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SCHOOL GRAMMAR
THE FIRST BOOK OF BULLION'S SERIES
BY
PETER BULLIONS, D.D.,
AUTHOR OF ENGLISH, LATIN AND GREEK GRAMMARS, &c.

SHELDON & COMPANY,
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SCHOOL GRAMMAR:

WITH

PRACTICAL LESSONS AND EXERCISES IN

COMPOSITION AND ANALYSIS.

A REVISED EDITION

OF THE

COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR, AND INTRODUCTORY TO

THE PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

BY

PETER BULLIONS, D.D.,

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LATIN AND GREEK READERS, ETC.

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PREFACE.

This book has been carefully revised, in order to have it serve more completely as a school-book for those pupils who have not time allowed, in their school studies, for a profitable use of all contained in a treatise such as the author's "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language." To pupils who may be favored with time for a more extended course of instruction, and who may require the larger book in higher classes, this little book will be serviceable; as in both books the Definitions and Rules are substantially the same throughout, and are presented in the same order.

Each "Lesson" of this book presents one topic for study, by such a method as will secure an intelligible comprehension and a practical application of the principles of Grammar contained in the lesson. (See Lesson 10, page 18.) After the large type, which presents the subject in concise language, is an "Illustration," which, in simple, familiar language, explains the full, practical meaning of the definitions. The "Observations" are to be used at the option of the teacher. The "Questions" are so framed as to bring out the leading facts contained in the preceding text. [It is recommended, that so far as practicable, the pupils be encouraged to recite "topically," without the formal use of the questions.] Following the questions are many and varied "Exercises," for the practical application of the knowledge acquired, and to fix it in the most effectual manner on the understanding. The importance of these exercises can not be over estimated, and they should on no account be neglected. Subjoined is the requirement that the pupils are to construct language in accordance with the principles, etc., under consideration, and thus show to the teacher their understanding of the lesson. By this last feature, "Composition" soon becomes pleasing and profitable to pupils.
Preface.

A simple and practicable system of Analysis of Sentences, which has been found so useful in the Analytical and Practical Grammar, is presented in this book in its proper place. After a pupil has studied Etymology, he will easily understand this "Analysis," and can readily apply its principles throughout Syntax, when correcting the "Exercises" on the Rules, etc.

The lessons on "Punctuation," "Capitals," etc., have been enlarged, and practical exercises and suggestions may be added at the discretion of the teacher.

Some Introductory Exercises have been inserted as preliminary to the more formal study of the Etymology. These Exercises will interest beginners in the use of correct language, and prepare their minds for the regular "Lessons." Some classes may be profitably entertained by frequent use of these and similar exercises from the teacher.

In making new plates for the present edition, the publishers have taken occasion to present it in more attractive form. Its improved typographical appearance will commend it to its many friends.

The numbers in parenthesis, in the text, in full-faced figures, refer to the current numbers in this Grammar. Where fuller explanation is desirable, the foot-notes refer to the sections of the Analytical and Practical Grammar, and the manual of Analysis, Parsing, and Composition.

May, 1870.

Contents.

1. The figures in full-faced type are to the numbers of the paragraphs.

Introduction and Division, 1-5

Part First.—Orthography.

Letters and Syllables, 9—20

Part Second.—Etymology.

Division of Words, 27-30

Parts of Speech, 31-35

Of Nouns, 36

Of Pronouns, 37

Of Verbs, Division of, 178

Of Adjectives, 192

Of Prepositions, 302

Of Adverbs, 338

Of Conjunctions, 370

Of Interjections, 371

How to Distinguish the Parts of Speech, 331.

Definite and Indefinite Verbs, 329—330

Irregular Verbs, 338

Adverbs, 339

Propositions, 303

Conjunctions, 311

Interjections, 317

Parts of Speech, 192

Inflection—Voice, 302—312

Of the Moods, 313

Tenses, 314—332

Number and Person, 356

Compositions, 364

The Verb "To Be," 278

The Verb "To Love," 274

Negative Form of the Verb, 278

Interrogative Form, 291

Progressive Form of the Active Voice, 385

Passive Voice, 389

Definite and Indefinite Verbs, 329—330

Irregular Verbs, 338

Adverbs, 339

Propositions, 303

Conjunctions, 311

Interjections, 317

How to Distinguish the Parts of Speech, 331.
CONTENTS

Parsing, 326 ........................................ PAGE
Model of, 329 ...................................... 86
Exercises In, 330 .................................... 87

PART THIRD.—SYNTAX.

Analysis of Sentences, Definitions, 331 .................. 90
Parts of a Sentence, 346 ................................ 90
Classes of Sentences, 350 ................................ 91
Simple Sentences, 355 ................................ 92
Subject of a Sentence, 360 .............................. 94
Modifications of 368 .................................. 95
Modifications of Modifying Words, 370 ................ 97
The Predicate, 372 .................................... 98
Modification of, 381 .................................. 99
Limiting Clauses, 392 .................................. 100
Compound Sentences, 398 ................................ 101
Classification of Sentences, 404 ......................... 102
Directions for Analysis, 408 ............................ 104

Parts of Syntax, 407 .................................... 104

Rules of Syntax, 411—543 ................................. 106

PART FOURTH.—PROSODY.

Elocution, 611 .......................................... 163
Verification, 621 ....................................... 164

APPENDIX.

vi

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

A manual of English Grammar can give little more than the
outlines of the science; and these, to be brought within reason-
able compass, must be stated in very concise form. A fruitful
source of failure and disappointment in the study of Grammar
is found in the willingness of teachers to rest in the bare state-
ment of the author, and to confine the instruction for the most
part to the mastery by the pupil of the formal definitions and
rules. These are but the framework, the foundation upon which
to build.

Since it is the office of grammar to teach us how to write and
speak correctly, manifestly that method of study, and those
exercises, are most profitable which afford the largest and most
careful practice in writing and speaking—in the application of the
rules and principles which the Grammar sets forth.

In presenting to the public this revised edition of a little work
which has so long stood the test of practical use in the school
room, the following hints, as aids to its more successful teaching,
are submitted, especially to the consideration of teachers of limited
experience.

1. The first essential is thorough preparation by the
teacher, involving familiarity with each subject, and with the
scope and relation of the whole. We can not teach better than
we know; and this preparation involves not simply such a
knowledge of Grammar as shall aid us ourselves in the correct
use of language, but that fuller and more exhaustive study which
will enable us to adapt its teachings to the comprehension
of those who look to us for instruction.

2. Each new subject should be carefully illustrated before
the pupil undertakes the task of committing to memory the
formal definitions, in order that he may clearly apprehend its
meaning, and that unnecessary obstacles may be removed.

3. Copious blackboard illustrations and examples
should always accompany the lessons, especially giving judicious
classifications of principles, divisions, and distinctions of the several subjects of study, and showing the relations of parts to each other.

Generally, there are three stages in every recitation:

1. Brief review of the preceding lesson, (if related to the current one,) tracing its connection and bearing.

2. Recitation and thorough discussion of the lesson of the day, the teacher at first eliciting any additional thoughts or illustrations the pupils have to give, and then enlarging as the case demands, until it is thoroughly comprehended. The teacher should not be contented with the simple fact that the pupil has recited a lesson verbatim; but will see to it, also, that he has an intelligent notion of what it is designed to teach.

Lessons should be assigned and explanations given suited rather to the least intelligent than to the brightest members of a class, and the recitation and instruction should reach the individuals of the class so far as may be practicable.

3. Assigning the next day's lesson, as before suggested.

This, it will be seen, in some degree goes over each lesson three times in three successive days, and should result in its mastery.

4. Any skillful study of English Grammar must give special prominence to practical exercises in composition, applying the principles illustrated and enforced in the several lessons. The very full and explicit directions for such exercises accompanying each lesson in this manual, will not fail to commend themselves to the judicious teacher. They should be extended as the practical necessities of the class may seem to require.

5. Every teacher using this Manual should also be provided with a copy of the Practical Grammar and of the Analysis, and should make use of the foot-notes to give further illustration and elaboration to subjects that may seem to need it.

6. It is recommended that the Manual of “Analysis, Parsing, and Composition” be taken up in connection with the Grammar, in such portions as shall best illustrate and enforce the teachings of the several lessons, or aid in their practical application.

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

Language, either spoken or written, is made up of words. Each word is the sign of some idea; and by the proper selection and arrangement of words, we are enabled to express our ideas in a correct and intelligent manner.

By careful attention to the meaning and relation of words, as they are used in writing or speaking, we find that some are employed to express the names of things, others to indicate their qualities; some express action or state of some person or thing, and others are used in connection with these to point out the time, place, manner, degree, etc., of such action or state; some denote certain relations of things to each other, and others again chiefly to connect the different parts of a sentence to each other.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Thus, although there are many thousand words in the English language, all are classified grammatically into only nine different kinds, called Parts of Speech. A word is of one kind or another, according to its use in a sentence.

Let us now observe the uses and names of the different kinds of words in the following

Sentence.—“The boy rolled a round stone upon the floor, and oh! how swiftly it did go.”

[*. The teacher will write this sentence on the blackboard.]

Q. Is there any person named in this sentence?
Q. Is there any place named?
Q. Is there any thing named?
Q. What, then, are the words “boy,” “floor,” and “stone?”

Ans. They are names.
Mention other names:

--- Of things you can see,
--- Of things you can hear,
--- Of things you can think of.

In Grammar, names are called Nouns or Substantives.

Q. What, then, is a noun?  
Ans. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing (36).

[Ex. Exercise the pupil on nouns by asking him to write a number on the slate or blackboard; also by giving him sentences in which they occur, and requiring him to point them out. For Exercises see pages 6 and 7. Do the same with the other Parts of Speech, as they are defined.]

Q. What word is before boy in this sentence?—before round stone?
Q. Why, then, is the put before boy? (94.)
Q. Why is a put before round stone? (93.)
Q. Can you give other nouns and put these little words a or the before them?

[Let the pupil turn to page 18 (Exercises) and prefix these words, in the same way, to the words in the list, beginning with "chair."]

Q. What word instead of a do you put before the word "owl?"—Does this word mean the same as a?
Q. Can you tell the difference between a man, and the man?
Q. What are these words "the" and "a," and what do they show? Ans. They are Articles, and show the manner in which the nouns "boy" and "stone" are used.

Q. What, then, is an article?  
Ans. An article is a word put before a noun to show the manner in which it is used. [Lesson 9.] For Exercises see page 18.

Q. What word is before "stone?"
--- What kind of stone is it?—Mention other kinds of stones.

Write twenty other nouns, and put before each of them some word to tell the kind.

[In the Exercises, page 29, let the pupils point out the adjectives.]

Q. What are these words called that tell what kind of thing? (See 102.)
CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Q. What would "very" here tell us? Ans. A circumstance about the motion of the stone. It did go very swiftly.

Q. If you were to say "a very round stone," what would "very" be used for? Ans. To modify the adjective "round." Words of this kind, such as "swiftly" and "very" are named Adverbs.

Q. What, then, is an Adverb? (See 293.)
Point out the adverbs on page 78, Exercise II.

Q. What is the use of the word "upon" in the sentence? Ans. It shows the relation between the "floor" and "rolled."

Q. If you add to the sentence so that the latter part will read "how swiftly it did go under the table," what relation does the word "under" show? Ans. The relation of the verb "did go" to the noun "table."

Words of this kind are named Prepositions. (303.)

Q. What, then, is a Preposition?
Q. This sentence has two parts connected by one word. Name the parts. Ans. (1) "The boy rolled a round stone upon the floor." (2) "Oh! how swiftly it did go!"

Q. What word joins these two parts of the sentence? Words that join words and sentences are called Conjunctions.

Q. What, then, is a Conjunction? Ans. A conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences. (311.)

Q. What is "oh!" here? Ans. It is a word expressing surprise at seeing the stone rolling.

Such words are called Interjections. (317.)

Write five sentences containing Interjections.

Q. How many kinds of words are there in this sentence? Ans. Nine.

Q. What are they called in English Grammar? Ans. They are called Parts of Speech. (31.)

Q. Can all the words in our language be classed under these nine Parts of Speech? Ans. Yes.

Q. What are you going to learn by studying Grammar? Ans. The way to put these Parts of Speech properly together, so as to speak and write the English language correctly.

Note.—Let the teacher take other appropriate sentences and go over them in the same way until the pupils can readily tell the Parts of Speech in their simplest uses.

Examples of the Parts of Speech.
The teacher may now write upon the blackboard a sentence with illustrations, similar to the following:

Carlo was a noble dog; he swam bravely towards the shore; but alas! he was drowned.

1. Noun........as, wheat, dogs, etc......Carlo (was)
2. Article......a, an, the..............a
3. Adjective......first, larger, etc......noble (dog)
4. Pronoun......I, they, who, etc......he
5. Verb........walks, has gone, etc......swam
6. Adverb......here, largely, etc......bravely
7. Preposition......on, from, into, etc......towards (the shore)
8. Conjunction......and, both, or, etc......but
9. Interjection......oh! ah! etc......alas! (he was drowned)

[Write upon the blackboard the definition of each of the nine parts of Speech, in a series of lessons, and illustrate each fully—the pupil committing the definition thoroughly to memory.]

After an exercise like the foregoing, it may be profitable to build up a sentence, by successive additions of words, to illustrate the different parts of Speech, and to exercise the pupil in discriminating the use of words in simple composition.

Commence with some noun, as "birds," and by suitable questions, let the pupils add successive elements, e.g., What part of speech is this?
State something a bird does or can do. [Sing.] "What part of speech is sing?"

"*" Teacher or pupil writes the sentence, "Birds sing."

Put before it some word to tell the kind of birds. [Question as before.]

How or when, etc., do birds sing?

Where do birds sing? [In the grove.]

What word joins "grove" to the rest of the sentence, and shows relation between them?

So proceed to develop a sentence, somewhat as in the preceding exercises we discussed Parts of Speech in the one there given.

Preliminary Definitions.
The simplest form of language is a word, as a name or sign.

That for which it stands is called an idea, that is, an image or picture of something in the mind, something that the mind knows.

Inverting this order, we have the following:

An object, or a quality, or the doing of something, or the manner, etc., in which something is done, is perceived by the mind.

Such perception or consciousness is called an idea of the object, quality, act, manner, etc.

A spoken or written sign, standing for such idea, is called a word.

When we are conscious of some relation to each other of two or more ideas, we are said to think. The operation of the mind is called thought, and the words when put together are called a phrase; as, Green grass.

