to walk" is therefore a "noun". The word "noun" comes from the Latin "nomen", meaning "name". From this word we have also "nominal", "denominate", "denomination", etc.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

NOTE 2 - Nouns are of two classes - "Proper" and "Common".

NOTE 3 - A proper noun is the name of an individual, person or place. "John", "Mary", "London", "Birmingham", "Shakespeare", "Milton", are all proper nouns.

The approach used to expound on grammar includes an approach toward vocabulary building through the concept of root words. (e.g. "proper", "appropriate", "expropriate"). The word "proper" comes from the Latin "proprius", meaning "one's own". Hence a proper noun is, in relation to one person, one's own name. From the same word we have "appropriate", meaning "to make one's own"; "expropriate", etc. (For an elaborated view of this topic, refer to pp. 116-172)

(i) Proper nouns are always written with a capital letter at the beginning; and so also are the words derived from them. Thus we write "France", "French", "Frenchified"; "Milton", "Miltonic"; "Shakespeare", "Shakespearean".

(ii) Proper nouns, as such, have no meaning. They are merely marks to indicate a special person or place. However, they originally had a meaning. The persons now called "Armstrong", "Smith", "Greathead", no doubt had ancestors who were strong in the arm, who did the work of smiths, or who had large heads.

(iii) A proper noun may be used as a common noun, when it is employed not to mark an individual, but to indicate one of a class. Thus we can say, "He is the Milton of his age", meaning by this that he possesses the qualities which all those poets have who are like Milton.

(iv) We can also speak of "the Howards," "the Smiths," meaning a number of persons who are called Howard or who are called Smith.

NOTE 4 - A common noun is the name of a person, place, or thing considered not merely as an individual, but as one of a class. "Horse", "town", "boy", and "table" are common nouns.

The word "common" comes from the Lat. "communis", meaning "shared by several"; we find it also in "community", "commonalty", etc.

(i) A "common noun" is so called because it belongs in common to all the persons, places, or things in the same class.

(ii) The name "rabbit" marks off, or distinguishes, that animal from all other animals; but it does not distinguish one rabbit from another - it is common to all animals of the class.

(iii) Common nouns have a meaning; proper nouns have not. Proper nouns may have a meaning; but the meaning is generally not appropriate. Thus persons called "Whitehead" and "Longshanks" may be dark and short. Hence such names are merely signs, and not significant marks.

NOTE 5 - Common nouns are generally subdivided into (i) Class-names (ii) Collective nouns and (iii) Abstract nouns

(i) Under class-names are included not only ordinary names, but also the names of materials - as "tea", "sugar", "wheat", and "water". The names of materials can be used in the plural (meaning more than one) when different kinds of the material are meant. Thus we say "fine teas," "coarse sugars," when we mean "fine kinds of tea", etc. NOTE: "Class-names" are also known as "concrete nouns", meaning that they can be touched, tasted, smelled, seen or heard.

(ii) A collective noun is the name of a collection of persons or things, looked upon by the mind as one. Thus we say "committee", "parliament", "crowd"; and think of these collections of persons as one body.

(iii) An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or state, considered in itself, and as abstracted from the thing or person in which it really exists. Thus, we see a number of lazy persons, and think of laziness as a quality in itself, abstracted from the persons. (From Lat. "abs", meaning "from"; and "tractus" meaning "drawn".)

The names of arts and sciences are abstract nouns, because they are the names of processes of thought, considered apart and abstracted from the persons who practise them. Thus, "music", "painting", "grammar", "chemistry", "astronomy", are abstract nouns.

(iv) Abstract nouns are (a) derived from adjectives ("hardness", "dullness", "sloth", are derived from "hard, "dull", and "slow"); or (b) from verbs ("growth" and "thought", are derived from "grow" and "think").

(v) Abstract nouns are sometimes used as collective nouns. Thus we say "the nobility and gentry" for "the nobles and gentlemen of the land".

(vi) Abstract nouns are formed from other words by the addition of such endings as "-ness", "-th", "-ery", "-hood", "-head", etc.

