

高級英文範

PROGRESSIVE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR

HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

BY

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PREFACE

Two years ago while teaching English in the Wayland Academy in Hangchow, I prepared for the use of my classes, and printed at the Academy Press, the small grammar which was used as the nucleus of the present work. A measure of success in using the method here presented encouraged me to enlarge and revise the book. After another period of trial in manuscript form, it is placed before the public, with the hope that it may prove useful to others, as it has been to me.

The aim throughout has been to lead the student to such a knowledge of the principles of grammar as will give him the ability to speak and write correct English. Subjects which I have found to present but little difficulty to the Chinese student have been passed over lightly, while those which because of the difference in idiom of the Chinese and English languages are peculiarly knotty, have been emphasized.

Special acknowledgement should be made of aid received from *Reed and Kellogg's Higher Lessons in English*, whose system of diagramming and order of treatment I have to a large extent followed in the part beginning with § 65 and ending with § 177.

I wish here also to record my appreciation of the kindness of the Rev. Mr. W. S. Sweet and of Mr. P. R. Moore, in allowing the use of the Wayland Press for the printing of the tentative edition. Also of the help rendered by Mr. H. Lai (來鴻), of Hangchow, and Mr. Y. N. Sze (史悠源), of Shanghai. And of the courtesy of the Commercial Press, especially as represented by Mr. Fong F. Sec, while the volume was in press.

R. P. M.

Lowrie High School,
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INTRODUCTION

PLAN OF THE BOOK

Sections 1 to 45 deal with the classification of words. The treatment of this subject is rather brief and condensed, for it is assumed that those who use this book will already have studied some one of the elementary grammars which treat it fully. This part is intended largely for review and reference. Very little illustrative matter is given. In case a class has had meager instruction along this line, the teacher may require the students to select and classify the various parts of speech in readers or other English textbooks they may be studying.

Sections 46 to 182 deal with the structure of sentences. The rules given in that part of the book already studied are here practically applied; this part thus being a review of what came before. Here, also, the three elements which are the basis of all grammatical structure, *viz.*, the *subject*, the *predicate* (with its complements), and the *modifier*, are illustrated first by the use of single *words*, then of *phrases*, then of *clauses*. Concepts in the student's mind regarding the relations between these three elements only partially or vaguely formed at the first study (with words), are amplified and deepened at the second (with phrases), and further clarified at the third (with clauses). In this division those changes of form in words are given which are necessary to a proper understanding of the principles which will be applied in analyzing sentences.

In Sections 183 to 194 the principal modifications of the parts of speech which were not essential to the under-

standing of those principles treated before, are added. They are stated briefly and only a few illustrations are given. Like the first division (§ 1 to § 45), this part is intended largely for review and reference. If illustrative matter is needed, it may be supplied from readers, etc.

The remainder of the book is intended to clinch the nails driven home in the previous parts. In translating from Chinese into English, the student is *first* called to select the words to be used in the English sentence. Here those principles which govern the parts of speech and their classification must come into prominence, owing to the differences between the idioms of the two languages. *Second*, in putting the words together, the principles of syntax are again brought to mind. And *third*, in bringing the parts of the sentence into mutual agreement, the changes of form in words are emphasized. Punctuation and the order of words are taught by practical work throughout the book, wherever they can be logically inserted.

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

I believe that the best results will *not* be obtained if effort is made to teach this grammar independently of a reader or some other English text-book. I have purposely inserted but little illustrative matter in some parts of the book, because the principles of grammar can be illustrated best with matter in a book with which the student is already familiar. Let the energy which would be divided between mastering new illustrations in the grammar and learning the principles involved, be all expended on the principles. The teacher can easily select

words and sentences which illustrate a point under observation, and by requiring the students to do so also, stimulate their discriminating faculty.

It will be best not to spend too much time on Sections 1 to 45 and 183 to 194. If carefully and constantly reviewed later on, a thorough understanding of the rules here given is all that is essential. But that is essential, and a liberal use of the dictionary, and careful study, should be insisted upon, with study of illustrative matter from a reader, when needed.

In schools where only one hour per day of English is studied, perhaps the best plan is to take lessons in the grammar and a reader, respectively, on alternate days. When more English is required, a grammar lesson may be assigned for every day. In either case, *both* books should be brought to class at every recitation, the reader to be used in the grammar class to illustrate principles and furnish supplementary sentences for analysis, and the grammar in the reading class to refer to in solving grammatical problems which come up in the reading lesson.

Emphasize the diagram. A system of diagramming, while but a means to an end, I believe to be of prime importance. The man who facetiously remarked that "what goes in one ear easily passes out the other, but what goes in the eyes remains, since there is no hole in the back of the head through which it may escape," expressed a great truth.