We may affirm—state our opinion or judgment—of two ideas, affirming or denying one of the other; as, Grass is green.—Ice is not cold. The expression of such judgment is called a proposition, and the words taken together make a sentence.

* * *

Any expression containing the verb in any of its moods, is a clause or a sentence, and not a phrase.

Sentences.

Every sentence consists of two parts, the subject and the predicate. (340-349.)

The subject is the word or words standing for that of which we speak.

The predicate is the statement or affirmation which we make of the subject.

The following are examples:

Subject. Predicate.

Birds... sing.

Sugar... is sweet.

The bad boy... tore his book.

The lame man... limps on his lame leg.

The boy who studies... will improve rapidly.

The fear of the Lord... is the beginning of wisdom.

The stars which we see at night... disappear when the sun rises.

Note.—Pupils should be thoroughly exercised in distinguishing between the subject and the predicate, until they can readily name each in any sentence whose meaning they can understand. All that is not subject is predicate, and all that is not predicate is subject.

The very first step in the analysis of sentences is to inculcate the necessity of separating every sentence into two parts—that
CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

of which the statement or affirmation is made, and that which is said of it.

1. The **substantive** in the subject (nominative case) is of itself often **insufficient**, and the fitness of the predicate is frequently determined by the limiting words; as,

   A generous man ... will be honored.
   A selfish man ... will be despised.

2. Similarly, although the **verb** is the principal word in the predicate, it may be so modified by other words, that, with the same verb, the sense of the predicate shall be essentially changed:

   (1.) By an **adverb**; as,
   The man ... walked slowly.
   The man ... walked rapidly.

   (2.) By an **objective**; as,
   He ... wore a hat.
   He ... wore a cap.

   (3.) By an **attribute**; as,
   It ... tastes sweet.
   It ... tastes sour.

3. With the **same verb**, the predication of **different subjects** may be satisfied by a change of the **subordinate** words.

   Our friends ... treat us with kindness.
   Our enemies ... treat us with contempt.

   *** For further discussion and exercises, see "Analysis."

NOTE TO TEACHERS.—The preceding exercises are intended only as suggestions for oral lessons, which the skillful teacher will extend or modify at pleasure. The pupil should not have any part of this Introduction assigned as a task to be committed to memory: the text in the "Lessons" furnishes ample material for that, after the principles it embodies have been carefully set before the mind of the learner.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

[REFERENCES.—The figures enclosed in parentheses in the text refer to the sections in this grammar. The foot-notes, corresponding with the small index figures in the text, refer to the sections of the Analytical and Practical English Grammar (A. & P. Gr.), and to the Manual on Analysis, Parsing, and Composition (Anal.), belonging to this series.]

LESSON 1.—Definition and Division.

[Commit Definitions and Rules accurately to memory.]

1. **Language** is the means by which we express our thoughts.

2. The expression of our thoughts by **sounds** is **Spoken Language**; the expression of them by **letters** (7) is **Written Language** (12), or **Printed Language** (13).

3. **English Grammar** is the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.

4. It is divided into four parts: namely, **Orthography**; **Etymology**; **Syntax**, and **Prosody**.

5. **Orthography** treats of **letters** (6); **Etymology** of words (27); **Syntax** of sentences (331); and **Prosody** of elocution and versification (610).

PART FIRST.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON 2.—Letters and Syllables.

6. Orthography treats of letters and the proper mode of combining them into syllables and words.

7. A letter is a mark or character used in forming a word, and denotes a sound of the human voice, as b-e-d bad, g-o go, p-u-p-i-1 pupil.

8. Some letters represent several sounds, as e in able, cedar, fall, mat; e in cedar, aid.

9. Sometimes two or more letters are used to represent a sound, as ch in child, eugh in though, sh in finish.

10. When a letter in a word is not used in pronunciation, it is called a silent letter, as k in hour, e in peace.

11. There are about forty Elementary Sounds in the English Language, represented in writing or in print by twenty-six letters called the Alphabet:

12. Written Letters.—Capital.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

Written Letters.—Small.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

13. Roman Letters.—CAPITALS.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

Roman Letters.—Small.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

ITALIC LETTERS.—CAPITALS.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

Italic Letters.—Small.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

Remarks.—Italic letters are generally used for emphasis.

14. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

15. A Vowel makes a free, full sound of itself.

16. A Consonant can not be fully sounded without a vowel.

17. The Vowels are a e i o u ; also, w and y, not before another vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in low, boy.

18. All the other letters are Consonants; also, w and y before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in war, youth.

19. A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound, as ou in out, oi in oil.

20. A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound, as ear in beauty.

21. A Syllable is a distinct sound, uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters, as farm, eagle, a-r-ri-sed.

22. A word of one syllable is a Monosyllable, as man.

23. A word of two syllables is a Disyllable, as man-ly.

24. A word of three syllables is a Tri-syllable, as care-ful-ness.

25. A word of four or more syllables is a Poly-syllable, as Em-i-gra-tion, In-sub-or-di-na-tion.

26. Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

Questions.—What is Orthography? What is a Letter? When is a Letter called a Consonant? How many Elementary Sounds are there in English? How many Letters are there? How are they divided? What is a Vowel? A Consonant? Name the Vowels? When are w and y vowels? When Consonants? What is a Diphthong? A Triphthong? What is a Syllable? What is a Word of one Syllable called? Of two? Of three? Of four or more? What is Spelling?

Note to Teachers.—Before a new lesson is assigned to the class, its subject-matter should be carefully exemplified by oral exercises, familiar questions, and blackboard illustrations, so that its scope may be fully apprehended—not for the purpose of relieving the pupil of his labor, but of making it possible for him to perform it understandingly. Use additional questions as they may suggest themselves; and in the reviews, let the pupil recite tickingly without questions.
PART SECOND.—ETYMOLOGY

LESSON 3.—Division of Words.

27. Etymology treats of the classes of words, and of the changes of the form of words, by inflection and by derivation.

28. Inflection is the change of form or termination which a word undergoes to express the different relations of person, gender, number, case, comparison, voice, mood, tense, etc.; as,
   He sees great men; a greater man saw him.

29. Derivation is the change from its simple primitive word; thus, manly, manhood, mankind are derived from "man."

30. Words, in respect to their meaning and use, are divided into nine classes, called PARTS OF SPEECH.

31. The names of the parts of speech in our language are Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

32. Of these, the Noun, Pronoun, and Verb and some Adjectives and Adverbs are inflected (111, 206).

33. In grammar, the inflection of Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs is usually treated of as "Accident" (45, 132, 209).

34. Parsing is the taking of the words of a sentence separately to tell to what class each belongs, and then describing it (324).

35. Illustration.—"The bad boy strikes John" is a sentence. Each of these words is a part of speech, and holds a certain relation to other words in the sentence. We parse these words when we tell what parts of speech they are and describe them. Thus, the is an article and belongs to boy; bad is an adjective qualifying or describing boy; boy is a common noun, and is the subject of strikes; strikes is a verb, and tells what the boy does. John is a noun, and is the object of the verb strikes.

QUESTIONS.—What does Etymology treat of? What is Inflection? What is Derivation? What are the nine classes of Words called? Name them. Which are inflected? Under what other name is the Inflection of Words treated of? What is Parsing? What does etc. (28) mean?

LESSON 4.—Nouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

36. A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, John, London, book.

37. Nouns are either Common or Proper.

38. A Common Noun is a name applied to all things of the same sort; as, boy, city, river.

39. A Proper Noun is the name applied to an individual person or thing only; as, John, London, the Ohio.

40. A Noun is also called a Substantive.

41. A Substantive is a noun, or any word or part of a sentence used as a noun.

Thus: The man has gone. He reads. To read well requires much practice. That industry leads to success needs no proof. These substantives are subjects of the several verbs "has gone," "reads," "requires," "needs." (See Lesson 39.)

42. Illustration.—1. Every thing of which a person can speak, hear, or think, has a name; that name in grammar is called a noun. Names common to all things of the same sort or class, are called Common nouns; as, man, woman, day, river, city.

2. Names applied only to individuals of a sort or class, and not common to all, are called Proper nouns; as, John, Friday, Thames, London. Common nouns, then, distinguish sorts or
NOUNS.

classes: Proper nouns distinguish individuals. Thus, the noun "Man" is the name of a class or species, and is applied equally to all, or is common to all the individuals in that class. But "John" is a name that belongs only to certain individuals of that class, and not to others; it is therefore not common but proper.

3. A word that makes sense after an article (91), or the phrase speak of, is a noun; as, A man; I speak of money.

Observations.

43. Common nouns are divided into several classes, such as
1. Class names; as, book, scholar.
2. Collective nouns, or nouns of multitude; as, people.
3. Names of materials; as, iron.
4. Names of measures; as, foot, yard.
5. Abstract: 1. Names of qualities; as, goodness.
   2. Names of actions; as, right.
   3. Names of states; as, sleep.
44. Names of actions derived from verbs, are sometimes called verbal nouns; as, reading, writing, etc.

45. The Accidents of nouns are Person, Gender, Number, and Case. (33, 28.) [APPENDIX IV. 1.]

Note.—These Accidents belong also to personal and relative pronouns (132).

QUESTIONS.—What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? What part of speech are names of things? What is a collective noun? An abstract noun? A verbal noun? Are these nouns proper or common? What accidents belong to nouns?

EXERCISES.

[Write out the nouns in the following sentences; say why they are nouns. Tell whether they are proper or common, and why. Exercises of this kind may be taken from any book.]

The table and chairs in this room belong to Robert. The houses and streets in New York are larger than those in Albany. The principal cities in the State of New York are New York, Brooklyn, Albany, Rochester, and Buffalo. Wheat, corn, rye, and oats, are extensively cultivated. Apples, pears, cherries, plums, and other fruits abound. George is older than John; they both study arithmetic and grammar. No man can serve two masters. Knowledge is the treasure of the mind. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. Use soft words and hard arguments. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb. Write a list of all the nouns in your reading lesson. Write additional sentences, taking care in all instances to begin the proper nouns with a capital letter. (26.)]

LESSON 5.—Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

46. Person, in grammar, denotes the distinction of a noun or pronoun to denote the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

47. The persons are three, First, Second, and Third.

48. A noun or a pronoun is in the first person, when it denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I Paul have written it." "We are ready to go."

49. A noun or a pronoun is in the second person, when it denotes something spoken to; as, "Thou, God, seekest me." "You may go, boys."

50. A noun or a pronoun is in the third person, when it denotes something spoken of; as, "Truth is mighty." "The dog followed me."

51. The first and second persons can belong only to nouns denoting individuals, or things regarded as individuals, because such only can speak or be spoken to. The third person may belong to all nouns, because every individual or object may be spoken of.

52. Illustration.—Person makes no change either in the meaning or the form of a noun, but simply denotes the manner
GENDER.

In which it is used. Moreover, as the name of the speaker or of the person spoken to, is seldom expressed (the pronoun I or thou being used in its stead), a noun is very rarely in either the first or the second person.

Exercises.

[In the following exercises point out the nouns and pronouns (126), and tell their persons.]

The teacher said to Jane, I am pleased with your progress. — Thou art the man! — John, where are you going? — Mary, does James study grammar? — We, the people of the State, do ordain. — Go along, Joseph. — The earth is a round ball. — Earth and sky! how beautiful ye are. — Man is the servant of God. — Hence! homes! ye idle creatures! — Gazing upon the same moon that smiles for you, the Indian lover wooed his mate.

Questions. — What does person denote? How many persons are there? When is a noun in the first person? When in the second? When in the third? To what sort of nouns do the first and the second persons belong? Why? To what does the third belong? Why? Does person make any difference in the meaning or the form of the noun? What then does it denote? Is the name of the speaker, or the person spoken to, often mentioned? What words are used instead of them?

Lesson 6. — Gender.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

53. Gender is the distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

54. Nouns and pronouns denoting males are Masculine; as, man, boy — king, lion — I — he.

55. Nouns and pronouns denoting females are Feminine; as, woman, girl — queen, honess — I — she.

56. Nouns and pronouns denoting neither males nor females are Neuter; as, books, houses, it.

A. & P. Gr. 119, 120.

57. The masculine and feminine genders of nouns are distinguished in three ways —

1. By different corresponding words; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beau</td>
<td>belle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>doe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bull</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colt</td>
<td>colt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake</td>
<td>duck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl</td>
<td>countess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friar</td>
<td>nun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gander</td>
<td>goose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. By a difference of termination; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbot</td>
<td>abbess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>actress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>administratrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambassador</td>
<td>ambassadess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arbiter</td>
<td>arbiret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>authoress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augustus</td>
<td>Augusta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron</td>
<td>baroness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefactor</td>
<td>benefactress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom</td>
<td>bride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>countess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deacon</td>
<td>deaconess</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GENDER.
GENDER.

Masculine.     Feminine.
---    ---
Negro      Negress
Patron      Patroness
Peer        Peeress
Poet        Poetess
Prince      Princess
Prophet     Prophetess
Shepherd    Shepherdess

Masculine.     Feminine.
---    ---
Descendants  Sorrows
Soreeer      Sororees
Sultan       Sultaness
Tiger        Tigress
Tutor        Tuteress
Votary       Votress
Widower      Widowess

3. By a distinguishing word prefixed; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sparrow</td>
<td>Cock sparrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goat</td>
<td>His goat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant</td>
<td>Man servant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>Male child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descendants</td>
<td>Male descendants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilson</td>
<td>Master Wilson</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercises.

[In the preceding list, tell the feminine of each masculine noun, and the masculine of each feminine.]

LESSON 7.—Number.

62. Number is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one.

63. Nouns have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular denotes one; as, book, tree, man; the Plural, more than one; as, books, trees, men.

64. The Plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular; as, singular book, plural books.

Observations.

58. Some nouns denote either a male or a female; as, parent, servant, neighbor. Such are said to be of the common gender.

59. Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine; as, baker, brewer; and some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, laundress, seamstress.

60. Some nouns, generally of the neuter gender, have masculine or feminine pronouns when personified; that is, when the thing they represent is considered to have life; as,

"The sun is bright, but how does he make the day?"

"The ship was admired as she sailed past."

61. The names of animals of inferior size, or whose sex is not known, are often considered neuter, and are followed by the neuter pronoun; as, "The cat caught a mouse and ate it."

QUESTIONS.—What is gender? How many genders are there? What nouns are said to be masculine? What feminine? What neuter? How are the masculine and feminine genders of nouns distinguished?