This section on the Noun concludes with detailed explanation of Gender, Number (singular and plural), Inflection and Case.

Next is a section on Pronouns (Personal, Interrogative Relative and Indefinite), then Adjectives (including Quantitative, Qualitative, Demonstrative, Cardinal, Ordinal and Degrees of Comparison), then Verbs. The following excerpt introduces the section on Verbs:

VERBS

NOTE 1 - The Verb is that "part of speech" by means of which we make an assertion. It is the keystone of the arch of speech.

(i) The word "verb" comes from the Lat. "verbum", meaning "a word". It is so called because it is the principal "word" in a sentence. If we leave the verb out of a sentence, all the other words become mere nonsense. Thus we can say, "I saw him cross the bridge." Leave out "saw", and the other words have no meaning whatever.

(ii) There are three principal parts to a verb:

The present stem - "take"
The simple past - "took"
The past participle - "taken"

In the case of certain verbs, the past participle and the simple past may be the same word (e.g. "bought", "looked" etc.), or the present stem and the simple past may be the same word (e.g. "beat", "bid", etc.) or in rare cases all three may be the same word (e.g. "read", "burst"); however, most "strong" verbs (see p. 32) have three identifiable principal parts while most "weak" verbs (see p. 34) have only two, the simple past and past participle being the same word. (e.g. "attend" - present stem; "attended" - simple past, and "attended" - past participle).

THE CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

NOTE 2 - Verbs are divided into two classes -- **Transitive** and **Intransitive**.

NOTE 3 - A transitive verb denotes an action or feeling which, as it were, passes over from the doer of the action to the object of it. "The boy broke the stick"; "he felled the tree"; and "he hates walking." In these sentences we are able to think of the action of "breaking" and "felling" as passing over to the "stick" and the "tree".

"Transitive" comes from the Latin verb "transire", meaning "to pass over":

A transitive verb is a verb that requires a "direct object" (review p. 14). This definition covers the instances of "have", "own", "possess", "inherit", etc., as well as "break", "strike", "fell", etc. in the sentence "I have three gifts for you", the verb "have" is incomplete in meaning until that which is given (i.e. "gifts") is named. "Gifts" is said to be the "direct object". Note that "you" is a partial recipient of the action of the verb "have" as well, because the person "you" answers the question "For whom is the gift had?". "You" is therefore said to be the indirect object. A transitive verb may or may not be followed by an "indirect object" but it is always followed by a "direct object".

NOTE 4. - An intransitive verb denotes a state, feeling or action which does not pass over, but which terminates in the doer or agent, as in "He sleeps"; "she walks"; "the grass grows" etc. Though an intransitive verb has no "direct object", answering the question "What?" or "Whom?" after the

verb, it may have an "indirect object" answering the question "To what?", "For what?", "To whom?" or "For whom?" after the verb.

NOTE 5 - I. Intransitive verbs may be used transitively. Thus--

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(a) He walked to London.      (b) He walked his horse.
(a) The eagle flew.           (b) The boy flew the kite.
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or when the intransitive verb is compounded with a preposition either (i) separable, or (ii) inseparable:

e.g   . (i) "He laughed" (intransitive) or "He laughed at me" (transitive)
          (ii) "He came" (intransitive) or "He overcame the enemy" (transitive)

II. Transitive verbs may be used intransitively:

(i) With the pronoun "itself" understood:--

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(a) He broke the dish.        (b) The sea breaks on the rocks.
(a) She shut the door.        (b) The door shut suddenly.
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(ii) When the verb describes a fact perceived by the senses:--

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(a) He cut the beef.          (b) The beef cuts tough.
(a) He sold the books.        (b) The books sell well.
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The following is a tabular view of transitive and intransitive verbs:

CLASSES OF VERBS

TRANSITIVE		INTRANSITIVE	
Active	Passive	Of State	Of Action
(e.g. "Wound")	(e.g. "Be wounded")	(e.g. "Sleep")	(e.g. "Run")

NOTE 6 - Verbs are changed or modified for Voice, Mood, Tense, Number and Person. These changes are expressed, partly by inflexion and partly by the use of auxiliary verbs.