In addition to the fact that the diagram calls the eye to the aid of the memory, it will assist the teacher to enforce conclusive work. If the student diagrams a sentence at all, he must come to some conclusion regarding the use of each

word in it. If he fails to diagram a word, or does it incorrectly, the teacher can by looking at the diagram detect and correct him, and referring him to the sections in the book which contain the principles applying to the word in question, require him to master them.

Another advantage in the use of a system of diagramming is that it adds greatly to the interest. I have seen students who had grown dull and listless during a recitation in grammar, wake up and go to work in earnest when called to do some diagramming, and have been repeatedly begged by students in lower grades to teach them to diagram as I was teaching other classes. For these three reasons, *diagram*.

But any good thing may be abused, and diagramming in a parrot-like way, without first mastering the principles illustrated by the diagram, will avail little. Require complete mastery of the principles which the diagram illustrates.

Diagramming of the English sentences which have been translated from Chinese is required in order to bring to the students' attention omissions and inconsistencies in the translation. But in cases where the students translate sentences perfectly, diagramming the same would be a waste of time, and the request to diagram given in the "Direction" should be disregarded.

Following this grammar, further translation work will be found very effective toward perfecting the student's knowledge of English. *Translation Exercises*, Book I, (華英繙譯金針上編), published by the Commercial Press, is an excellent book for this purpose. The grammar should be kept at hand and constantly referred to as the translation work is done.

R. P. M.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

TO THE TEACHER.—Please read the Preface and Introduction.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. The words of every language, according to their meaning and use, may be called **Parts of Speech**. There are eight parts of speech, *viz.*, the Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection.

I. A **Noun** is a word used to name some person, place, or thing, or some quality, state or action.

II. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun.

III. An **Adjective** is a word used to modify (point out, explain, or limit the number or quantity of) the meaning of a noun.

IV. A **Verb** is a word used to assert something about a noun or noun-equivalent. Every verb expresses either action, being, or state of being.

V. An **Adverb** is a word used to modify (explain or limit) the meaning of any part of speech except a noun or pronoun. Adverbs generally modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs.

VI. A **Preposition** is a word used to introduce a phrase-modifier, and to show the relation of the noun or noun-equivalent which is the principal term in the phrase, to the word which the phrase modifies.

VII. A **Conjunction** is a joining word. A mere conjunction has no modifying or substantive (noun-equivalent) force.

VIII. An **Interjection** is a word or sound which expresses strong feeling, and which does not form any part of a sentence.

NOTE 1.—It will aid the memory to arrange these in four groups, *viz.*, (1) the **Noun Group**, consisting of the *noun*, the word used instead of the noun (*pronoun*), and the word used to point out, explain or limit the number or quantity of the noun (*adjective*); (2) the **Verb Group**, consisting of the *verb* and the word which explains it (*adverb*); (3) the **Connecting Group** (*preposition* and *conjunction*); and (4) the **Independent interjection**.

NOTE 2.—The meaning and use of a word determine what part of speech it is. Some words are used as two or more parts of speech, with different meanings; and sometimes a word does the work of two parts of speech at one time.

NOUNS

2. A **Proper Noun** denotes one particular person or thing; as *Wang, Shanghai*.

NOTE.—Every proper noun should be begun with a capital letter.

3. A **Common Noun** does not denote one particular person or thing, but is common to any and every person or thing of the same kind; as *man*, *book*.

4. A **Material Noun** indicates the name of the matter or substance of which a thing is made; as *wood*, *leather*.

5. A **Collective Noun** denotes a group of single individuals, considered as a whole; as *flock*, *class*.

6. All the above classes of nouns are **Concrete Nouns**, *i.e.*, names of things which may be perceived by the senses.

7. An **Abstract Noun** is one which names some quality, state, or action; as *hardness*, *independence*, *laughter*.

TO THE TEACHER:—Have the students pick out the nouns in their reading lessons and classify them, until they are quite familiar with the different classes. So also each part of speech in turn, as it is studied.

ADJECTIVES

8. An **Adjective of Quality** tells the kind of the thing named by the noun which it modifies, or the class to which it belongs; as *red*, *good*, *Chinese*. Some of these, derived from proper nouns, are also called **Proper Adjectives**; as *American*, *Cantonese*.

9. An Adjective of Quantity refers to number or quantity; as *two, seventy-fifth, four-fold, some.*

10. Demonstrative Adjectives point out, as *the, that, your.*

PRONOUNS

11. Personal Pronouns are those which stand for the names of persons, or for the names of things spoken about. Those which denote the speaker are said to be in the first person; those which denote the person spoken to, in the second person; and those which denote the person or thing spoken of, in the third person.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS—DECLENSION

FIRST PERSON

SECOND PERSON—

SECOND PERSON—

Common form

Old form

Singular Plural

Singular Plural

Singular Plural

Nom. I, we, you, you, thou, ye or you,

Pos. { my or our or your or your or thy or your or
mine, ours, yours, yours, thine, yours,

Obj. me, us. you, you. thee, you.

THIRD PERSON—

Mas.