A. & Y. Gr.—130, 1046.
Most's by adding plural in the following:

- Handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; fife, strife; proof, hoof, not well ruled; as, Tullys.

Remark.—Letters, marks, figures are made plural by adding 's; as, 'Dot your i's and cross your t's. Your s's are not well made. The t's are between the 6's and 7's, and the -'s between the 4's and 6's.

Observations.¹

70. Some nouns form the plural irregularly. They are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ox</td>
<td>oxen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brother (one of the same family)</td>
<td>brothers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother (one of the same society)</td>
<td>brethren</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bow or swine</td>
<td>sows or swine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die (for gaming)</td>
<td>dice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Die (for eating)</td>
<td>dice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most compound words pluralize the first part, as,

- Aid-de-camp, aids-de-camp
- Court-martial, courts-martial
- Cousin-german, cousins-german
- Father-in-law, et c.

71. Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in um or on have a in the plural; but is, in the singular, is changed into es; as, cane and cane, into canes; its into its; its into its; as, is.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Snap</td>
<td>Fuss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spay</td>
<td>Spay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apex</td>
<td>apices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crises</td>
<td>crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automaton</td>
<td>automata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnus</td>
<td>magi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Axis</td>
<td>axes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr.</td>
<td>Messrs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

72. Proper names have the plural, only when they refer to a race or family; as, the Stewarts; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve Caesars.²

73. Names of metals, virtues, vices, and things weighed or measured, are mostly singular; as, gold, soundness, temperance, milk.

74. Some nouns are plural only; as, annals, bellows.

75. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, trout.

76. Some nouns are plural in form; but in construction, either singular or plural; as, amends, means, news, riches, pains, and the names of sciences; as, mathematics, ethics, etc.

77. Some nouns are used in the singular form to denote a quantity or class of objects, as two hundred, the horse is useful to mankind. (99.)³

QUESTIONS.—What is meant by number? How many numbers have nouns? What does the singular denote—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding es? How do nouns ending in y after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—when are nouns singular and when plural? What nouns are mostly singular? Mention some nouns that are singular only. Some that are alike in both numbers. Some that are plural in form, but either singular or plural in construction. When is the article a or an not used?

EXERCISES.

1. Put the following words in the plural, and give the rule for forming it; thus, "Chair, plural Chairs." RULE, "The plural is commonly formed," etc. (64); "Fuss, plural fusses." RULE, "Nouns in s, es, etc. (65)."

A. & P. Gr.—155, 161, 156, 161, 700.
CASES OF NOUNS.

Chair, fox, table, cat, dog, horse, house, hand, finger, arm, boy, girl: dish, church, box, miss, sky, body, key, day, toy, leaf, knife, wife, loaf. An apple (96), a pear, a cherry, a bush, a church, a bell.

2. Write the singular of the following plurals:

Flies, boxes, leaves, brushes, knives, marshes, bays, tables, bushes, trees, dogs, ducks, geese, wives, duties, churches, matches, mice, days, keys, staves, horses, mules, cows, sheep, goats, etc.

3. Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns:

Man, woman, ox, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; father-in-law, mother-in-law, court-martial, fisherman, washerwoman, cousin-german, etc.

4. Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns:

Man, woman, child, ox, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; father-in-law, mother-in-law, court-martial, fisherman, washerwoman, cousin-german, etc.

LESSON 8.—Cases of Nouns.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

78. Case is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence.

79. Nouns have three cases; the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

80. The Nominative case commonly expresses that of which something is said, or declared: as,

The sun shines. He is a scholar.

81. The Possessive case denotes that to which something belongs; as, The lady's fan. (479.)

82. The Objective case denotes the object of some action or relation; as, James assists Thomas; they live in Albany.

83. The nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike in form.

84. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and s, to the nominative; as John's book.

85. When the plural ends in s, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, Ladies' hats.

INFLATION OF NOUNS.

86. Nouns are thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Lady</td>
<td>Ladies</td>
<td>John</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. Lady's</td>
<td>Ladies'</td>
<td>John's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obj. Lady</td>
<td>Ladies</td>
<td>John</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57. Proper names generally have no plural.

PARSING OF THE NOUN.

88. A noun is parsed etymologically, by telling its gender, number, and case; thus, "The lady's fan is lost."

Lady's, a noun, feminine, in the possessive singular.

Observations.

89. When the nominative singular ends in s, or letters of a similar sound, the s after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake." This however is seldom done, unless the word following begins with s; thus we do not say "the prince's feather," but the "prince's feather."

Note.—A noun in the possessive case limits the noun to which it is joined.

90. The objective case, with of before it, following another noun, is generally equivalent to the possessive; thus,
"the rage of the tyrant" and "the tyrant's rage" mean the
same thing. Sometimes, however, the meaning will be different.

**QUESTIONS.**—What is a case? How many cases have nouns? What
does the nominative case express?—the possessive?—the objective? What
two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular formed?—the posses-
sive plural?

**EXERCISES.**

**GENDER, NUMBER, AND CASE.**

[Place the following nouns by telling their gender, number and case; thus,
"Father," a noun, masculine, in the nominative singular.*

Father, mother, sister's husband, brother's wife, uncle's house,
Tom's books, city, virtue's reward, brother's widow, Washington
the hero, the statesman, the father of his country; carpenter,
farmer, lawyer's face, teacher's manual, scholar's assistant, ladies'
gloves; beans, peas, plums, cherries, houses. The farmer plants
potatoes in his field. Flowers grow in the garden.

[Review the whole thoroughly from the beginning, answering
accurately all the questions.]

**LESSON 9.—The Article.**

91. An Article is a word put before a noun, to
show the manner in which it is used.

92. There are two articles, a or an, and the.

93. A or an is called the Indefinite Article, because it shows that its noun is used indefinitely,

A. & P. Gr.—176.

* In using the above exercises, it will save much time, which is all import-
ant, if the pupil be taught to say every thing belonging to the noun in
the fewest words possible; and always in the same order as above. For the same
reason, the distinction of nouns into proper and common may be omitted.
And a person has nothing to do with the form of a noun, but only with its
use, and as nouns are almost always of the third person, the mention of per-
son may be omitted, unless the noun is in the first or the second person. It
will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of
his description; thus, "Father, a noun, because the name of an object; mas-
culine, because it denotes the male sex; singular, because it denotes but one;
plural, fathers. Hence, "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the
singular."

94. The is called the Definite Article, because it shows that its noun is used definitely, and refers to
a particular person or thing; as, The king, meaning some
particular king, known or described. [Appendix IV, 2.]

**Observations.**

95. A is used before a consonant; a house, a ripe apple.
Also before words beginning with u long, and eu, because they
sound as if beginning with the consonant v: thus, A unit, a use,
a eulogy,—pronounced as if written, a vunit, a yuse, a yeulogy.

96. Instead of a, an is used before an adjective or noun,
beginning with a vowel or a silent h; as, an aged man, an
acorn, an hour.

97. A or an is used before the singular number only;
the, before either the singular or the plural.

98. Generally, a noun without an article is taken in its
widest sense, as, Man is mortal, meaning All mankind: Or, in
an indefinite sense; as, There are men destitute of all shame,
meaning some men.

99. The is sometimes put before a noun denoting the
species; thus, the oak; the lion.

100. When an article and adjective are used with a noun,
the article generally stands before the adjective; as, a large eagle,
the same lion.

**PARING OF THE ARTICLE.**

101. The article is parsed by stating whether it is
definite or indefinite, and mentioning the noun
to which it belongs; thus,

A book. A is an article, indefinite, and belongs to "book."

**QUESTIONS.**—What is an article? How many articles are there?
What is A or An called? Why? What is The called? Why? What
is A used before? What is An used before? In what sense is a noun
without an article taken? How is the article parsed?

A. & P. Gr.—709.
18  THE ADJECTIVE.

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say a man, or an man? and why?

a apple, or an apple? and why?

a house, or an house? and why?

a hour, or an hour? and why?

[Prefix the indefinite article in the proper form to the following words:]

Chair, table, horse, cart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, car, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, book, pot, bench, open wagon, round stone, old hat, penny trumpet, ice house, house, honor, hopeful boy, honest man.

[Correct the Errors in the following examples, and give a reason for the change; parse the articles:

An cup, an door, a appa, an pear, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, a honor, an crow, a ostrich, an pen, a ugly beast, an pretty beast, an pretty thing, an huge monster, a upper room, a ice house, an nice house, an humorous poem, a open wagon, an hard nut, a industrious boy, a honest man.]

LESSON 10.—The Adjective.

102. An Adjective is a word used to qualify a substantive; as, A good boy; a square box; ten dollars. He is poor. To lie is base. That I said so is true.

For the word Substantive, see Lesson 4.

103. Adjectives may be classified as follows:

104. I. Common adjectives, denoting quality; as, good, large, sweet, etc.

105. II. Numerals adjectives, denoting quantity and number. Of these there are four kinds:

A. & P. Gr. — 187.

1. Definite numerals, denoting some exact number; as, six dollars, the eighth page. These are distinguished as

(a) Cardinal, which indicate how many; as, one, two. These are sometimes written in figures; thus, 1, 2, 3, 4.

(b) Ordinal, which indicate which one of a number; as, first, second, etc. Sometimes written, 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, etc.

2. Indefinite numerals are such as do not denote any exact number; as, few, many, general.

3. Distributive numerals point out a number of objects individually; as, each, every, either, neither. These are also called indefinite pronouns. (See 171.)

4. Those denoting quantity as applied to materials; as, much, little, some, any.

106. III. Circumstantial adjectives express some condition of time, place, nation, etc.; as, daily bread, Eastern clime, American continent.

Under this head may be included proper adjectives derived from nouns; as, Roman, Greek, Napoleon.

107. IV. Participial adjectives, consisting of participles or compounds of participles used as adjectives; as, an amazing story, unmerited rebuke. [See Appendix IV, 3.]

108. Illustrations.—The name of a thing, mentioned without qualification, brings before the mind only the idea of the thing itself. Thus, the word horse, for example, may stand for any horse. But if we wish to describe or point out a particular horse more definitely, and to distinguish it from others of the same species, we qualify the term; i.e., we connect with the name or noun a word denoting some property, or quality, or circumstance by which it may be known or distinguished; as, a little horse; an old horse; a black horse; an American horse, etc. Words used for this purpose are called Adjectives. Sometimes several of these may be joined with the same noun; as, when we say, a little old black horse; a smooth white round stone; the good old way.

In any phrase of sentence, the adjective qualifying a noun may generally be found by prefixing the expression, What? or What kind of? to the noun in the form of a question; as, What...
kind of a horse? What kind of a stone? What kind of a way?
The word containing the answer to the question is an adjective.

Observations.

109. Other parts of speech, when used to qualify or limit a noun, or pronoun, perform the part of adjective, and should be parsed as such; as, A gold ring, a bare, the then, king, the above, remark, etc. Sometimes an entire phrase or clause performs the office of an adjective; as, "The love of money." What love? "The boy who studies." What kind of boy?

110. Adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the good, and punishes the bad." "The virtuous are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are plural: they denote more than one.

Questions.—What is an adjective? What are adjectives denoting number called? What is a numeral adjective? How many classes of numeral adjectives are there? What are the cardinal numbers? What do they express? What are the ordinal numbers? What do they express? When do nouns or other parts of speech become adjectives? Are adjectives ever used as nouns? Of what number are they considered?

Exercises.

1. In the following exercise, let the pupil first point out the nouns, and then the adjectives; and tell how he knows them to be so.

A round table, a pretty dog, a little mouse, a low chair, a small book, a sharp knife, white paper, dirty books, ugly faces, a beautiful flower, a rich man, fresh fish, a wild horse, a short man, an old hat, a fierce dog, a good pen, a wise king, an honest man, tame rabbits, a fine day, a sweet apple, a long stick, a little handsome old woman, a thick square book, a large white cat, a new book, a clean white frock, a full cap, an empty mug, a warm room, a wet towel, a cold rainy night, a cloudy sky, windy weather, hard frost, deep snow. The sky is bright. — It tastes sweet. — Snow is white. — Ice is cold.

2. In the above exercises, let the pupil take each noun and point to it as many adjectives as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, for example, "table," high table, low table, long table, etc., etc., and in reciting put the emphasis on the adjective.

3. Let him take each adjective, and add to it as many nouns as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, "round," a round ball, a round hole, a round house, a round cake, etc., and put the emphasis on the noun.

4. Write out these exercises.

Lesson 11.—Comparison of Adjectives.

[Review the preceding lesson, and answer the questions.]

111. Adjectives usually have three forms, called degrees of comparison: the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

112. The Positive expresses the quality simply; as, John is tall.

113. The Comparative expresses the quality in a higher degree in one object than another; as, James is taller than John.

114. The Superlative expresses the quality in the highest degree in one object compared with two or more; as, Joseph is the tallest of all.

115. Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding er to the positive; and the superlative, by adding est; as, sweet, sweeter, sweetest.

116. Adjectives ending in silent, drop e before er and est; as, large, larger, largest.

117. Adjectives of more than one syllable are commonly compared by prefixing more and most; as, beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

Remark.—Some prefer to regard the words more and most as adverbs, modifying the adjective.

118. To these rules there are some exceptions. Adjectives of two syllables are sometimes compared by er and est; as, our tender, cases; a happier state; and adjectives of one syllable are sometimes compared by prefixing more and most; as, more wise, most fit.

119. A lower degree of comparison is expressed by prefixing less and least to the positive; as, less beautiful, least beautiful.
Comparison of Adjectives.

Observations.

120. Dissyllables ending in is after a mute, are generally compared by er or est; as, able, ablest, ablest. After a consonant, y is changed into i before or and est; as, dry, drier, driest; happy, happier, happiest; y with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, gay, gayer, gayest.

121. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding most to the end of the word; as, upper, uppermost. So undermost, foremost, hindmost.

122. When the positive ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before or and est; as, hot, hotter, hottest.

125. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:--
1st. Such as denote number; as, one, two; third, fourth.
2d. --- figure or shape; as, circular, square.
3d. --- posture, or position; as, perpendicular, horizontal.
4th. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme.

Adjectives compared irregularly.

124. Some adjectives are compared irregularly, as follows.

---|---|---
Good | better | best
Bad, evil or ill | worse | worst
Little | less | least
Much or many | more | most
Late | later | latest or last
Near | nearer | nearest or next
Far | farther | farthest
Poore | foreer | foremost or first
Old | older or elder | oldest or eldest

125. Much is used to denote quantity; as, much corn, much money, much mischief; many to denote number; as, many men, many dollars. Elder and eldest are applied to persons only; older and oldest, to either persons or things.