(i) A verb is an auxiliary verb (from Lat. "auxilium", meaning "aid") when its own full and real meaning drops out of sight, and it instead "aids" or "helps", in meaning, the verb to which it becomes attached. Thus we say, "He works hard and because he does, he may win the prize". Here "may" does not have its old meaning of "permission". However -

(ii) If we say "He may go", here "may" is not used as an auxiliary, but is a notional verb, with its full meaning. The sentence is therefore "He has permission to go".

1. This section on the Verb continues with a description of Mood, Voice, Tense, Conjugation, Strong and Weak Verbs, Principal Parts of Verbs, Auxiliary Verbs plus conjugation, Defective, Anomalous, Peculiar and Impersonal Verbs and then the full conjugation of the verb "take" plus examples.

2. This section on "The Parts of Speech" continues to p. 111 with definitions of and examples for Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions and Interjections. Then follow sections called respectively, "Words in Common Use as Different Parts of Speech", "Syntax" and "The Analysis Of Sentences".

On pp. 112 and 113, there is an "Intermediate Index", which provides the reader with a list of grammatical terms used as far as p.111 and the page numbers where each term has appeared. This index is followed by a note on "Idiomatic English", a section on "Word Building And Derivation", notes on "Compound Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs", and a note on "The Formation Of Adverbs". Samples of each section follow below:

IDIOMATIC ENGLISH

We discussed at the beginning of the book how English was a spoken language before it was a written language. As children, we learn to imitate the speech of our parents before we are one year old, but it is at least five years before we start to learn written English. Then we are taught to write according to a set of rules which govern spelling, punctuation, grammar and syntax. In public speaking classes, we learn in addition to articulate our vowels and consonants, to place emphasis on the correct word or syllable, to use effective gestures and to have perfect posture.

Yet, while our formal speech becomes influenced by these rules governing 'correct expression', our everyday speech may be quite different. Job interviews, meeting new people and dignified occasions require us to be very conscientious about our choice of words and phrases; however, when we are with our friends and peers we often abandon those rules. At one time this was the mark of either a lack of education or an abuse of it. Today, however, 'colloquial speech' is tolerated in familiar company the same way that a lapse in posture is permitted when we recline in our favourite chair.

What characterizes 'colloquial speech' is its complete lack of formality. 'Idiomatic' English is slightly different in that words are used out of their ordinary grammatical definitions, but may be quite acceptable in formal speech. If the queen asked "How are you, today?" and you replied "I'm very well, thank you", you would each be using 'idiomatic English'. If, however, one of your friends shouted across the street at you "Hey, man! What's happenin?", you very likely would say something other than "I'm very well, thank you" and no doubt reply in his (or her) colloquial speech. ['Colloquial' is from the Latin words 'cum loquis', meaning "with talk"; 'idiomatic' is from the Greek 'idioomai', meaning "to make one's own".]

WORD-BUILDING AND DERIVATION

NOTE 1 - The primary element of a word is called its **root**. The root is the shortest form of the word, and it may not necessarily be an English word in itself. For example, "tal" (which means "number") is the shortest form of the words "tale", "tell", and "till" (a container for money). Each of these words is said to be "derived" from the root "tal", from the Old English word "talu".

NOTE 2 - The stem is the **root + modification**. Therefore, if the root of "love" is "lov", then the "e" is the modification added in order to conform to English spelling. The word "love" which results is called the "stem", but the "stem" does not always have the definition of a "word".

NOTE 3 - Inflexions "-ing", "-en", "-n", "-ed" and "-d" added to the root create tenses in verbs.

