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No. 7.

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# Normal School Bulletin.

A MAGAZINE FOR  
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS.

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C. W. DAUGETTE. M. Sc., Editor.

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PUBLISHED QUARTERLY BY THE  
BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,  
JACKSONVILLE, ALA.

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## Calender for 1907.

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### Winter Term.

State Examination . . . . . Jan. 7, 8 and 9.  
Winter Term Begins . . . . . Wednesday, Jan 2  
Holiday . . . . . Friday, Feb 22.  
Winter Term Ends . . . . . Saturday, April 6.

### Spring Term.

Spring Term Begins . . . . . Tuesday April 9  
Spring Term Ends . . . . . Wednesday, June 29.

### Commencement Week.

Annual Sermon . . . . . Sunday, May 26.  
President's Reception . . . . . Monday, May 27.  
Alumni Oration and Exercises . . . . . Tuesday, May 28.  
Graduating Exercises . . . . . Wednesday, May 29.

### Special Review Term for Teachers.

Entrance . . . . . Monday, April 8.  
Work Begins . . . . . Tuesday, April 9.  
State Examination . . . . . July 1, 2 and 3.  
The State Examination is held in Jacksonville.



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WAT BROWN, RAGLAND, . . . . .	March 13, 1907.
J. A. NICHOLS, CHILDERSBURG, . . .	March 13, 1907.
I. L. BROCK, CENTER, . . . . .	March 13, 1909.
A. A. HURST, EDWARDSVILLE, . . .	March 13, 1909.
W. M. HAMES, JACKSONVILLE, . . .	March 13, 1911.
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# Normal School Bulletin

FOR  
TEACHERS AND STUDENTS.

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PUBLISHED QUARTERLY:

OCTOBER, DECEMBER, MARCH, JUNE.

No Subscription Fee Is Charged. All Who Desire to Receive the Magazine Will Please Send Their Names.

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## Editorial.

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Attention is called to the opening of the second term which begins January 2nd. Many new students will be enrolled at this time. Any information concerning the course of study and the work done will be gladly given.

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A great deal along educational lines is expected of the state Legislature which meets in January, but no two things are of more importance than that of local taxation by districts and the establishment of a high school in every county of the state. The people are in earnest in demanding these two reforms. They want to tax themselves for education, and will do so, if allowed the privilege.

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Goveruor Jelks, who has proven himself a great friend of the public schools of the state will be succeeded by Hon. B. B. Comer, but in this the state takes no backward step in



educational affairs, for Mr. Comer has made it plain upon every stump in the state that he stands for education from the primary grades through the University, and in every town and hamlet and as far into the country "as boys grow." The state rejoices in the fact that so honest and earnest a man as Mr. Comer is, (a man who backs up his words by his deeds,) comes to the Governor's chair occupying this highly desirable attitude. Mr. Comer may well be convinced that education is Alabama's greatest need to-day. With the education of the people an accomplished fact, all other problems will be speedily settled.

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Supt. Hill soon leaves the service of the state after four years of earnest and efficient endeavor on his part. Supt. Hill's administration has been one characterized by the amount of work that has been done, but the great achievement of it has been the focussing of the public attention upon the rural schools. This will stand as Mr. Hill's crowning accomplishment, and the people of the state will accord him the credit due an earnest, honest and efficient official. He will be succeeded by Mr. H. C. Gunnells, who for a long time has been chief clerk in the educational department at Montgomery. It is a well-known fact that Mr. Gunnells' intellect has given great assistance in the solving of the knotty problems of education in Alabama for some years, and his unopposed promotion is a well-deserved tribute to his ability and faithfulness. The people of the state have the greatest confidence that his administration will carry on all the good work that has been inaugurated by those of the past, and that it will press on with vigor to things not yet achieved, and that it will be characterized by correct and up-to-date business methods.

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### Our New Teacher.

The Normal School is to be congratulated upon securing Mr. R. G. Hafling, Supervisor of Manual Training at Las Animas, Colorado, as head of the Manual Training Department. Mr. Hafling is a graduate of the State Normal School at Greeley, Colorado, but a large part of his education was received in colleges of the East. He is a gentleman of great earnestness and energy, and is possessed of undoubted ability in his line of work.