Questions.--How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive denote—the comparative—the superlative? How are monosyllables compared—words of more than one syllable—dissyllables in is after a mute? Is y after a consonant? What sort of adjectives double the final consonant before or and est? What adjectives are not compared? What adjectives are compared irregularly?

Parsing the Adjective.

126. Adjectives are parsed by stating their class, the degree of comparison (if compared), and the nouns which they qualify.

Exercises.

1. Point out the adjectives in the following Exercise; parse them; compare them; thus, a good father; "Good," an adjective, positive degree, qualifies "father," compared irregularly, good, better, best.

2. Point out the nouns, and tell their gender and number as directed; thus, "father," a noun, masculine, singular.

A good father, a wiser man, a more beautiful girl, wild horses, young colts, a sweeter apple, the wisest prince, green trees, the honest farmers, the most virtuous people, the richer tradesmen, the better scholar, the tallest girL, the finer sheep, large oranges, the merriest follows, the old soldier, pretty dogs, an ugly calf, the tamest rabbits, the little mouse, the longest stick, a wider table, a most excellent thing, the highest ladder, the most fruitions.

Numerals.—Four men, the fourth day, six days, the seventh day, 365 days, ten horses, the first time;—of four houses, the first is of wood; the second, of stone; the third and the fourth, of brick.

3. Turn back, and go over the adjectives in the exercise, Lesson 10, in the same way.

4. In both exercises, change singular nouns into plural, and plural into singular; give the rule for the plural, and then read the phrase so changed; thus, father, pl. fathers. "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular;" good fathers.

5. Write Sentences containing any of the adjectives in the preceding list, or any others you can think of. Teacher may give a new list to be used in the same way.)
LESSON 12.—Pronouns.

127. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun; as, John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies. The boy who studies will learn.

128. The word to which the pronoun relates, and for which it stands, is called its antecedent.

129. Sometimes a pronoun is used as a substantive in a general sense, without any antecedent expressed; as, He who studies will learn.

130. A pronoun sometimes has another pronoun for its antecedent; as, You and I must attend to our duties.

131. Pronouns may be divided into four classes; Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.

132. The Accidents of Personal, Relative, and Interrogative pronouns, like those of nouns, are Person, Gender, Number, and Case. [APPENDIX IV. 4.]

133. Illustration.—Generally pronouns are used to avoid the too frequent repetition of the nouns for which they stand. Thus, instead of saying, John is a good boy; John is diligent in John's studies; we say, "John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies."

134. Some pronouns relate to nouns or substantives; as, "He who studies will learn;" others are used to ask questions; as, "What did he say?" and others are used, like adjectives, in connection with nouns; as, "My book;" "That horse." But, though a pronoun may indicate a noun, it does not express any quality of it as an adjective does.

135. Personal Pronouns.

136. The simple personal pronouns are I, thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, ye or you, they.

One used in a general sense to represent a person, may be regarded as a personal pronoun; as, "One can never know, etc."

137. I is of the first person, and denotes the speaker.

138. Thou is of the second person, and denotes the person spoken to.

139. He, she, it, are of the third person, and denote the person or thing spoken of.

140. The personal pronouns are thus inflected:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. m. or f.</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. m. or f.</td>
<td>Thou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. masc.</td>
<td>He</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fem.</td>
<td>She</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. neut.</td>
<td>It</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observations.

141. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, we is frequently applied to one person; thus an editor writes, "We think."

142. In addressing persons, you is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural verb. Thou is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to mark special emphasis; or, in the language of contempt. The plural form, ye, is now but seldom used.

143. The pronoun it has a variety of uses:

1. Regularly as the proper pronoun of the third person; as, Life is short; it should be improved.

2. As an indefinite subject of the verb to be, followed by a substantive in any person or number; as It is I. It is you. It is they; or after the verb in interrogative sentences; as, Who is it?
PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

3. As an introductory subject before a verb followed by a substantive clause; as, It is certain that he will never mend. It is wrong to be idle.

4. Indefinitely before impersonal verbs, (291); as, It hails, It rains, etc.

5. As a mere expletive; as, Come and trip it as you go.

144. The possessive case of the pronoun can not, like the possessive of the noun, be followed by the name of the thing possessed. Thus, we can say, Mary's book, but not "hers book;" and yet we can say equally well, "It is Mary's," or "it is hers." In both these last expressions, the name of the thing possessed is not expressed but implied.

* * * * *

Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, should never be written her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.

Compound Personal Pronouns.

145. The compound personal pronouns are Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself; with their plurals, ourselves, yourselves, yourselves, themselves.

146. These pronouns are used, without change of form, in the nominative and the objective cases. They have no possessive. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns or nouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I myself did it;" "himself shall come." In the objective they are reflexive, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged himself."

Ourself and yourself are used as compounds corresponding to see and you applied to individuals; as, "We ourselves will follow."

"You must do it yourself."

Parsing.

147. The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus; I is a pronoun of the first person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative singular.

QUESTIONS.—What is a pronoun? How are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun? Why is it called personal? What are they? Decline the first—the second—the third. Of what person is I—thou—he, she, it? What does the first person denote?—the second—the third? To what class do myself, thyself, etc., belong? In what cases are they used?—How are they applied in the nominative—in the objective?—How is you applied?—thou—us?

EXERCISES.

[1. Go over the following list of pronouns and tell their person. Go over them again and tell their gender; again, and tell their number; again, and tell their case; and lastly, tell their gender, number, and case, together.] I, thou, we, me, us, thing, he, him, she, her, they, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we, thou, thine, ye, ours, yours. Himself, yourselves, herself, themselves, ourself, yourself, itself.

[2. Point out the pronouns in the following Excerpts. Parse them by telling their person, gender, number, and case; thus, "me, a pronoun, first person, masculine, in the objective, singular."

Give me the pears you bought of him; I like them better than the apple he bought; it was sour. She told us what we said to her, and they heard her. Put it on, will you? He likes them because they are sweet. Take them to John. I gave them to her. We will do it, if you wish. The men said they would do it. The girl said she did not know them. The boy thought he knew them. You and I went with them to meet her, after she had seen him. He and I can do it, though you can not. James bought that book; it is therefore his, and not here.

"Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth." —"Honour thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee." —"As ye would that others should do to you, do ye even so to them." —"He who loves money more than honor, will rule it above honesty." —"One that is perfectly idle will be perfectly weary." —"Praise not the unworthy, though they roll in riches."

[3. Take any easy reading lesson, and go over it in the same way.]

6. Read the preceding exercises, using nouns instead of pronouns.]
LESSON 18.—II. Relative Pronouns.

148. A Relative Pronoun is one that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent; as,

"The master who taught us."

149. 1. The antecedent is commonly a noun or pronoun; sometimes a phrase (335) or a clause (334).

2. The antecedent is always limited or explained by the relative clauses; as,

The boy who reads;

He who does well, will be rewarded;

James is sick, which accounts for his absence.

150. Relative Pronouns are Simple or Compound.

151. The simple relative pronouns are who, which, that, and what. Who and which are alike in both numbers; and are thus inflected:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Who</td>
<td>Whom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td>Whose</td>
<td>Whose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Whose</td>
<td>Whose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

152. 1. Who is applied to persons; as,

The boy who reads.

2. Also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.

153. 1. Which is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as,

The dog which barks; the book which was lost.

2. Also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, "the court of Spain, which"; "the company which." And like-wise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, "The court of Queen Elizabeth, which was but another name for prudence and economy."

154. Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

155. That is often used as a relative, instead of who or which. It is applied both to persons and things; as, the man that walks; the stone that rolls.

156. What, as a relative pronoun, is applied to things only, and is never used but when the antecedent is omitted; as,

"This is what I wanted" = that which I wanted.

Observations on the Relative.

157. The compound relatives are whoever, whosoever, whatever, and whatsoever, and are equivalent to the relative and a general, or indefinite antecedent; as,

"Whosoever committeth sin, is the servant of sin;" that is, "any one," or "every one who committeth sin," etc. "Whatsoever things are of good report," i.e. "All things (without exception) which are of good report." [See A. & P. Gr. 762.]

158. The office of the relative is twofold.—1st. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of further describing it. Thus used, it is said to be additive; as, "Light is a body which moves with great celerity" = and it moves, etc. 2d. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of limiting or restricting it like an adjective or adjunct. Thus used, it is said to be restrictive; as, "The man who is good is happy" = The good man is happy.

159. Which and what are sometimes used as adjectives, and have a noun following them; as, "Tell me what books you are reading;" "Which things are an allegory." In this sense which applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to this or these.

A. & P. Gr.—765.
RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

160. Who, and also which and what, without a noun following, are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; as, I do not know who will be our next President.

PARSING THE RELATIVE.

161. The relative pronoun is parsed by stating its gender, number, person, and case, and its antecedent. (The gender, number, and person, are always the same as those of the antecedent.)

"The boy who."—"Who" is a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to "boy" as its antecedent.

QUESTIONS.—What is the relative pronoun? What is the word to which it relates called? What is the proper use of the relative pronoun? What are the relative pronouns? What is who applied to? What is which applied to? Why is that used as a relative? To what is it applied? What sort of a relative is what? What does it include? What sort of words are relatives, etc.? When which and what are followed by nouns, what part of speech are they? In parsing the relative what are mentioned? How are the gender, number, and person of the relative determined?

EXERCISES.

1. Is it proper to say—the man who, or the man which? why?

2. In the following sentences, point out the relative, and the word to which it relates.

PARSING.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

162. Who, which, and what, when used in asking questions, are called Interrogative pronouns.

163. The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun is found in the answer to the question; as, "Who did this?"—"John did it." John is the antecedent.

164. As interrogatives, who is applied to persons only; which and what, either to persons or things. What is indeclinable.

165. Who, which, and what, used respondingly, are indefinite pronouns; as, "I know who did it."

166. Interrogative Pronouns are parsed by stating the gender, number, and case. Thus,

"Who saw the accident?" Who is an interrogative pronoun, masculine or feminine, third person, in the nominative singular.

"Who did that? John." Who is an interrogative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular. Its antecedent is "John" in the answer to the question.

QUESTIONS.—What are the interrogative pronouns? Why are they called interrogative? As an interrogative, what is who applied to?—which?—what? In parsing the interrogative, what is mentioned?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out in which of the following sentences, who, which, and what are relatives, in which interrogatives; in which indeclinables. Parse the interrogative and indeclinable pronouns.

Who steals my purse steals trash. To whom did you give that book?—What I do thou knowest not now. Who you are, what you are, or to whom you belong no one knows. What shall I do?—Who built that house?—Do you know by whom that house was built?—Is that the man who built that house?—Which book is yours?—Do you know which book is yours?—What is wanted?—I know what is wanted.

2. Write sentences, each of which shall contain one of these pronouns in one or either of these different senses.

A. & P. Gr.—284.
Lesson 14.—Adjective Pronouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

167. Adjective Pronouns are words used sometimes like adjectives to qualify a noun, and sometimes like pronouns to stand instead of nouns. There are four sorts; viz., the Possessive, Distributive, and Indefinite.

168. The Possessive pronouns are such as denote possession. They are my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

169. The Distributive pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are each, every, either, neither.

170. The Demonstrative pronouns point out objects definitely. They are this and that, with their plurals, these and those.

171. The Indefinite pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are none, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other, another. The three last are inflected like nouns.

Observations.

172. These pronouns are called adjective, because, like adjectives, they either are, or may be, followed by a noun which they limit.

173. Possessive pronouns have the same meaning as the possessive case of the personal pronouns to which they relate, but are used differently. The possessive pronoun must always have a noun after it; the possessive case of the personal, never, as it always refers to a noun previously expressed; thus,

A. & P. Gr.—1 292-295.

296-301.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Possessive Pronoun. Possessive Case.
This is my book; This book is mine.
That is her pen; That pen is hers.
This is your hat; This hat is yours.
It is their house; The house is theirs.

Note.—The word own (properly an adjective) is sometimes added to a possessive to make it emphatic; as, "my own," "his own," "the boy's own book."—A. & P. Gr. 295.

174. His and her, followed by a noun, are possessive pronouns; not followed by a noun, they are personal pronouns.

175. That is sometimes a demonstrative, sometimes a relative, and sometimes a conjunction; thus,

Dem. That book is mine.
Rel. It is the book that I bought.
Conj. I read, that I may learn.

176. Among indefinites may also be reckoned such words as no, few, many, several, etc.—the compounds whoever, whatever, whichever, etc., and who, which, and what, in responsive sentences. (165.)

* * *

None is used in both numbers; but it can not be joined to a noun.

 Parsing.

177. Adjective pronouns are parsed by stating their class, and the word which they qualify; thus,

"My book." My is a possessive adjective pronoun; and qualifies book.

Questions.—How many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. Why called adjective pronouns? What is a possessive pronoun? Name the possessive pronouns. What is a distributive pronoun? Name the distributive pronouns. What is an indefinite pronoun? Name the indefinite pronouns. In what do they differ? Give an example of the use of each. How is "own" used? When are his and her possessives? In what person are they used? In how many different ways is "that" used? How is "none" used? How are adjective pronouns parsed?

A. & P. Gr.—1 284.
EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the adjective pronouns, and parse them; the nouns, and parse them. Point out the personal pronouns in the possessive case.

My book, her shoes, your horse, their father, his brother, every hour, that table, these quills—This is my book; that book is yours. Where is my hat?—These apples are good; give some to your brothers.—I will give one to each.—I have given them all away, every one.—Every day try to do good to some person.

This book will do as well as that one.—Every boy should keep his own books.—Do good to all men—injury to none.

LESSON 15.—Exercises.

Nouns, Articles, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the articles, and parse them; the nouns, and parse them; the adjectives and parse them; the pronouns, and parse them.

I found my hat upon your table; but where is yours?—Who put that glove in my cap?—Have you seen the book which my father gave to me?—That rod of yours is longer than mine, but not so long as John's.—Those trees have lost their leaves.—Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them.

Keep this knife for my sake; it is a good one.—All men are mortal; time waits for no one; a wise man will improve every moment to some useful purpose.—An idle man will come to poverty; but he that is diligent increases his store.—They that walk with the wise shall be wise; but a companion of fools shall be destroyed.—Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee, turn not thou away.

Write other sentences containing the parts of speech above named, and parse them as directed.