NOTE 4 - Prefixes and other suffixes can be added to the stem in order to create new words called derivatives. The following are interesting examples of "derivation":

```
root        +/- modification    =    stem   -->        derivative

dar (dear)      (none)               dar               darling
```

COMPOUND NOUNS, ADJECTIVES AND VERBS

I - Compound Nouns:

Compound Nouns may be formed -

a) By the addition of a noun with a noun:

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brimstone     -     ("burn-stone")
bridal        -     ("bride-ale")
bylaw         -     ["law for a "by" ("town") ]
daisy         -     ("day's eye")
```

II - Compound Adjectives:

There are a great many compound adjectives such as "sea-sick", etc.; these are formed in a variety of ways:

a) Noun plus adjective, as in:

```
house-proud        wind-swift        way-weary
```

b) Noun plus present participle, as in:

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ear-piercing       death-defying     heart-rending
```

III - Compound Verbs:

There are few compound verbs in English; these include:

a) Verb plus noun, as in:

```
back-bite          hamstring         hoodwink
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b) Verb plus adjective, as in:

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dumfound           freeze-dry        fulfill
```

Next follows a section (pp. 121- 149) on prefixes and suffixes taken from Old English, Latin and Ancient Greek. Here are a few excerpts:

I - English Inseparable Prefixes -

    i. **a,** as in:

        `abed`   `aloft`   `a-building`

    ii. **be** (or its alternate "**by**"), which has several functions:

        a) To add an intensive force to transitive verbs :

            `begrudge`   `beseech`

        b) To turn intransitive verbs into transitive verbs:

            `bemoan`   `bespeak`   `bethink`

        c) To make verbs out of nouns or adjectives:

            `befriend`   `beguile`   `benumb`

II - English Separable Prefixes -

    i. **after**, as in:

        `afterglow`   `aftermath`   `afterwards`

    v. **of** and **off** (which are originally the same word), as in:

        `offspring`   `offset`   `offshoot`

        `offal ("that which falls off")`

    vi. **on,** as in:

        `onset`   `onslaught`   `onward`

III - Latin Prefixes -

    i. **a, ab, abs, a** (Fr.), av (Fr.), meaning "away from", as in:

        `avert`   `abjure`   `absent`   `abstain`

    ii. **ad** (from Fr. "a"), meaning "to". In composition of English words, it often becomes altered to absorb the first consonant of the root word. Here are examples of each:

            `adapt`   `affect`   `accord`   `agree`

    iii. **amb,** meaning "on both sides", or "about" as in:

        `ambidextrous`   `ambiguous`

IV – Ancient Greek Prefixes

      i. **an** or **a**, meaning "not", as in:

          anarchy   anonymous   anorexic   atheist

      ii. **amphi**, meaning "on both sides", as in:

          amphibian   amphitheatre

I - English Suffixes to Nouns -

      i. **ard** or **art**, meaning "habitual",as in:

          braggart   coward   drunkard   dullard

      ii. **craft,** meaning "skill", as in:

          aircraft   leathercraft   witchcraft   woodcraft

II - English Suffixes to Adjectives -

      i. **ed**, or **d**, the tending for the "past participle", as in:

          celebrated   cold ("chilled") talented

      ii. **en**, denoting "made of" or "consisting of", as in:

          flaxen   golden   hempen   linen

III - English Suffixes to Adverbs -

      i. **ere**, denoting "place in", as in:

          here   there   where

      ii. **es** or **s** [the old genitive or possessive (see p. 13)], which becomes "se" or "ce",as in:

          besides   else   hence   needs ("of need")

IV - English Suffixes to Verbs -

      i. **en** or **n** makes verbs out of nouns and adjectives, as in:

          brighten   broaden   fatten   gladden

V- Latin and French Suffixes to Nouns -

      i. **age** (from Latin "aticum", denoting "collectivity" or "belonging") as in:

          beverage   carnage   courage   homage

VI - Latin Suffixes to Adjectives -

      i. **aceous** (Latin "made of"), as in:

          `herbaceous`   `farinaceous` (containing flour) `efficaceous`

VII - Latin Suffixes to Verbs -

      i. **ate** (Latin "atum", meaning "supine"), as in:

          `complicate`   `dilate`   `relate`   `supplicate`

VIII - Greek Suffixes -

      i. **y**, making abstract nouns, as in:

          `melancholy` `monarchy`   `necromancy`   `philosophy`

Next follows a short note on word branching then a list of derivations of many English words from their English, Latin, and Greek roots, including English words derived from the names of places and persons, names disguised in form or words whose meaning has changed. The following are samples of these words.