## The Order of Arithmetical Operations.

When there is no express statement to the contrary, it is the custom to perform a succession of multiplications and divisions in the order in which they are written from left to right. For example,  $12-5$  divided by  $10 \times 3$  means that the product of 12 and 5 is to be divided by 10 and the resulting quotient is to be multiplied by 3. The result is 18.

So, too, a succession of additions and subtractions is understood to mean that these operations are to be performed in the order in which they are written.

To illustrate, the expression:

8 plus 7 — 10 plus 3 has the value 8.

By a succession of the operations addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, when the contrary is not indicated, it is customary to mean that all the operations of multiplication and division are to be performed in the order in which they are written from left to right, before those of addition and subtraction are performed; then to the resulting expression the law of additions and subtractions is to be applied.

Thus, the expression:

9 plus  $5 \cdot 4$  —  $12 \cdot 2$  divided by 3 means 9 plus  $20$  — 8, which is 21.

The contrary order must be indicated by the use of signs of aggregation.

## Department of Science.

Some Suggested Preparation for the Lesson on Longitude and Latitude.

In order to enable the pupil to see at once the point at issue the following plan has been found helpful. Previous to the assignment of the lesson the ideas suggested below are developed. Only enough is done in the class to arouse the pupil's enthusiasm and see that he understands how to work out the questions.

Some such question as this is given:—Suppose we meet



for our next field trip promptly at 3 o'clock north of College street, where shall we meet? (Of course the teacher selects some well known east-west street here, and a north south one later.) Some one will soon see that no two might be at the same place and yet every one be north of College street. As soon as the class sees this, we suppose we shall meet one block north of the street; then, the same distance north of the same street and east of another, Main, for instance. Finally the pupil sees that in order to locate a place in so small an area as a town that both distance and direction from at least two known lines are needed.

From the known streets, the one east-west and the other north and south, his mind is easily transferred to the equator and meridian, respectively; and from blocks, as units of distance, to degrees.

In the country, ridge roads, and miles, halves or quarters, will serve well instead of streets and blocks. In each a sketch on the school yard or blackboard, the former with the aid of the class much preferred, will be of advantage.

ALPHA P. RASOR.

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## Department of Pedagogy.

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### The Teacher's Preparation for the Recitation.

It is true the teacher teaches wherever he is, but he teaches most consciously during the recitation, and it is about the teacher's preparation for the recitation that I want to speak.

That thought, our future is behind us, the teacher realizes more than most people, for he is daily drawing on all his past. First his physical nature; If he enters the school room with a constitution strong from a temperate life, from a life of activity of body in work and play, he is better able to physically stand the work of the school room, and is more apt to take the proper care of his health if he has formed good habits before he begins teaching.

In the second place, his whole past mental life reacts



upon the recitation, If in his own school days there was only memory cram the recitation will suffer, while if his senses have been trained, he has used his logical memory, his imagination has been cultivated and he has learned how to reason out a subject, and from his own experience he has gained some knowledge of human nature, his mental grasp of the recitation problems will be clearer, his whole past mental life will be his reservoir.

In the third place his moral power, his patient endurance, his fortitude, regularity, punctuality, perseverance, will come to his assistance, the sense of his responsibility will give him a high moral purpose. A teacher strong, physically, mentally and morally, has a very good foundation. He must add to this a knowledge of the action of mind upon mind and mind upon matter. He must be able to put himself in the place of the pupil and understand his attitude toward the subject of study, he must see the subject as a whole and study to present that little part given in the recitation in its relation to the whole. He must study to present that part in such way that it will excite the interest and gain the attention of the pupils to the subject. Whenever possible, objects, pictures and illustrations should be used, this will depend a great deal upon the character of the subject, and the object of the recitation. With little children it is the visible, the concrete that attracts their attention. First questions that they can answer easily about an object, then questions requiring more thought and study. The teacher will have to watch closely the different children, study each child's attitude to the subject.

He should keep in mind the three operations, acquisition, assimilation and expression. They all come in every recitation, though usually one is most prominent. Expression is the test of the teacher's success. The pupil must not only acquire knowledge and assimilate it, but must be able to use or express it in some form, in language, art or conduct. He should be able to tell or write or draw or paint or mold, or sing or act, what he has learned and it is the pupils ability to do one or more of these things that tests the teacher's

power, and shows the taste or talent of the pupil.