1. Review thoroughly from Lesson 10, answering promptly and accurately all the questions.
2. Review from the beginning topically, reciting accurately all the definitions and rules. This may require two or three recitations. Write additional exercises under each lesson.

VERBS.

LESSON 16.—Verbs.

178. A Verb is a word or words used to express the act, being, or state of its subject; as, I write; grass is green; the letter has been written.

179. The subject of a verb is that person or thing whose act, being, or state the verb expresses.

Classification of Verbs.

180. 1. In relation to their meaning and office in a sentence: Verbs are of three kinds; Transitive, Intransitive, and Attributive.

2. In relation to their form verbs are Regular, Irregular, and Defective (191).

3. In the formation of Compound tenses they are distinguished as Principal and Auxiliary.—(236.) [Appendix IV, 5.]

Meaning and Use of Verbs.

181. A Transitive Verb expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, James strikes the table; The table is struck by James.

182. An Intransitive Verb expresses the being or state of its subject, or an act not done to another; as, I am; he sleeps; you run.

183. An Attributive Verb asserts and connects an attribute with its subject; as, "Snow is white."

Observations.

184. Transitive verbs are those which express an act that passes over from the actor to the person or thing acted upon; as, He loves us. Here, "He" is the actor, "loves" expresses the act, and us, the object loved, or acted upon. The same thing can be expressed by another form; thus, "We are loved by him."
Of these two forms of the verb, the first is called the active voice, and the second, the passive voice. (293.)

185. Intransitive verbs are verbs not transitive, whether they express action or not. They may form of themselves a complete predicate (330); and they have only one form, namely, that of the active voice: as, I am; I walk; they run.

186. Attributive verbs require to complete the predicate some word or words expressing a quality or circumstances of the subject.

187. Sometimes a verb, usually intransitive, becomes transitive by being followed by a noun of a similar signification: as, intransitive, "I run;" transitive, "I run a race." Also by the addition of another word: as, intransitive, "I laugh;" transitive, "I laugh at him."

188. A transitive verb is sometimes used in an intransitive sense, when the nature of the act and not its effect is considered: thus, transitive, "The boy reads a book;" intransitive, "The boy reads well."

189. Transitive, intransitive, and attributive verbs may be distinguished by the sense, as follows:

1st. A transitive verb in the active voice (295) requires an object after it to complete the sense: as, The boy studies grammar; in the passive voice the person or thing that receives the act becomes the subject. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it: as, The sun is bright.

2d. In the use of the transitive verb, there are always three things implied: the actor, the act, and the object acted upon. In the use of the intransitive, there are only two—the subject or thing spoken of, and the state or action ascribed to it. In the use of the attributive verbs, there are three—the subject, the verb, and the attribute.

190. Illustration.—The verb is a necessary word in every sentence (340). Without it, we can neither assert nor express any fact or proposition. As we wish to express an act, or state in a variety of ways; as, present, past, future, actual, contingent, conditional, etc., so there is a variety of forms assumed by the verb in order to express these things. Two important things must be attended to:

1. Distinguish the verb from every other part of speech. This can easily be done, if the pupil will only remember that every word that tells us what a person or thing is, or what is done to a person or thing, is a verb. Thus, when we say, "John writes," we know that "writes" is a verb, because it tells us what "John" does.

2. Distinguish when a verb is transitive, when intransitive, and when attributive, as described above (189).

Questions.—What is a verb? What is the subject of a verb? How are verbs divided, in relation to their manner and use?—to relation to their form?—In the formation of compound sentences, what is a transitive verb?—an intransitive?—an attributive? What do transitive verbs express?—intransitive?—attributive? How many forms can a transitive verb express? What are the forms called? How many forms have intransitive verbs? Does a verb usually intransitive ever become transitive? How? Are some verbs used transitively and intransitively? What requires no object after it to complete the sense? What does an attributive verb require after it to complete the sense? In the use of the transitive, what three things are implied? In the use of the intransitive verb? What in the use of the attributive verb?

Exercises.

[1. In the following Exercises, point out the verbs, and tell how you know them to be verbs; thus, "learn" is a verb, because it tells us what "boy" do; "rides" is a verb, because it tells us what "a man" does, etc.]

2. Tell which verbs are transitive, which intransitive, and which attributive, and how you know them to be such; thus, "learn," is transitive, because it tells us what "boy" do to objects; "rides" is intransitive, because what "a man" does is not done to any other person or thing; "tastes" is attributive, because it tells us the attributive of a quality, "taste," of the subject "apple."]

Boys learn lessons.—A man rides.—The apple tastes sour.

We read a book.—My dog barks.—The fire burns.

The fire burns me.—He took their apples.—You saw them.

We touched it.—They strike her.—I threw a stone at his window.—They killed my rabbit.—The horses eat their corn.—The cows drink water.—I can ride well.—A ride
improves the health.—That man walks fast.—America was discovered by Columbus.—A long walk tires me.—I love her and you.—Sheep are animals.

[In the following sentences, it takes two, and sometimes three words to make the verb; and these two or three are always parsed together as one word.]

I will water the garden.—James can write a letter.—You may ride on my horse.—Robert will give a book to you.—Yes, he will give you a book.—You must light the candle.—Your father has sold his horse.—I have bought him.—John will brush your coat.—He should have brushed it before.—James will have written his letter before night.—He may have written it already.—He should be told of his mistake.—He may have been misinformed.

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LESSON 17.—Forms of Verbs.

[Review thoroughly the preceding lesson.]

191. In respect of form, verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

192. A Regular Verb is one that forms its Past tense (293) in the Indicative mood (215), active voice (295), and its Past participle (251) by adding ed to the Present; as, Present, act; Past, acted; Past participle, acted.

N.B.—Verbs ending in a silent e before ed; as lose, loved.1 The pronunciation of some forms of several regular verbs is different from the written form; thus, stop, stopped, is pronounced stop; ban, banned, bade; walk, walked, went, etc.

193. An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its Past tense in the Indicative active, and its Past participle by adding ed to the Present; as, Present, write; Past wrote; Past participle, written (288).

A. & T. Gr.—60.

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194. A Defective Verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly Auxiliary and Impersonal verbs (390).

Auxiliary Verbs.

195. The Auxiliary or helping verbs are those by the help of which verbs are inflected. They are the following, which, except be, are used as auxiliaries only in the present and the past tense; viz.:

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, an, must
Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was, —

196. The verb to be is used as an auxiliary in all its tenses.

197. Be (Pres. Ind. am, do, and have) are also principal verbs:

As Principals—I am a man; I do the work; I have a horse.

As Auxiliaries—I am loved; I do speak; I have heard.

Observations.

198. The auxiliary (or helping) verbs are so called, because, by their help, the verb is enabled to express varieties of time and manner of acting or being, which it could not do without them. The auxiliary always stands before its verb, and the two are regarded in parsing as one word; as, I will write, he has written, we may write.1

199. Of the auxiliaries, shall implies duty or obligation; will, purpose or resolution; may, liberty; can, ability. The past tense of these verbs is should, would, might, could; but in this tense these verbs express the idea of time very indifferently.2

200. In affirmative sentences, will, in the first person, intimates resolution and promising; as, “I will go;” in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, “Thou shalt not steal.”

201. Shall, in the first person, only foretells: as, “I shall go to-morrow;” in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, “Thou shalt not steal.”

QUESTIONS.—How are verbs divided in respect of form? What is a regular verb? an irregular verb? a defective verb? What are the
principal defective verbs? Why are auxiliary verbs so called? What verbs are principal verbs as well as auxiliary? How are the auxiliaries shall and will distinguished?

EXERCISES.

[Write the Past tense, and Past Participle of the following regular verbs as in the preceding Exercise No. 9.]

Pent, love, look, hope, show, learn, move, wash, clean, walk, desire, return, oblige, form, force, punish, support, turn, touch, disturb, place, try, deny, cry, delay.

[2. Change the following verbs from the Past tense into the Present?]

Marked, protected, composed, favored, turned, hated, mixed, believed, wounded, rushed, preached, hunted, crushed, warned, pleased, loved, ended.

[3. In the following list, tell which verbs are regular, and which are irregular; and why?]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spoil</td>
<td>spoiled</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go</td>
<td>went</td>
<td>gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write</td>
<td>wrote</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>hoped</td>
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<tr>
<td>Run</td>
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<tr>
<td>Freeze</td>
<td>froze</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spy</td>
<td>spit</td>
<td>spit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obey</td>
<td>obeyed</td>
<td>obeyed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LESSON 18.—Inflection of Verbs.

(Review the two preceding Lessons.)

202. The Accidents of Verbs are Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons (33).

203. Voice is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the subject, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

204. Transitive verbs have two voices, called the Active and the Passive.

205. The Active Voice represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some object; as, James strikes the table.

206. Here the verb “strikes,” in the active voice, indicates what the subject, “James,” does to the object, table.

207. The Passive Voice represents the subject of the verb as acted upon by some person or thing; as, The table is struck by James (287).

208. Here the verb “is struck,” in the passive voice, indicates what is done to the subject, “table,” by James.

209. Intransitive verbs have the form of the active voice. A few admit a passive form, but not a passive sense; thus, I am come, means the same thing as, I have come.

210. When a verb, usually intransitive, is made transitive (187), it is then capable of a passive voice; as, “My race is run.” “He is laughed at by me.”

211. Illustration.—Both the active and the passive voice express precisely the same act, but each in a different way. With the active voice, the subject does the act, or is active; with the passive voice, the subject is acted upon, or is passive. The words active and passive then strictly belong to the subject, but are properly used to distinguish those voices or forms of the verb which show that the subject acts, or is acted upon; that is, the form of the verb which represents its subject as active, is called the Active voice; and which represents its subject as passive, is called the Passive voice.

212. Remembering, then, that the subject of a verb is the person or thing spoken of, when, in any sentence, we see that that subject acts, we know that the verb is in the active voice; thus, when we say, “Cain killed Abel,” we see that “Cain,” the person spoken of, is represented as acting, and therefore “killed” is in the active voice. Again, when we say, “Abel was killed by Cain,” the subject or thing spoken of is Abel; it is represented as acted upon, and therefore “was killed” is in the passive voice.
Moods.

NOTE.—Notwithstanding the same act may be expressed by the active and the passive voice, the writer or speaker makes choice of the one or the other, according as he wishes to give prominence to the actor, the act, or the person or thing affected by the act (see Analysis 5.68).

QUESTIONS.—What belongs to the inflection of verbs? What is meant by voice? How many voices has the transitive verb in English? What are they? How does the active voice represent its subject? How does the passive voice represent it? What voice have intransitive verbs? Have they ever a passive form? Have they ever a passive sense? When intransitive verbs are made transitive, can they be used in the passive voice?

EXERCISES.

[In each of the following sentences, the pupil may be questioned, as on the first, in the following manner: Who is the person spoken of in this sentence?—Ans.—John.—What is said of John?—Ans.—He studies.—Does the word studies represent John as acting, or as acted upon?—Ans.—As acting.—In what voice then is "studies"?—Ans.—Active voice.—Change the sentence so as to make "studies" the thing spoken of, and express the same meaning.—Ans.—"Grammar is studied by John."—Analyze this sentence in the same way as the other.]

John studies grammar.—Cain slew Abel.—Noah built the ark.—The temple was built by Solomon.—Columbus discovered America.—Pride ruin thousands.—Most men are governed by custom.—I have written a letter.—Them that honor me, I will honor.—Perseverance overcomes all obstacles.

LESSON 19.—Moods.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

213. Mood is the mode or manner of expressing the signification of the verb.

214. Verbs have six moods; namely, the Indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, Imperative, Infinitive, and Participle.

215. The Indicative mood declares the fact expressed by the verb simply, and without limitation; as, He loves; He is loved.

216. The Potential mood declares, not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its possibility; or the liberty, power, will, or obligation, of the subject with respect to it; as,

The wind may blow; We may walk or ride; I can swim; He would not stay; You should obey your parents.

Both the indicative and potential moods may be used in interrogative sentences. Have you written? May I go?

217. The Subjunctive mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as conditional, desirable, or contingent; as,

"If he go away I will go with him."—"O that men were wise!"

NOTE.—This mood is subjoined to another verb, and dependent on it.

218. The Imperative mood commands, entreats, or permits; as,

Do this; Remember thy Creator; Hear, O my people; Go thy way.

219. The Infinitive mood expresses the meaning of the verb in a general manner, without any distinction of person or number, and commonly has to before it; as, To love.

* * * For the uses of the infinitive see 492-500.

220. The Participle mood is used to assume action or state of some subject: 1. As continuing or incomplete; as, "I saw him running." 2. As complete or finished; as, "We saw his ruined."

The participle is always used in the same sentence with another verb, and can not be used alone.

Observations.

221. The form of the subjunctive mood differs from that of the indicative only, in the second and the third persons singular of the present tense. The verb "to be" differs also in the past tense.
222. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, etc., the language of address is always used; thus, “Let him love,” is equivalent to “Let them him (to) love;” where Let is the proper imperative, and love the infinitive depending on it. (§ 494).

223. The infinitive mood is often used as a verbal noun as the subject of another verb; as, To play is pleasant; or as the object of a transitive verb; as, “Boys love to play.” It has always a subject of its own expressed or implied, but its use is sometimes so general that it is unimportant to ascertain its subject, or impossible to designate any particular person or thing as such.

* * * The use of the infinitive as a verbal noun does not deprive it of any attribute as a verb; for, if transitive, it may be followed by an object; as, To forgive injuries is a duty. Strictly speaking, it is the infinitive clause which is used as a substantive, and not the verb alone. (See Analysis, 116.)

224. A participle always has a subject expressed or understood, to which it relates.

225. Illustration.—If we regard the mode or manner in which an action presents itself to our minds, we may consider it either as an actual reality, or as a possibility, or as a contingency, or as a command, or as a general and indefinite, or as merely assuming an act of some subject. The expression of these different circumstances gives rise to what are called moods. Thus we may say, he goes, or he may go, or if he go, or go, or going. These six forms of expression indicate the six moods as given above.

Questions.—What is mood? How many moods are there? What does the Indicative mood declare?—the Potential? What does the subjunctive mood represent? What does the imperative mood do? What does the infinitive mood express? How is the Participial mood used? In what parts does the subjunctive differ from the Indicative? How many persons has the imperative mood? What is a frequent use of the infinitive mood?

Ans.—156, 1. * 155, 2, 3.