ENGLISH ROOTS AND THEIR DERIVATIONS

```
ac      - an oak, - acorn, Acton, Uckfield.
bac-an  - to bake - baker, Baxter (a woman baker), batch.
```

LATIN ROOTS AND THEIR DERIVATIONS

```
cado    - I fall - casual, casualty, accident.
```

GREEK ROOTS AND THEIR DERIVATIONS

```
daktulos - a finger - dactyl, pterodactyl, date [the fruit]
deka  - ten - decade, decadent, decalogue, decathlon
```

WORDS DERIVED FROM THE NAMES OF PERSONS

dahlia - which is a species of flower, from "Dahl", the name of a Swedish botanist who introduced the plant to Europe.

WORDS DERIVED FROM THE NAMES OF PLACES

dollar - from the German word "thaler", originally meaning "something made in a valley. The first coins of this sort were made in St. Joachimsthal in Bohemia and were called "Joachim's thaler".

alligator - from the Spanish "el lagarto", meaning "the lizard".

Part II includes "Composition, Punctuation, Paraphrasing And Prosody." This section includes notes on Style, Narration, Description, Persuasion and Exposition, The Writing Process (including Prewriting, Outline and Thesis) , Accurate English, Loose and Periodic Sentences, Emphatic Devices (with examples selected from English Literature); and a unique section called "Avoiding Pitfalls", in which Professor Meiklejohn deals with the problems of Hackneyed Expression, Pronoun Misuse, Mixed Metaphors, Tautology (Or) Redundant Expression, Ambiguity Errors, Participial Errors, Circumlocution, Proper Subordination and Coordination, Sentence Unity; and Misplaced Modifiers.

Next in Part II is a section on Punctuation which explains its more commonly applied rules. The following is an excerpt.

PUNCTUATION

NOTE 1 - Certain signs are placed in sentences to mark off their different parts, and to show the relation of each part to the whole sentence.

Putting the signs in their right place is called punctuation, from the Latin "punctum", meaning "point". The word "punctual" is derived from the same root.

NOTE 2 - The major signs are the "period" or "full stop", the "colon", the "semi-colon", the "dash", and the "comma".

i. The period or full stop (.) marks the close of a sentence.

ii. The colon introduces a list or a quotation.

ex. "Mr. Wilson rose and said: "Sir, I protest these proceedings!""

iii. The semi-colon is employed when a) for reasons of sound or of sense, two or more simple sentences are made into a compound sentence without the use of co-ordinate conjunctions; and b) when two or more phrases containing action are placed in a list.

e.g. "Youth is the time to go flashing from one end of the world to the other in body and in mind; to try on the customs of different nations; to hear the chimes at midnight." (Robert Louis Stevenson)

iv) The dash is used to a) clarify or explain and b) to insert a parenthetical idea:

e.g. a) During March came a storm - one such as is seen only in the tropics.

v) The comma is used to indicate a strong pause, either of sense or of sound.

    e.g. (a) The child looked into the box of toys, fingered the keys of the tiny piano, gently lifted it out and then stole into his room with it under his arm.

    vi) The question mark (?) is placed at the end of a question.

    vii) The exclamation mark (!) is placed at the end of a statement of exclamation or surprise.

The remaining portion of Part II (pp. 194 – 207) includes Paraphrasing of Poetry and Prose, as well as "The Art of Precis" and "The Edited Document"S. Part II then concludes with notes on Prosody, Rhyme, Caesura and Stanza, each of which are seen less and less of in current textbooks. A portion of that section follows:

THE GRAMMAR OF VERSE (PROSODY)

   NOTE 1 - Before beginning this section, the reader should become acquainted with a number of definitions:
      i. accent : emphasis in pronunciation; in this section designated by **boldface.**
      ii. syllable : unit of a word constituting its minimum division in pronunciation.
      iii. foot : metrical unit with varying number of syllables, one of which is accented [OED].
      iv. metre : any form of poetic measurement.

   NOTE 2 - Verse is the form of poetry; and Prosody is the part of grammar which deals with the structure of verse.