THIRD PERSON—

Fem.

THIRD PERSON—

Neut.

Singular Plural

Singular Plural

Singular Plural

Nom. he, they, she, they, it, they,

Pos. his, their or her or their or its, their or
theirs, theirs, theirs,

Obj. him, them. her, them. it, them.

12. Compound (or Reflexive) Personal Pronouns are formed by adding *self* (自己) to *my*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her* and *it*, and *selves* to *our*, *your* and *them*. They are used (1) for emphasis, as: I *myself* will go; (2) to reflect the action back upon the actor, as: A man cannot lift *himself* by his boot-straps.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS—DECLENSION

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom. and</i>	<i>Nom. and</i>	<i>Nom. and</i>	<i>Nom. and</i>	<i>Nom. and</i>	<i>Nom. and</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
myself or	our-	thymself or	your-	himself;	} them-
ourself;	selves.	yourself;	selves.	herself;	
				itself;	
					selves.

REMARK.—The possessive of these pronouns is wanting.

13. Relative (or Conjunctive) Pronouns stand for nouns and connect the clauses (See 54) which contain them with the words which the clauses modify.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS—DECLENSION

<i>Sing. and Plu.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plu.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plu.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> who,	which,	that,	what,
<i>Pos.</i> whose,	whose,	—,	—,
<i>Obj.</i> whom,	which,	that,	what.

14. The Interrogative Pronouns *who*, *which* and *what* are declined like the relatives *who*, *which* and *what*.

15. Compound Relative Pronouns are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to *who*, *which* and *what*. They are used in a general way, and without any word expressed to which they relate. They are translated by using 不論何, etc.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Singular and Plural

Nom. whoever,

Pos. whosever,

Obj. whomever.

Singular and Plural

whosoever,

whosoesoever,

whomsoever.

NOTE.—*Whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever* and *whatsoever* do not change their form.

16. Adjective Pronouns are words which may be used either to modify nouns or alone instead of the nouns. They are divided into *demonstrative*, *indefinite* and *distributive* pronouns.

17. The Demonstrative Pronouns are *this*, *that*, *these* and *those*. They point out definitely.

18. Indefinite Pronouns do not point out and particularize like the demonstratives. The most common ones are *all*, *another*, *any*, *both*, *enough*, *few*, *former*, *latter*, *little*, *many*, *much*, *one*, *other*, *same*, *several*, *such* and *whole*.

19. The Distributive Pronouns are *each*, *either* and *neither*.

VERBS

20. Transitive Verbs represent action as passing over from a doer to a receiver, as: The boy *threw* the ball.

NOTE.—The word “action” as used here means action of the mind as well as of material things; *e.g.*, *study* is a transitive verb. The verb *have* when used as a main verb, meaning *possess* (有), is also classed as a transitive verb.

21. Intransitive Verbs do not represent action as passing over from a doer to a receiver, as: One day *goes*, another *comes*.

NOTE 1.—Some verbs may be transitive in one sentence and intransitive in another, as: He is *writing* a letter. He *writes* very well.

NOTE 2.—Many English intransitive verbs, when translated into Chinese colloquial, may use a transitive verb and a noun to translate them, as: *walk* (走路), *shine* (發光), *study* (讀書).

22. The verb *be* (乃), in all its forms, is called a **Copula**, because it may be used to join other words, having very little meaning in itself. Some other verbs, used in the same way, are called **Copulative Verbs**.

23. Auxiliary Verbs are used to help express the meaning of other verbs. The auxiliary verbs are: *do, did; have, has, had; shall, should; will,*

would; may, might; can, could; must, and be (in all its forms).

NOTE.—Instead of *shall* or *will*, a form of the verb *be* + *to* is often used; as, I *am to* (=shall) go home to-morrow. Instead of *must*, a form of the verb *have* + *to* is often used; as, A servant *has to* (=must) do his work well. We may therefore, for convenience, consider *am* (etc.) *to* and *have to* as auxiliary verbs. *About to* is used similarly. (See 137).

24. The verb *be* has three uses, two of which have been mentioned above (22, 23). The third use is with the meaning exist (存在 or 有). As: Our God *is* in the Heavens. *There are* twenty students in my class (See 143).

REMARK.—The Chinese verb 有 has three common uses: (1) As a transitive verb meaning *have* (See 20, Note); (2) as an auxiliary verb, denoting completed action, translated *have* (23). This form is commonly used in the negative; as, 我沒有看見他 (I have not seen him). In some dialects 有得 equals *have*; (3) as a complete intransitive verb, translated *there is, there are, etc.* (24).

25. The copula, the auxiliary verbs, and some other verbs, are **Incomplete Intransitive Verbs**, *i.e.*, they require other words after them to make complete sense. Some intransitive verbs, including *be* with the meaning 存在 or 有, are **Complete**, *i.e.*, they do not require other words after them to make complete sense.