LESSON 20—Tenses.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

226. Tenses are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

227. Time is naturally divided into Present, Past, and Future; and an action may be represented, in any of these periods, either as incomplete and continuing, or as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs; thus,

Present. { Action continuing; as, I love, I do love, I am loving.
{ Action completed; as, I have loved.
Past. { Action continuing; as, I loved, I did love, I was loving.
{ Action completed; as, I had loved.
Future. { Action continuing; as, I shall or will love.
{ Action completed; as, I shall have loved.

Note.—The time of the action expressed by a verb, may be further distinguished by an adverb; as, “He came yesterday;” “He will come soon.”

228. The tenses in English are six; namely, the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, the Past-perfect, the Future, and the Future-perfect.

Tenses of the Indicative Mood.

229. The Indicative mood has all the six tenses; they are used as follows:

230. The Present tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, I love you. I am loved.

231. The Present-perfect tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time; or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, “John has cut his finger.” “I have sold my horse.” “I have done nothing this week.”
LESSON 21.—Tenses of the Other Moods.

237. The Potential mood has four tenses; the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, and the Past-perfect.

238. The tenses in this mood indicate the time, not of the act expressed by the verb, but of the liberty, power, will, or obligation, expressed by the auxiliary, or sign of the tense; thus, "I may write," does not express the act of writing as present, but only the liberty to write, expressed by the auxiliary may.

239. Hence the time expressed by the verb in this mood is less definite, and depends not so much on the tense as on other words with which it stands connected. This is the case especially with the Past tense.

240. The Subjunctive mood in its proper form, has only the present tense. The verb to be has the present and the past.

The indicative and potential moods are also used in dependent clauses. (484)

241. The Imperative mood may always be regarded as present; i.e. the command, etc., is present, though the doing of the act commanded is future.

242. The Infinitive mood has two tenses; the Present and the Perfect.

243. These do not so much indicate the time of the action as its state—the present, incomplete or indefinite; the perfect, completed or finished at the time indicated by the principal verb or some other word with which it is connected.

244. The Participle mood has three tenses; the Present, the Past, and the Perfect; as, Active, Loving, loved, having loved. Passive, Being loved, loved, having been loved.

245. Since the Participial mood does not affirm, but only assumes an action or state of its subject, it partakes of the character of the adjective, and limits or qualifies the subject to which it refers.

Observations on the Tenses.

246. The Present tense is used to express, 1st—the simple existence of the fact; as, "He speaks." 2d—what is habitual or always true; as, "He takes snuff." 3d—in historical narration; it is used for the past; as, "Cesar leaves Gaul," or "Cesar left Gaul."

247. The Present-perfect is used, 1st—to express what has taken place at the present time, or in a period of time of which the present forms a part; as, "My father has arrived." 2d—to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to, and including the present; as,
248. The time indicated by the Past tense is regarded as entirely past, however near; as, "I saw him a moment ago." It is also used to express what was customary in past time; as, "She attended church regularly."

249. The Past tenses of the Potential, and the Subjunctive mood, are less definite in regard to time, than the same tenses in the Indicative.

250. The Present Participle active ends always in ing, and has an active signification; as, James is building a house. In many verbs, however, it has also a passive signification; as, The house was building, when the wall fell.

251. The Past Participle has the same form in both voices. In the active voice, its signification is active, and it is never used except in connection with the auxiliary have or had; as, He has concealed a dagger under his cloak. In the passive voice, its signification is passive; as, He has a dagger concealed under his cloak.

*Teacher illustrates this difference fully.

252. The Perfect Participle is always compound, and has an active signification in the active voice, and a passive signification in the passive voice.

253. The participle in -ing is often used as a verbal or participial noun, having the nominative and the objective case, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb, or it may be divested of it by inserting an article before it, and the preposition after it; as, In keeping his commandments, or, In the keeping of his commandments, there is a great reward.

254. Some participles, lying aside the idea of time, and simply qualifying a noun, become participial adjectives, and as such admit of comparison; as, An amusing—a more amusing—a most amusing story. A most devoted friend.

LESSON 22.—Number and Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

255. A participle may take a prefix and become a verbal adjective; as, "Unauthorized use of his credit."

QUESTIONS.—What are tenses? How is time naturally divided? In each of these, how may an action or state be represented? How many tenses are there in the English verb? How many has the indicative mood? The Past—the Future? What does the Future-perfect tense represent?—the Past-perfect? What does the Present-perfect tense represent?—the Present? In what different ways is the present measured?—the Past? Has the participle in ing ever a passive signification? Give an example. How is the perfect participle used? Describe the change in its signification.

256. Every tense of the verb, except in the Infinitive and Participle moods, has two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural; and each of these has three Persons, except in the Imperative, which has only the Second.*

257. The singular number is used with a subject in the singular, and the plural number with a subject in the plural (#46).

258. The First person asserts of the person speaking; its subject is always I in the singular, and we in the plural; as, I write; we write.

259. The Second person asserts of the person spoken to; its subject is always thou in the singular, and ye or you in the plural; as, Thou writest; ye or you write.

*Strictly speaking the verb itself has neither number nor person, but certain forms to correspond with the number and person of the subject.
260. In the second person the **plural form** is generally used for the singular; as, John, you are idle.

261. The **third person** asserts of the person or thing spoken of; its subject is any noun, or the pronoun he, she, it, or they, or any substantive clause used as a noun; as, John reads; he walks; they run; That I said so, is most true; To succeed in business requires close attention.

**Observations.**

262. The **forms** of the verb in the first, second, and third persons **plural**, are always *like* the first person singular.

263. The **second** person singular of the present indicative active, ends in st or est; as, thou livest; thou readest. — Of the past, generally in st; as, thou lovedst. All the other persons in both numbers in these tenses are alike.

264. Verbs that end in s, sh, ch, z, x, or o, form the third person singular of the present indicative active, by adding es; (65) as, He teaches. All others add s; as, he loves, — reads. (See 274.)

265. An **ancient form**, now little used, except in solemn address, has the ending eth in the **third person** singular; as, teacheth, readeth, doeth, saith; as, “All that a man hath will he give for his life.”

266. Verbs ending in y with a consonant before it, change y into i before the terminations es, ed, ed; but not before ing; as, try, trist, lives, triest, tried, trying. Verbs ending in a silent preceded by i change i into y before ing; as, lie, lyeth.

267. The **infinitive mood**, or any substantive clause, sometimes expresses that of which a person speaks, and is therefore the **subject** of the verb. When it does so it is always regarded as the third person, and a pronoun standing instead of it is in the neuter gender; as, To play is pleasant; it promotes health.
269. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms; the Common; as, I read; and the Progressive; as, I am reading (285).

270. Besides these, in the present and the past indicative active, there is a third form called the emphatic; as, I did read. The other tenses, and also the progressive and the passive form, are rendered emphatic by placing a greater stress of voice on the first auxiliary; as, I have read—I am reading.

271. The principal parts of the verb are the Present Tense Indicative, the Present Participle, the Past Tense Indicative, and Past Participle. In parsing, the mentioning of these parts is called conjugating the verb.

ACTIVE, Love, Loving, Loved. 
PASSIVE, Am loved, Being loved, Was loved, Been loved.

272. A synopsis of a verb consists of the first person singular of each tense in the finite moods, and the forms of the several tenses of the infinitive and participial moods.

The Verb TO BE.

273. The attributive irregular verb To Be is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

Principal Parts. 
Present, am. Present Part., being. Past, was. Past Part., been.

Indicative Mood.
PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. Plural.
1. I am. 1. We are.
2. Thou art. 2. You are.
3. He is. 3. They are.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.
1. I have been. 1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been. 2. You have been.
3. He has been. 3. They have been.

THE VERB TO BE.
THE VERB TO BE.

PAST TENSE.
Singular.
1. I might be.
2. Thou mightst be.
3. He might be.

Plural.
1. We might be.
2. You might be.
3. They might be.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.
Singular.
1. I might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.
3. He might have been.

Plural.
1. We might have been.
2. You might have been.
3. They might have been.

Subjunctive Mood.*

PRESENT TENSE.
Singular.
1. If I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.
1. If we be.
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.
Singular.
1. If I were.
2. If thou were.
3. If he were.

Plural.
1. If we were.
2. If you were.
3. If they were.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.
1. Be, or be thou.

Plural.
2. Be, or be ye or you.

Infinitive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE. PERFECT TENSE.
To be.
To have been.

Participial Mood. (Or PARTICIPLEs.)

PRESENT, BEING. PAST, BEEN. PERFECT, HAVING BEEN.

* Both the indicative and the potential mood are used in dependent clauses to express contingency, with a conjunction prefixed; thus, *If I am, if I have been, if I were, if I should or would be, if I shall have been, if I may be, etc.*
THE VERB TO LOVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.
Principal Parts.
Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.*

Singular. 
1. I love.
2. Thou hast loved.
3. He has loved (or loveth).

Plural.
1. We love.
2. You have loved.
3. They have loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, have.
1. I have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.
3. He has loved.

PAST TENSE.†

1. I loved.
2. Thou lovedst.
3. He loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, had.
1. I had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.
3. He had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will.—Inflect with each.
1. I shall love.
2. Thou shalt love.
3. He shall love.

* PRESENT TENSE. (Emphatic form.)
1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does or doth love.

† PAST TENSE. (Emphatic form.)
1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have.—Inflect with each.
1. I shall have loved.
2. Thou shalt have loved.
3. He shall have loved.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, may, can, must.—Inflect with each.
1. I may love.
2. Thou mayst love.
3. He may love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, may have, can have,* must have.—Inflect with each.
1. I may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.
3. He may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.
1. I might love.
2. Thou mightst love.
3. He might love.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.—Inflect with each.
1. I might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.
3. He might have loved.

* Can have is not used in affirmative sentences.
THE VERB TO LOVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.*

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. Plural.
1. If I love. 1. If we love.
2. If thou love. 2. If you love.
3. If he love. 3. If they love.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Plural.
Common form. 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you.
Emphatic form. 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ye or you love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To love. PERFECT, to have loved.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD, (OR PARTICIPLES.)

PRESENT, Loving. PAST, Loved. PERFECT, Having loved.

PARSING.

275. A verb is parsed by stating its kind (i.e., whether transitive, intransitive, or attributive); its form, (whether regular or irregular); conjugating it, and telling in what tense, mood, voice, number, and person, it is found; also its subject; thus,

"He loves me." Love is a verb, transitive, regular; love, loving, loved, loving; found in the present, indicative, active; third person, singular; and all parts of its subject, he.

N.B.—It is important in parsing to state every thing belonging to a word in so few words as possible, and always in the same order.

* The present subjunctive or elliptical form, is used when both contingency and futurity are implied; the indicative is used when contingency only, and no futurity is implied. In parsing, the latter may be called "the indicative used subjunctively," being the indicative mood in form, and restricted subjunctive only by the conjunction prefixed. This is true also of the other tenses in this mood.

The emphatic forms of the present subjunctive are, If I do love, if thou do love, if he do love, etc.; of the past, If I did love, if thou didst love, etc., as in the indicative.

EXERCISES ON THE VERB.

QUESTIONS.—What is the conjugation of a verb? How is a verb conjugated? Conjugate the verb love in the active voice. Say the indicative-present—past—future—the present-perfect—the past-perfect—future-perfect. Say the first person singular in each tense—the second—the third—the first person plural—the second—the third. The emphatic form, in the present—in the past. What are the signs (or auxiliaries) of the present-perfect!—the past-perfect!—the future!—the future-perfect!—the subjunctive present? etc. What is the sign of the indicative? Name the participles.

EXERCISE I.

1. Go over the following Exercise, and tell the tense, mood, and voice of each verb; thus, "He loves," present, indicative, active.
2. Go over it again, and tell the person and number; thus, he, third person, singular.
3. Go over it again, and join these together; and so tell the tense, mood, voice, number, and person; and always in this order; as, loves, present, indicative, active, third person, singular.
4. Before beginning this Exercise, let the pupil go back and review thoroughly Lesson 18, and the exercises on it; then

EXERCISE II.

In the imperative, omit the tense, and say thus, love love, imperative, active, second person, singular.
In the subjunctive, omit the person and number, and say thus, to love; present, infinitive, active.
In the participle, name only the tense and voice; thus, loving; present participle, active.
EXERCISES ON THE VERB.

1. Tell which words are verbs, and why; and whether transitive, intransitive, or attritive, and why.

2. Tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number, as in the preceding Exercise.

3. Go over it again, and parse each verb by putting all these together; thus, loves, is a verb, transitive, regular, in the present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

He loves us, I will love him.—Good boys will study their lessons.—Children love play.—The dog killed my rabbit.—James has written a letter.—Cows eat hay.—A fire warms the room.—Bring some wood.—! Girls may write letters.—Your sister can sing.—He would like to hear a song.—Give that book to me.—I will give this book to you.—Lend me your pen.—Children should obey their parents; they should love God.—Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it.—All men must die.—Time waits for no man.—Do good to all men.—John will mend my pen; I will thank him.—You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson.—Tell Henry to shut the door.—Snow is white.—The apple tastes sweet.—Washington was a wise and just man.

"And he opened his mouth, and taught them, saying, Blessed are the poor in spirit: for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.—Blessed are the meek: for they shall inherit the earth.—Blessed are they that mourn: for they shall be comforted.—Good boys will study their lessons: they should love God.—Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it.—All men must die.—Time waits for no man.—Do good to all men.—John will mend my pen; I will thank him.—You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson.—Tell Henry to shut the door.—Snow is white.—The apple tastes sweet.—Washington was a wise and just man.

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EXERCISE III

1. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

276. A verb in the active voice tells what some person or thing does. That person or thing then is its subject, and, in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, and imperative moods, is always in the nominative case; thus, in the first sentence of the preceding Exercise, the word "loves," tells what "he" does; he, therefore, is its subject, and is in the nominative case.

[Point out the verb in each sentence of the preceding Exercise; tell what word is its subject, and why! What case is the subject in?]

2. THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

277. A transitive verb in the active voice tells what its subject does to some person or thing. That person or thing is the object of the verb, and is in the objective case. Thus, in the above sentence, "He loves us," "loves" is a transitive verb, and tells what its subject, he, does to us. Us, then, is its object, and is in the objective case.

The subject is usually before the verb; the objective case generally follows it.

EXERCISE IV.

PARSING.

[Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order;—the nouns as directed, (68); the adjectives as directed, (127); the pronouns as directed, (147); and the verbs as directed, (276).]