   NOTE 3 - Verse differs from prose in two ways: in the regular recurrence of accents (or "beats") and also in the proportioning of accented to unaccented syllables.

        (i) For example, in the line "In **an**swer **nought** could **An**gus **speak**", the accent falls on every other syllable.

        (ii) But, in the line "**Merrily**, **merrily**, **shall** we live **now**", the accent not only comes first, but there are two unaccented syllables for every one that is accented (except in the last foot)

   NOTE 4 - Every English word of more than one syllable has an accent on one of its syllables.

        (i) Be **gin,** com **mend,** and at **tack** each have their accents on the last syllable.

   NOTE 5 - English verse is made up of lines; each line of verse contains a fixed number of accents; each accent has a fixed number of syllables attached to it.

      (i) Let us look at these lines from Sir Walter Scott's "Marmion" [canto v.]:-

            "Who **loves** not **more** the **night** of **June**
            Than **dull** De**cem**ber's **gloom** of **noon** ?"

       Each line contains four accents, the accented syllable preceded by one unaccented syllable.

   NOTE 6 - There are seven types of "metrical foot", each one a combination of accented and unaccented syllables.The feet are separated by a "/".

Next is Part III - "The History of the English Language", with chapters on "The Periods of English", "The History of English Vocabulary", "The History of English Grammar", " Specimens of English of Different Periods" and "Modern English". The starting portions of each of these chapters follow below:

PART III - THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

INTRODUCTION

NOTE 1 - Language is rightly considered to be an organized set of sounds. These sounds convey a meaning from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the listener and thus we have interpersonal communication. The process of writing or reading may be a representation of language, but each is a derivation of the process of speaking.

NOTE 2 - WRITTEN LANGUAGE - In the case of all languages we know of which are represented by signs, the languages existed for hundreds, possibly thousands of years, before they were written down.

Each written language then, is represented by "signs" which we know as "letters". The organization of letters is called the "alphabet", which is a derivation of the first two letters of the Ancient Greek: "alpha" and "beta"

NOTE 3 - Language is organic, which is to say "living"; and if something lives, then it also grows. Our language, English, has grown for hundreds of years, at some times slowly and at others such as our present day, quite rapidly. As language grows it loses something and gains something else; its appearance may alter.

CHAPTER I

The Periods of English

NOTE 1 - A language is said to be "dead" when it is no longer spoken but remains known only in books. Latin maintains its importance as one of the major roots of English and other languages, but it is "dead" as a language itself because no one speaks it anymore.

NOTE 2 - We divide the English language into periods, and then mark distinct changes in its habits, inflexions, preferences in words, or the way in which it puts words together.

CHAPTER II

The History of the Vocabulary of the English Language

NOTE 1 - … "London Town" dialect was created by trade. More lately, the absorption of new words and phrases into English as the language extends itself makes fairly obvious the statement that English is overwhelmingly composed of words from other languages. At the time of its arrival in Britain, English consisted of about two thousand words; today, the Oxford English Dictionary recognizes upwards of one million words.

NOTE 2 - **The Spoken Language and the Written Language** - The English Language consists of a written or printed language as well as a spoken one; this amounts to a language of the eye for one and the ear for the other.

NOTE 3 - **The Foreign Elements in English Vocabulary** - The different peoples and different

circumstances with which English has come into contact have had many results - one, among others, that of presenting the English speaker with contributions to our vocabulary. The English found Kelts in Britain; accordingly, there are Keltic words in English. The Romans held Britain for four centuries; and when they left in 410 A.D., they left behind an inheritance of Latin words. Then in the Seventh Century, Augustine and his missionaries brought a larger number of Latin words in their Christian writings, and in the Eighth Century the Danes began to arrive.

CHAPTER III

History of the Grammar of English

NOTE 1 - **The Oldest English Synthetic** - The oldest English, or Anglo-Saxon, which was taken there in the Fifth Century, was a language that showed the relations of words to one another by adding different endings to words.

NOTE 2 - **Modern English Analytic** - When, instead of inflexions, a language employs small particles - such as prepositions and others - to express the relations of words to one another, such a language is called analytic, or non-inflexional.