The more avenues of knowledge the more forms of expression, the surer we are of the pupil's understanding of the subject.

In the daily preparation of the lesson, in the study of each individual pupil and the effort to reach that pupil the teacher will find his own growth, and be saved from ruts, and the routine of school work will not become a grind, and as one of the Normal pupils said the other day teaching will not be considered a sacrifice, but a pleasure.

MARY C. FORNEY.

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## What is Expression?

The foundation of all reading is laid in conversation, though we should never borrow from conversation any but good points, if we would be true to nature.

The first consideration is cultivation of the voices which unconsciously to ourselves betrays every emotion from within, and with care and training may be taught to respond equally so, when reading. For example if a student is asked to give a discription of a picnic which he has attended, it will no doubt be graphically told. Tell him to write and then read it, and he will at once assume an entirely different tone, and become mechanical, showing conclusively, that he has not been taught; the words are still his own, the only difference being they are first written then told instead of as in the first case, being told.

The same principle which applies to our own words, applies to the words of another. We must live with the author, feel with him, and make his words our own.

Learn to concentrate the thoughts, which alone will give us freedom and abandon. This will lend to poise in speech which is giving up the whole being to the thought.

The mind is then ready to draw a mental picture, bringing in its train, power of memory power of mind over mind, and a training of the imagination.

After the will is under control the importance of articu-



lation can not be too strongly emphasized. Whatever we say should be spoken so the hearers may understand clearly, and without any effort on their part.

Careless enunciation is due to careless thinking, to a great extent, so if the thought is clear, we are apt to speak with equal clearness.

Technical drills are sometimes necessary in cases where there is some defect in the vocal apparatus, or of continued bad habits, but a revolution of thought is the first requisite. After training the voice striving to improve the articulation, the physical man must not be forgotten. The importance of a correct position, can not be too often dwelt upon, and by position, is meant the way a person stands, whether on the street, or at home. To say the least of it, a curved spine, and drooped shoulders are not only inelegant, but indicate to a large degree physical or mental weakness.

Correct breathing is absolutely essential to good reading, but it is impossible to attain it, if all physical laws are broken.

Eternal vigilance, is the price of good reading, so never let the occasion be so unimportant, as to allow one to take an incorrect standing position. Awkwardness is a violation of the law of harmony, and self-consciousness, consciousness of the other person.

Daily assuming a correct position, the speaker has no thought of how he is standing, while speaking, but his whole thought is on the subject, which he soon forces his hearers to receive in a definite manner, and with awakened interest.

"Thoughts become habits, and habits become petrified characters."

Expression is a development, and as the name signifies, means "giving out," which presupposes, something within, for the speaker must first have within, the thought to be expressed.

A resume of the subject may be as follows: A body under control of the mind and spirit, bringing voice control, and then correct articulation, which gives a distinctness and

polish to speech, concentration upon the theme, and to be really truthful, spontaneity.

"Expression must be an echo of the state of the mind, and the mind is never twice in the same state: therefore, the expression can not be true, and twice alike."

Reading is merely getting and giving thought, and we can not give that we do not ourselves already possess. To understand the thought, we must analyze and practice much reading aloud for oral reading will give a power of analysis which no amount of silent reading can give. One of the greatest French actors has said he could never reach the pitch of emotion desired, which would so stir his audience, unless he learned his parts, by reciting them aloud. A reader must be an interpreter of literature that is, express the spirit of the literature.

For reading aloud will often bring out countless shades of meaning, which even the hand who wrote them has ignored.

So a good teacher of elocution, may also be a good teacher of literature.

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## Some Suggestions as to the Use of Maps in the Study of History.

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S. G. RILEY.

Thos. Carlyle, advising one of his nephews concerning his studies in history, wrote: "Never read any such book without a map beside you; endeavor to seek out every place the author names and get a clear idea of the ground you are on; without this you can never understand him, much less remember him." Writers and teachers of history understand that history and geography are intimately related; most textbooks now contain maps; nearly all schools own a few wall-maps; some teachers require of their pupils the drawing of maps illustrating the movements studied in history, while others make use of the convenient outline maps which may now be had at small cost, for the same purpose. Without



discussing why maps should be used, a few suggestions as to the methods of using them in the study of history are here presented.