LESSON 25.—Negative Form.

278. The verb is made to deny by placing the word not after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest not:" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do not love." When two auxiliaries are used, not is placed between them; as, I would not have loved.

279. In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first; as, Not to love; not loving.

280. The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and the past tense, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the negative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. 1. I do not love. 2. Thou dost not love, etc.
Past. Perf. 1. I have not loved. 2. Thou hast not loved, etc.
Past. 1. I did not love. 2. Thou didst not love, etc.
Future. 1. I will not love. 2. Thou wilt not love, etc.
Fut. Perf. 1. I shall not have loved. 2. Thou shalt not have loved, etc.
LESSON 26.—Interrogative Form.

281. The verb is made to ask a question by placing the subject after the simple form; as, Lovest thou ? and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, Do I love ? When there are two auxiliaries the subject is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved ?

282. The subjunctive, imperative, and infinitive moods, and the participles, can not have the interrogative forms.

283. The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRES. PERF. 1. I may not have 2. Thou mayst not have loved, etc.
PAST. 1. I might not love. 2. Thou mightst not love, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRES. 1. If I do not love. 2. If thou do not love, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Love not, or do not thou love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to love.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD.

Present. Not loving. (Past. Not loved.)

PERF. Not having loved.

EXERCISES.

1. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the negative form.
2. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the interrogative form, and write out the exercise.
3. Distinguish the different parts of speech, and parse them, as in the preceding Exercise, IV. (977.)

I love you.—You loved me.—James studies grammar.—Your father has come.—He will go soon.—The ship foundered at sea.—John would eat apples.—Apples will grow on this tree.—The horse will run a race.—The fox had caught the goose.—Rabbits eat clover.—Study overcomes most difficulties.—Labor promotes health.—Wealth makes the man.—
LESSON 27.—Progressive Form.

ACTIVE VOICE.

285. The **Progressive form** of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses, to the **present participle**; thus,

**Present.**
1. I am writing.
2. Thou art writing, etc.

**Pres. Perf.**
1. I have been writing.
2. Thou hast been writing, etc.

**Past.**
1. I was writing.
2. Thou wast writing, etc.

**Past Perf.**
1. I had been writing.
2. Thou hadst been writing, etc.

**Future.**
1. I shall be writing.
2. Thou shalt be writing, etc.

**Fut. Perf.**
1. I shall or will have been writing.
2. Thou shalt or will have been writing, etc.

[In this manner go through the other moods and tenses.]

286. **Note.** Verbs which, in the common form imply *continuance*, do not usually admit the progressive form; thus, "I am loving." (If proper) would mean nothing more than, "I love."

**EXERCISES.**

[Change the following verbs from the simple into the progressive form:]

He writes, they read, thou teachest, we have learned, he had written, they go, you will build, I ran, John has done it, we taught, he stands, he stood, they will stand, they may read, we can now, you should study, we might have read.

[Change the following, from the progressive into the simple form:]

We are writing, they were singing, they have been riding, we might be walking, I may have been sleeping, they are coming, thou art teaching, they have been eating, he has been moving, we have been defending, they had been running.

PASSIVE VOICE.

LESSON 28.—Passive Voice.

287. The **Passive Voice** is inflected by adding the **past participle** passive to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses; thus,

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Present Part.</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Part.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Singular.**
1. I am loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.
3. He has been loved.

**Plural.**
1. We are loved.
2. You have been loved.
3. They have been loved.

**Present-Perfect Tense.**

**Sign, have.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present-Perfect Tense</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have been loved.</td>
<td>1. We have been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hast been loved.</td>
<td>2. You have been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He has been loved.</td>
<td>3. They have been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Tense.**

1. I was loved.
2. Thou wast loved.
3. He was loved.

**Past-Perfect Tense.**

**Sign, had.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past-Perfect Tense</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I had been loved.</td>
<td>1. We had been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou hadst been loved.</td>
<td>2. You had been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He had been loved.</td>
<td>3. They had been loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The **past participle** is used by itself in a passive sense without an auxiliary. [See Appendix II.]
**Passive Voice.**

**Future Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall be loved</td>
<td>We shall be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou shalt be loved</td>
<td>You shall be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He shall be loved</td>
<td>They shall be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future-Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall have been loved</td>
<td>We shall have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou shalt have been loved</td>
<td>You shall have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He shall have been loved</td>
<td>They shall have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Potential Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may be loved</td>
<td>We may be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mayst be loved</td>
<td>You may be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He may be loved</td>
<td>They may be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present-Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I may have been loved</td>
<td>We may have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mayst have been loved</td>
<td>You may have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He may have been loved</td>
<td>They may have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I might be loved</td>
<td>We might be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mightst be loved</td>
<td>You might be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He might be loved</td>
<td>They might be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past-Perfect Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I might have been loved</td>
<td>We might have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou mightst have been loved</td>
<td>You might have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He might have been loved</td>
<td>They might have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Subjunctive Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If I be loved</td>
<td>If we be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If thou be loved</td>
<td>If you be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he be loved</td>
<td>If they be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If I were loved</td>
<td>If we were loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If thou were loved or were loved</td>
<td>If you were loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If he were loved</td>
<td>If they were loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be thou loved</td>
<td>Be ye or you loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perf.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To be loved</td>
<td>To have been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participial Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being loved</td>
<td>Loved</td>
<td>Having been loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Exercise I.**

On the Passive Voice.

1. Tell the tense, mood, person, and number of the following words in the passive voice; change them into the active form.
2. Go over the exercise again, and parse each word in order; thus, "They," is a pronoun of the third person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative plural, the subject of are loved; "are loved," is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, passive, third person, plural, because its subject, "they," is third person, plural.

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hast been loved; we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

*All the tenses of the indicative and potential are used in conditional clauses with a conjunction prefixed, to express present contingency; thus, If I am loved, If I have been loved, If I was loved, If I had been loved, If I shall or will be loved, If I shall have been loved, If I may be loved, etc.*
Passive Voice

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; if thou wert loved; though we be loved; though they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

[3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active progressive form.]

Exercise II

Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb.

[1. In the following Exercise, tell which words are articles—which are nouns—and why;—which are adjectives—and why;—which are pronouns—and why;—which are verbs—and why.

2. Point out the verbs; tell whether transitive or intransitive—and why;—active or passive—and why.

3. Go over again, and point out the nouns, and tell whether proper or common—and why;—singular or plural—and why;—their gender—and why.]

He has learned his lesson.—I loved him because he was good.
—A good man will forgive those who may have injured him.
—Love your enemies; do good to them that hate you.
Remember your Creator in the days of your youth.—We are commanded to love our neighbor as ourselves.—That book was printed in New York.—The winter has been cold, but the ground was covered with snow.—Columbus discovered America.
America was discovered by Columbus.—I have been studying grammar.—It is never too late to learn that which is good and useful.—Peter Parley has written some pleasing books.
Good boys love reading.—Study to understand what you read.
—A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is heaviness to his mother.

[4. Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order, as heretofore directed.]

*.* It will now be important to review thoroughly and repeatedly from Lesson 22, particularly Lessons 28, 29, and 30, with the Exercises under them. This will require several recitations. And while that is going on, the pupil may also go forward with Lesson 29, conjugating from memory the irregular verbs, in such portions daily as the teacher may direct.

[5. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following irregular verbs. Use all the forms here given.]

Irregular Verbs

Lesson 29.—Irregular Verbs.

288. Irregular Verbs are those that do not form their past tense and past participle by adding ed to the present; as, Am, was, been.

289. They may be conveniently divided into three classes:

1. Those which have only one form for the three parts given; viz.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bet</td>
<td>bet</td>
<td>bet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
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<td>Cast</td>
<td>cast</td>
<td>cost</td>
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<td>Cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
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<td>cut</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
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<td>Hurt</td>
<td>hurt</td>
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<td>Knit</td>
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<tr>
<td>Let</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
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<tr>
<td>Put</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quit</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rap</td>
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<td>rapt</td>
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<td>Read</td>
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<td>read</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rid</td>
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<td>rid</td>
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<tr>
<td>Set</td>
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<td>set</td>
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<td>Shed</td>
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<td>Shred</td>
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<td>Shut</td>
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<td>Silt</td>
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<td>silt</td>
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<td>Split</td>
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<td>split</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweat</td>
<td>sweat</td>
<td>sweat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrust</td>
<td>thrust</td>
<td>thrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wet</td>
<td>wet</td>
<td>wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What</td>
<td>what</td>
<td>what</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These verbs that are also conjugated regularly are marked with an r.

When two forms are given, the first is most used.
2. Those that have two forms for the parts given; viz.:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>beat</td>
<td>beaten, beat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bend</td>
<td>bend</td>
<td>bent r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bereave</td>
<td>bereft</td>
<td>bereft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech</td>
<td>besought</td>
<td>besought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beside</td>
<td>be-</td>
<td>be-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bless</td>
<td>bless</td>
<td>bless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>un-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bleed</td>
<td>bred</td>
<td>bred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breed</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Build   | built| re-
| Burn    | burnt| re-
| Buy     | bought| re-
| Catch   | caught| r            |
| Cling   | chung| chung          |
| Come    | come| be-
| Creep   | crept| be-
| Deal    | dealt| r            |
| Dig     | dug | r            |
| Dream   | dreamt| re-
| Dress   | dress| re-
| Dwell   | dwell| r            |
| Feed    | fed | r            |
| Feel    | felt| r            |
| Fight   | fought| r            |
| Find    | found| r            |
| Fee     | fled| r            |
| Fling   | flung| r            |
| Fold    | fold| r            |
| Girl    | girl| be-
| Grind   | ground| r            |
| Hang    | hung| r            |
| Have    | had | r            |
| Hear    | heard| r            |
| Hold    | held| be- with-
| Keep    | kept| re-
| Kneel   | knelt| r            |
| Lay     | laid| be-
| Lead    | led | mis-
| Learn   | leant| r            |
| Leap    | leapt| r            |
| Leave   | learnt| r            |
| Lie     | lied| r            |
| Light   | lit | r            |
| Lose    | lost| r            |
| Make    | made| r            |
| Meet    | meant| r            |
| Pass    | past| re-
| Pay     | paid| r            |
| Pen     | pent| re-
| Bend    | rent| r            |
| Ride    | rode| r            |
| Run     | run | r            |
| Say     | said| r            |
| Sack    | sought| r            |
| Sell    | sold| r            |
| Send    | sent| r            |
| Seek    | sought| r            |
| Sell    | sold| r            |
| Ship    | shod| r            |
| Shoot   | shot| r            |
| Sit     | sat | r            |
| Sleep   | slept| r            |
| Sling   | slung| r            |
| Sink    | sunk| r            |
| Smell   | smelt| r            |
| Speed   | sped| r            |
| Spell   | spell| r            |
| Spend   | spent| mis-
| Stave   | stand| with-
| Stay    | said| r            |
### Irregular Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stick</strong></td>
<td>stuck</td>
<td>stuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sing</strong></td>
<td>sung</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Swive</strong></td>
<td>struck</td>
<td>stricken, stricken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>String</strong></td>
<td>swung</td>
<td>swung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sweep</strong></td>
<td>swept</td>
<td>swept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Swing</strong></td>
<td>taught</td>
<td>taught</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teach mis</strong></td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tell</strong></td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Think be</strong></td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weep</strong></td>
<td>wept</td>
<td>wept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Win</strong></td>
<td>won</td>
<td>won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wind</strong></td>
<td>wound</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work</strong></td>
<td>wrought</td>
<td>wrought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wrang</strong></td>
<td>wrang</td>
<td>wrang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Examples

- **Irregular Verbs**
  - **Stick**: past participle is stuck
  - **Sing**: past participle is sung
  - **Swive**: past participle is struck
  - **String**: past participle is swung
  - **Sweep**: past participle is swept
  - **Swing**: past participle is taught
  - **Teach mis**: past participle is thought
  - **Tell**: past participle is thought
  - **Think be**: past participle is thought
  - **Weep**: past participle is wept
  - **Win**: past participle is won
  - **Wind**: past participle is wound
  - **Work**: past participle is wrought
  - **Wrang**: past participle is wrang

### Those which have Three Forms

- **Am**: was, been, been
- **Arose**: arose, arisen, arisen
- **Awake**: awoke, awaked, awaked
- **Bake**: baked, bake, baked
- **Bear, to bring forth**: bare, born, borne
- **Begun**: began, begun, begun
- **Bid**: bade, bid, bade
- **Bite**: bit, bited, bit
- **Blow**: blow, blown, blown
- **Break**: brake, broke, broken
- **Chide**: chide, chidden, chidden
- **Choose**: choose, chose, chose
- **Cleave, to adhere**: clave, cleaved, cleave
- **Cleave, to split**: cleave, cleaved, cleaved
- **Clothe**: clothed, clad, clad
- **Crow**: crew, crows, crows
- **Dare, to venture**: durst, dare, dared
- **Dive**: dove, dived, dived
- **Do mis- we**: did mis- un-, done mis- un-
- **Draw**: drank, druck, driven
- **Drink**: drank, druck, driven
- **Drive**: drove, drove, drove

### Additional Examples

- **Grave**: en-graved, en-graven, en-graven
- **Grow**: freighted, freighted, freighted
- **Heave**: hove, hoven, hoven
- **Hide**: hid, hidden, hidden
- **Know**: knew, known, known
- **Lade**: laden, laden, laden
- **Lie to lie down**: lain, lain, lain
- **Load**: loaded, loaded, loaded
- **Ring**: rung, rung, rung
- **Rise a**: rised, rised, rised
- **Rive**: rived, rived, rived
- **Saw**: sawed, saw, saw
- **Soothe**: soothed, soothed, soothed
- **Shake**: shaken, shaken, shaken
- **Shape mis**: shaped, shaped, shaped
- **Shave**: shaved, shaved, shaved
- **Sling**: slung, slung, slung
- **Smite**: smitten, smitten, smitten
- **Sink**: sunk, sunk, sunk
- **Slay**: slain, slain, slain
- **Slide**: slid, slid, slid
- **Sing**: sung, sung, sung
- **Sling**: slung, slung, slung
- **Smite**: smitten, smitten, smitten
LESSON 30.—Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

290. **Defective verbs** are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are *irregular*, and chiefly *auxiliary*. These are,—

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<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
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**Imperative**.—Beware.

291. **Impersonal verbs** are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular *subject*. They are preceded by the pronoun *it*, and are always in the third person singular; as, *it seems; it becomes*, etc.