NOTE 3 - **A Short View of the History of English Grammar** - Until 1100 A.D., the English language was a synthetic language; thereafter, English has lost its inflexions and become an analytic language.

NOTE 4 - **Causes of these Changes** - The root of a word is its most important feature, especially to someone who is learning a language.... As the new speaker goes about making errors of style, the native speaker acquires the same habits, dropping inflexions which, in respect of efficiency, seem unimportant.

NOTE 5 - **Grammar of the First Period, 450-1100 A.D.** - The English of this period is known as "Anglo-Saxon". At this time, the gender of nouns was arbitrary even "poetic" in its configuration, as is the case in French. Gender did not follow sex as it does in Modern English.

CHAPTER IV

Specimens of English of Different Periods

NOTE 1 - The oldest English, or Anglo-Saxon, differs from modern English both in vocabulary and in grammar. The difference is often startling. And yet…. The effect is the same as if we were to dress a modern man in the clothes we wore 1000 years ago. The chances are that we probably wouldn't recognize our closest friend..

NOTE 2 - **A Specimen of Anglo-Saxon** - The following is a verse from the Bible [Luke ii. 40] and is taken from the oldest surviving English version:

```
"Soplice daet cild weox, and was gestrangod, wisdomes full; and
Godes gyfu waes on him."
```

Now this looks like something from another language, but it isn't. It's the English language of one thousand years ago and every word contained is current English.

```
"Soothly that child waxed and was strengthened, full of wisdom; and
God's gift was on him."
```

NOTE 3 - **A Comparison** - We'll now compare excerpts from the Bible as written at different periods of our language's development. The alteration in the meanings of words, the changes in application of them, the variation in the use of phrases, the falling away of inflexions - all these things

become plain to the eye and mind as soon as we thoughtfully compare the different versions.

The following are extracts from the Anglo-Saxon version (995 A.D.), the version of John Wyclif (1380 A.D.) and that of William Tyndale (1526 A.D.) in Luke ii. 44-45 :

ANGLO-SAXON	WYCLIF	TYNDALE
Wendon thaet he on heora gefere waere comon hig anes daeges faer, and hine sohton betweox his magras and his cudan. Da hig hyne ne fundon hig gewendon to Hierus- alem, hine secende.	Forsothe thei ges- singe him to be in feloweschipe, camen the wey of a day and souzten him among his cosyns and knowen And thei not fynd- inge, wenten azen to Jerusalem, sekynge him	For they supposed he had bene in the company they cam a dayes iorney and soughte hym amonge their kynsfolke and acquayntaunce. And founde hym not they went backe agayne to Hierusalem, and soughte him.

The transliteration of the above Anglo-Saxon version in Modern English is as follows:

"[They] weened ("were of the opinion that") he on their companionship were (was), when he came they one day's faring, and him soughte betwixt his relations and his couth ("folk", "acquaintances"). When they him not found, they turned to Jerusalem, him seeking."

CHAPTER V

Modern English

NOTE 1 - From the date of 1485, that is, from the beginning of the reign of Henry VII, the changes in the grammar and the constitution of our language are so extremely small. Any modern reader of English can, without much difficulty, read a book belonging to the Sixteenth or Seventeenth Centuries. Though we have enlarged our vocabulary by hundreds of thousands of words, the structure of sentences and the grammatical relationship of words and phrases remains almost the same as it was four centuries ago. The introduction of printing, the Renaissance, the translation of the Bible and the growth and expansion of English literacy have tended to fix the language and keep it as it is today.

(section inserted on loan words from Spanish Dutch, Arabic and other world languages over 500 years to 1886)

NOTE 2 - **New Words** - The discovery of the New world gave impetus in England to maritime enterprise and the English language has been spreading ever since. Commerce and science have each done much to expand our language, commerce having brought into English many new names for many new articles of trade, science having expanded in the discovery of new concepts and inventions.

Summary of the remaining text:

The book concludes with a list of landmarks in the History of the English Language; a set of exercises attached by reference to specific lessons in the grammar section of Part I; and finally the solutions to these exercises.