For the study of any historical movement we must choose a map which truthfully represents the geographical conditions which existed at the time when that particular movement occurred. Political boundaries change so frequently as to require new and corrected maps to be made and used at short intervals; such physical changes as have taken place within the historical period are far from being unimportant in history; additions are being made to men's knowledge of geography and geographical theory advances to include the newly ascertained facts. If we were studying the first voyage of Columbus, the Tuscannelli map would serve to show what was in Columbus' mind; a map of the world as we know it would suggest ideas which were quite impossible for Columbus.

Having found a map which fills the requirements of the case the student should note the location of every place mentioned by the authors read; where location is of the essence of the event which is being studied it must be as clearly fixed in memory as the great epoch-marking dates; it is in such cases a matter of cardinal importance. In studying the campaign of Gen. Braddock for example, the location of Fort Duquesne must be held in memory that the campaign may be understood from the point of view of the English and French who were conducting it. It is no more necessary, however, to remember the exact location of every place mentioned than it is to remember the date of every such event; to attempt to do so would result in so great a burden to memory as to crowd out the really important ones and would eventually destroy the mind's power of generalization. Unless, then, location is a matter of importance, the purpose of seeking out the location of every place mentioned by the author is to localize and thereby make more real the event under consideration. Thus the exact location of the San Salvador discovered by Columbus in 1492 is not important; it is enough to know that it was one of the Bahama group.

Physical conditions are always to be considered in their relation to historical movements. Topography is frequently of the utmost importance and can best be understood and remembered by reference to a physical map of the region where the event under consideration occurred. The Battle of Bunker Hill resulted, for example from an attempt of the Americans to fortify a position which would probably have given them possession of Boston. Climate, soil, mineral resources and forest products have great influence in determining industry, movements of population, growth of cities and even political boundaries; these factors should be taken into account and the map studied with reference to their influence. Certainly the failure of the French to maintain their position in North America may be attributed in part to the severity of the climate and the sterility of the soil in the region of the St. Lawrence, and the success of the English, in part, to the comparative mildness of climate, fertility of soil and abundance of mineral and forest products of the Atlantic coast region.

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## Department of English.

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E. M. MURPHY.

There is no phase of the grammar question that gives more trouble to both teacher and pupil than the presentation and the mastering, respectively, of the infinitive. Often the teacher, who has adequate knowledge of the subject, is at a loss as to the best method of presenting it to his class; the student, on the other hand, is confused by the dual nature of the infinitive, its forms, and the great variety of uses in which it is employed. That I may supplement the treatment given in the adopted text-book in the state, I have chosen the infinitive as the theme of this paper.

An examination of the text-books in English grammar reveals considerable diversity of opinion and some difference of nomenclature with respect to this subject. This difference of opinion relates to its form, classification and use. As to



nomenclature, we find the following terms used by different writers on the subject: gerund, verbal, nounal verb, verbal noun, infinitive, gerundal infinitive, etc. In this paper I shall take for our study the infinite verb, with the exception of the participle, which I shall leave for future treatment.

In the adopted text-book in this state, the infinite verb is divided into two divisions, on the basis of function; namely, verbal noun and verbal adjective. The verbal noun is further subdivided into (1) the root infinitive; (2) the infinitive in—ing. We have seen in the main division the principle of classification is function, but in the sub-division the basis of division primarily is the form. Since there is no material difference in this from the older division of infinitive and gerund, the student need not be confused by the multiplicity of terms; for they are merely different terms applied to the same thing.

One of the most important questions for the student to answer concerning the infinitive, is, what are the distinguishing marks by which it may be recognized? These marks taken together constitute the grammatical concept of the infinitive, which expressed in words, is the definition. Every logical definition is composed of two parts. It first names the class to which the term, to be defined belongs, and then names characteristics that distinguish it from all other members of that class. The first is called the GENUS, and the characteristics of the different members, the DIFFERENTIA. "An infinitive is the form of a verb having the properties of a noun and a verb?" To apply this definition, take the sentence, "To learn grammar is difficult." As to class or genus, it is an infinitive because of its characteristics; namely, it takes an object, a property of verb, and at same time, is the subject of the sentence, a property of a noun. As to sub-class determined by the differentia, which is here the form, it is the root form of the infinitive, proceeded by "to." Of course this conception of the infinitive is to be arrived at by the pupil through inductive approaches, and all that I am attempting here is to make an application of a generalization, when legitimately acquired.

When a pupil is thus classifying the infinitives of a sentence according to the function they perform, he is applying grammatical concepts to them. This is the last step in the teaching process and how successful the pupil will be in making his applications, will depend, in a great measure, on how thoroughly he has constructed his infinitive concept. In crystalizing his notion of what constitutes an infinitive, the mind of the learner travels through the stages essential in teaching all subjects; preparation, presentation, generalization, and application. The entire movement of the mind which these steps occasion can be summed up in two syllogisms. First, the pupil should be given passages rich in infinitives, and then he will be ready to make this induction:

These words are infinitive—accepted on the authority of teacher. The common characteristics they have, are, they perform the functions of nouns, and have the properties of verbs.

Therefore whatever has the property of a noun and a verb, is an infinitive.

We thus begin with particulars and arrive at generals. When this has been done well, we are ready for the second stage, application, which depends on the deductive process.

Whatever performs the function of a noun and has the properties of a verb, is an infinitive.

In the sentence, "To learn grammar is difficult," to learn is subject of sentence, a function of a noun; it has grammar for object, the property of a verb.

Under no consideration should the study of an infinitive begin with major premise of the last syllogism. This is the old method, now so universally condemned, of deductive teaching. A pupil is ready for the second syllogism only when he has gone through the steps involved in the first. The difference is very important: in one case the student is a discoverer, generalizer; in the other, his generalizations are given to him ready made, and he never experiences the ecstatic joy of the "Eureka." In one case he is asked to discriminate his own mental processes; in the other, he is asked to recognize them after they have been made for him. If



there is ever a place for the laboratory method it is here; induction first, deduction afterwards.

The division, we have discussed in the foregoing, making two classes of the infinite verb, is productive of confusion in some minds. A student came to me some days ago remarking on the inconsistency of making two divisions of the infinite verb along the lines of the function they subserve, and yet in a sentence like this, "I have a house to rent;" to rent is classed as an infinitive used as an adjective. Said he, "If there are two classes of verbals, the infinitive and the verbal adjective, why is not 'to rent' classed as a verbal adjective?" "Or in the sentence, 'I went to see the elephant,' 'to see' is a verbal used as an adverb of purpose." "I can not see how this can be termed either a verbal noun or a verbal adjective."

In both instances here, the infinitive proper is the object of "to," which is a preposition; the infinitive and the preposition taken together constitute a prepositional phrase, and it is the phrase that is used as an adverb or adjective, but not the infinitive. When the infinitive is said to be used as either an adjective or an adverb, the "to" is invariably a preposition. To secure a clear comprehension of this use of "to," we will illustrate further. In the phrase, "a house to rent," to rent is clearly equivalent to—a house for rent; the word "to" serves the same office as the preposition "for." In the sentence, "I went to see the elephant," to see is equal to—for seeing. Again we observe that "to" is sustaining the same relation to "see" that "for" bears to "seeing." From this we may gather that when the infinitive is said to have an adjective or adverb use, it is the phrase that fulfills this statement, and not the infinitive alone.

When the infinitive is said to be used as a noun, the "to" is not a preposition, but merely the sign or accompaniment of it. In the sentences, "To play is pleasant." "I want to see you." "To see is to believe." "He is about to the army," join and "Delightful task! to rear the tender thought," I have selected five representative uses of the in-

THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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finitive as a noun; namely, subject, object of transitive verb, attribute complement, object of preposition, and apposition. In none of the examples does the "to" have the force of a preposition.

If we shift our point of view to historical grammar, much is brought into the line of vision that lies hidden from him that has only the limited outlook of present use. In old English the infinitive was always a noun, the subject object, or the appositive, and, of course, had no need of a preposition. But there was a gerund—corresponding to the infinitive to-day in-ing—that regularly followed the preposition "to." Through changes in the language, of which I shall give here a brief description, this "to" was shifted to the infinitive. As far back as we need trace, the infinitive ended in —an, the gerund in —enne; by the twelfth century the infinitive ending had changed to —en or —e, the gerund to —en, —enne, or —ende. At last the gerund divided into two divisions, one taking the ending —e, the same as the infinitive, the other branch taking the ending in —ing like the participle. So, at that time, the infinitive and one branch of the gerund had the same ending. After the division of the gerund came changes in its use. The sign "to" was no longer used with the form in —ing. The other form of the gerund retained the "to" before it, and as the infinitive resembled it in form, they both ending in —e, the "to" was placed before the infinitive also. In time all verbals that regularly took "to" before them, were classed as infinitives. Those that are used as adjectives and adverbs, are the old gerunds, the "to" being, as in the past, a preposition. The remainder of the root-imperative — infinitives are used as nouns, and the "to" is not a preposition, but merely its sign or accompaniment. It was placed with the infinitive on account of the resemblance between the infinitive and gerund in form; nor is it a necessary part of it, since it is omitted after such verbs; as, dare, make, need, see, and some others.

I have already named the chief marks by which the infinitive can be recognized, but mere recognizing this factor in language is only a part of the work involved in the solution



of the problem. Its syntax must be given, the relation it bears to other words in the sentence must be definitely noted. I will call a attention here to a few constructions of the infinitive that need special attention. In the sentence, "I told him to write," to write is really an indirect object, for it means I told him this. What is the "this," in this case? As to function it is the direct object and is equivalent to the infinitive, to write. If "this" is the direct object, of course "to write" must be also. "Him" is the indirect object as can be seen by transposing the order of the words thus; I told this to him. Now, this same construction in the passive voice is handled very often, loosely. In these sentences; "I was told to write," and "He was seen to to write." The indiscriminating would declare the construction of the infinitives in these to be the same; but the facts are, that the first is the retained object, while the latter is a complement of the verb, telling the state or the condition of the subject "he." Transpose to the active voice and the relations will be made clear.

They become (1) I told him to write, and (2) I saw him write. I have already shown that the force of the verb falls on the infinitive in sentence (1); but in sentence (2), the subject of the infinitive, him, more directly receives the effect of the action, expressed by the verb, while the infinitive names the condition or state of the object; but, when the sentences are changed to the passive voice, the words under consideration preserve the same relations as before the change. The original use of the infinitive is represented by sentence (1) above, in which the assumed subject is the indirect object; but its uses were extended until they embraced that class of which sentence (2) is a type. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether the act of the verb falls more directly on the infinitive, or on the assumed subject. In such cases, it is best to call the entire phrase, the infinitive and its subject, the object of the verb.

I can not close this paper, which has been necessarily brief, without giving some suggestions about how to determine the function of the infinitive. I have already employed

one method, in explaining the construction of the phrase, to write That is, substitute some word that comprehends the infinitive, note the function of the substitute; the infinitive will have a similar construction. In the sentence, "I told him to write," to determine the function of "to write" I substituted "this." "This" was found to be the direct object, therefore "to write" must be a direct object. In this phrase, "time to come," to come means future; substitute; future in its place, and you have, future time. It requires no mental effort to see that "to come" is an adjective here. Another method is by expanding the infinitive into a clause; a clause is not so difficult to classify as a phrase. I gave the following sentences to a class of teachers, and a majority declared the infinitives to be adverbs of purpose:

(1) "He came to visit me" (2) "He sank to rise no more." (3) "To hear him tell it, you would think him a great fellow." (4) "I am glad to hear it." (5) "I look to see him die." Now by expanding the infinitives into clauses, we have:

In (1) to visit means —that he might visit (clause of purpose.)

In (2) "To rise no more," shows the result of the sinking.

In (3) to hear him tell it, means —if you should hear (clause of condition.)

In (4) to hear it, means —because I hear it, (clause of reason.)

In (5) "to see" is not an adverb at all, but a noun, the object of look, which is a transitive verb, used in the sense of expect.

By these two methods, substituting words and expanding into clauses, many of the subtle relations of the infinitive can be determined.