QUESTIONS.—What are irregular verbs? Into how many classes may they be divided? What are they? Are any verbs both regular and irregular? Give an example. Since there is no list of regular verbs, how may we know what verbs are regular? Is *was* regular or irregular—and why?

**EXERCISE I.**

1. Name the present and past tenses, indicative mood, and the present and past participles of the following verbs; thus, Take, took, taken.

2. Write a short sentence on the slate or blackboard, with each verb, in the present tense—in the perfect tense—in the past tense—in any tense; thus, *We take breakfast early. John took his hat. I have taken his coat.*

Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, foresee, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, stay, slide, smile, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

3. In the sentences made as directed No. 2, tell which verbs are *transitive*, and which are *intransitive*—and why. Point out the *subject* in each sentence, that is, the person or thing spoken of, and parsed in the

DEFECTIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS. 75

nominate. Tell which nouns or pronouns are in the nominative—and why—in the objective—and why.

1. In each sentence, put the verb in the *emphatic form*—in the *progressive form*—in the *negative form*—in the *interrogative form*—in the *nominative-impersonal form*.

**EXERCISE II.**

1. In the following Exercise, point out which verbs are *regular*, and which are *irregular*—and why.

2. Write short sentences with each verb, as in the preceding Exercises, and do with each as there directed, in Nos. 2, 3, 4.

Love, hope, trust, weep, keep, brush, hunt, count, reckon, ask, sleep, eat, drink, spin, save, go, teach, wipe, and, draw, raise, water, know, wash, spoil.

3. Take the sentences containing *transitive* verbs, and express the same idea by the *passive form*; thus, suppose the sentence to be, *James loves praise,* passive form, *Praise is loved by James.*

4. Parse the sentences so changed.

LESSON 30.—Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

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Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, foresee, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, stay, slide, smile, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

3. In the sentences made as directed No. 2, tell which verbs are *transitive*, and which are *intransitive*—and why. Point out the *subject* in each sentence, that is, the person or thing spoken of, and parsed in the
Adverbs.

292. To this head may be referred such expressions as, it
hails, it snows, it rains, it thunders, it behooves, it irks; and
perhaps also, methinks, methought, me seems, me seemed, in which,
instead of it, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, me,
is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

Questions.-What is a defective verb? Are they regular or irregular?
What are they? What tenses do the most of them have? What
tenses have must? - ought? Is it proper to say "I had ought to read"?
Why? What is an impersonal verb? By what are they preceded?
Sometimes put before impersonal verbs?

Lessons.-Adverbs.

293. An Adverb is a word used to modify a
verb, an adjective, or another adverb, or to denote
some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks
distinctly: she is remarkably diligent, and reads very
correctly. [Appendix IV, 61.

294. Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according
to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,
1. Quality or Manner simply; as, well, ill, bravely, pru-

2. Place; as, here, there, where; either, thither; hence.
3. Time; as, now, then, when; soon, often, seldom; ever.
4. Direction; as, upward, downward, backward, forward.
5. Affirmation; as, surely, truly, undoubtedly, yes, yes.
6. Negation; as, may, no, not, nowhere, never.
7. Interrogation; as, how, why, when, wherefore.
8. Comparison; as, more, most; less, least; as, so, thus.
9. Quantity; as, much, little, enough, sufficiently
10. Order; as, first, secondly, thirdly.
11. Uncertainty; as, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.
12. Conjunctive Adverbs; as, when, where, how, while.

Adverbs.

Observations.

295. The chief use of adverbs is to shorten discourse, by
expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or
more; as, here, for "in this place;" nobly, "in a noble manner.

296. Some adverbs admit of comparison, like adjectives;
as, soon, sooner, soonest; nobly, more nobly, most nobly. A few
are compared irregularly; as, well, better, best; badly, or ill,

297. Some words become adverbs by prefixing a, which sig-
ifies at, or on; as abed, ashore, aboard, afloat, apart.

298. In comparison, the antecedents as and so are usually
reckoned adverbs; the corresponding as and so are adverbs also;
thus, It is as high as Heaven.

299. Circumstances of time, place, manner, etc., are often
expressed by two or more words constituting an adverbial
phrase; as, in short, in fine, in general, at most, at
length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and
by, to and fro, which may be parsed together as adverbs, or by
supplying the ellipsis; thus, in a short space; in a general way.

300. A Conjunctive Adverb is one that modifies two
different words, and connects the clauses to which they belong;
as, "I will see you when you come." He is happy where he is.

301. There, commonly an adverb of place, is often used as
an introductory expletive to the verbs to be, to come, to appear,
etc.; as, "There is no chance." There are five boys here."

Parsing.

302. An adverb is parsed by stating its class, and
the word which it modifies; thus,
"Ann speaks distinctly." Distinctly is an adverb of manner,
and modifies "speaks."

Questions.-What is an adverb? In the sentence, "Ann speaks
distinctly," which is the adverb? Why? Into how many classes are
adverbs commonly divided? None the three—the second three—the
next three—the last three. How are adverbs formed from adjectives?
What is the chief use of adverbs? How are adverbs compared like
adjectives? Give an example. Are any compared irregularly? Give

A. & Y. Gr. 334.
an example. What is an adverbial phrase? Give examples. How are such phrases to be parsed? For what do conjunctive adverbs stand? How is there used? How are adverbs parsed?

EXERCISE I.
1. In the following list of adverbs, point out the class to which each belongs.
2. Compare those that admit of comparison.
3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the adverbs in the following list, and parse the sentences.

Here, there, softly, boldly, wisely, seldom, yesterday, how, more, little, secondly, enough, perhaps, yes, no, truly, not, already, hence, whence, better, wisely, somewhere.

EXERCISE II.
1. In the following sentences, tell what words are articles—what words are nouns, and why—adjectives, and why—pronouns, and why—verbs, and why—whether transitive or intransitive, and why—regular or irregular, and why.
2. Which words are adverbs?—why? What do they modify? Parse.

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps buy some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter. She sang sweetly. Cats soon learn to catch mice. Mary rose up hastily.

They that have enough may soundly sleep. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much.

LESSON 32.—Prepositions.

303. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun following it and some other word in the sentence; as,
"The book is upon the table." "The book is under the table." "They speak concerning virtue." [APPENDIX IV, 7.]

304. In these sentences, the prepositions, "upon" and "under," show the relation between "table" and "book;" and "concerning" shows the relation between "virtue" and "speak."
2. The antecedent term is always limited by the prepositional phrase, which is in character, adjective or adverbial, according as the antecedent is a substantive or some other word; as, He walks with great rapidity. It is a work of much merit. There was another large of understanding.

Note.—For a fuller discussion of prepositions, their uses and classification, see A. & P. Gr. 533–554.

PARSING.

310. The preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech it is, and the words between which it shows the relation; thus,

"Before honor is humility." "Before" is a preposition, and shows the relation between "honor" and "humility."

QUESTIONS.—What is a preposition? In what case is the noun or pronoun after a preposition? When an objective does not follow a preposition, what part of speech is it to be considered? What is the related word before the preposition called—the one after it?

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out the prepositions in the following exercises.

2. Point out the noun or pronoun after the preposition, and the word to which it is related; thus, "I went from Albany to New York." The preposition from, stands before Albany, and shows its relation to the verb, "went." So, also, to stands before New York, and shows its relation to "went."]

I went from London to Bath.—The king walked about the garden with his son.—They dined without me—I fell off a ship into the river near (to) the bridge.—This box of wafers is for you.—Charles put it upon the table against the in-stand.—Turn down the lane through the gate.—I shall go up the road after him.—Run to that tree near the house.—It stands between the trees.—Put it on the table at the side of the house.—I found the knife among the ashes under the grate.—Sit by me.—John is at school.—They all went except me.

[3. Parse the words in preceding Exercises.]

A. Æ P. Gr.—506, 2.

CONJUNCTIONS.

LESSON 33.—Conjunctions.

311. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as,

"You and I must study; but he may go and play." "Two and two make four."

* Conjunctions sometimes begin sentences; for example, see the first chapter of Genesis.

312. Conjunctions are of two classes: Copulative and Disjunctive. [Appendix IV, §.]

313. A copulative conjunction unites the meaning of the terms which it connects. There are two kinds—

1. Connective, which simply connects the meaning of two united sentences; as, "The sun shines, and the day is warm."

2. Continuative, which add on a limiting clause, and extend the sense of the principal; as, "We will go, when my brother arrives."

Note.—The latter generally introduce and connect a subordinate clause, which limits the principal clause, or some part thereof.

314. A disjunctive conjunction is one which, while it joins two sentences together, disconnects their meaning. There are two kinds of disjunctives—

1. Distributive, which simply disconnect, or distribute, the meaning of the united sentences; as, "You may go, or you may stay."

2. Adversative, which contrast the meaning of united sentences; as, "He will go, but I will stay."

A List of Conjunctions.

Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore, although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.

315. One. The copulative conjunctions connect things that
CONJUNCTIONS.

are to be taken together; as, "You and I (i.e. both of us) must go." The disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest; as, "You or I (i.e. the one or the other, but not both) must go."

Note.—When conjunctions connect sentences, they do not connect individual words in the sentence. When they connect words, the words connected must be of the same class, if nouns, of the same case; if verbs, same mood and tense, and with the same subject; if adjectives or adverbs, they must limit the same word.

PARSING.

316. Conjunctions are parsed by stating to what class they belong, and the words, phrases, or sentences which they join together; thus,

"You and I must study." And is a conjunction, copulative, connective, and connects You and I.

QUESTIONS.—What is a conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What are the copulative? How many classes? Define each, and give an example. The disjunctive? How are they distinguished? Give an example of each. How do these two classes differ? How are conjunctions parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the conjunctions in the following Exercise, the class to which each belongs, and the words or sentences which they connect.

Henry and Charles read their lessons. --! or he will be there. --I will be with you, unless you call. --I slept well, though the dog barked. --Read that you may learn. --John says that he will do it. --As he writes, so do I read; for I am fond of reading. --Neither the boys nor the girls are asleep. --I would call if I could, but I can not. --Take care lest you fall. --Two and two make four. --He is better than I thought he was, though he behaved ill. --Since that has happened, I must go. --Do to others as you would that they should do to you. --I study that I may improve. --When the sky falls, we shall catch larks. --If we study, we shall learn. --Not only the men, but also the women were present.

A. & P. Gr. — 573, 955.

LESSON 34.—Interjections.

317. An Interjection is a word used in exclamations, to express some emotion of the mind; as, Oh! what a sight is here! Well done!

A List of Interjections.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! hallelujah! hush! huzza! huzz! heyday! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! etc.

Observations on Interjections.

318. The interjection is thrown in among the other words in a sentence, but does not affect their construction.

319. O is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or a pronoun, in a direct address; as, "O Virtue! how amiable thou art!" Oh is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "Oh! what a sight is here."

PARSING.

320. Interjections are parsed by naming them as such, stating why, and the emotion expressed.

QUESTIONS.—What is an Interjection? Name some of them. Does the interjection affect the construction of the other words in a sentence? How do O and Oh differ in meaning? How, in the manner of writing them? How are interjections parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Interjections in the Exercises.

2. Name all the other parts of speech, and parse them.]

Hah! I am glad to see you. — Well-a-day! I did not expect this. — Alas! I am ruined. — Indeed! is that true? — What!
is it possible?—Lo! there he is.—Hem! I do not think so.
—O what a benefit education is!—Ah! you are a happy
follow.—Hush! what was that?—Ha! ha! ha! how laugh-
able that is!—Ho! come this way. —Ah! poor fellow, he is
to be pitied.—Hurrah! we have finished our lesson.—Come!
now for the next.

LESSON 35.—How to distinguish the Parts of Speech.

321. The articles, pronouns, prepositions, con-
junctions, and interjections, are so few in number, that
they may be easily committed to memory. [APPENDIX IV, 0.]

322. The other four, namely, the noun, adjective, verb,
and adverb, will be best distinguished by comparing their
meaning and use with the definitions of these parts of speech
in their place; thus,
1. Every word that is the name of a person or thing, is a
noun; because "A noun is the name of any person, place,
or thing."
2. A word that qualifies a noun by describing, limiting, or dis-
inguishing it, is an adjective; because "An adjective is
a word used to qualify a substantive."
3. A word that expresses what a person or thing does, or is or
what is done to a person or thing, is a verb; because "A verb
is a word used to express the act, being, or state of its subject."
4. A word that modifies another by expressing a circumstance
of time, place, manner, etc., is an adverb; because "An ad-
verb," etc. (293.)

323. The following technical method, though neither
very accurate nor certain, may assist the young pupil in distin-
guishing these four parts of speech; but the preceding should
always be preferred.
1. A word that makes sense after an article, or the phrase, "I
speak of," is a noun; as, A man; I speak of money.

2. A word that makes sense before the word thing, is commonly
an adjective; as, A good thing; an old thing.

3. A verb makes sense with I, thou, he, or to before it; as, I write;
he writes; to teach.

4. The answer to the question, How? When? Where? is gener-
amly an adverb; as, How do you do? Very well. When did

Observations.
324. Many words are sometimes to be regarded as one part
of speech, and sometimes as another, according to their mean-
ing and use in the place where they are used; thus,

- Demonstrative Pronoun; as, "Give me that book."
- Relative Pronoun; as, "It is the same that I bought."
- Conjunction; as, "I am glad that you are come."
- Adverb; as, "It is much better to give than to receive."
- Adjective; as, "In much wisdom is much grief."
- Noun; as, "Where meat is given, much is required."
- Conjunction; as, "Since we must part."
- Preposition; as, "Since that time."
- Adverb; as, "Your friend has gone long since."
- Conjunction; as, "Poor but honest."
- Preposition; as, "All but one."
- Adverb; as, "He has but just enough."
- Adjective; as, "An only son."
- Adverb; as, "It is only evil."

* * * Write additional sentences containing these words in the
several senses indicated above.

325. When the same word is in one place a preposition,
and in another a conjunction, let it be remembered that the
preposition is followed by an objective case; the conjunction
is not. For additional suggestions upon certain of the parts
of speech, see APPENDIX III, and A. & P. Gr.—APPENDIX I.

QUESTIONS.—How may we most readily distinguish articles,
pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections? How do you distin-
guish the noun from other parts of speech?—the adjective?—the verb?—the
adverb?
LESSON 36.—Parsing.

326. Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements, or parts of speech. Words are parsed two ways: Etymologically and Syntactically.

1. In Etymological parsing, the pupil is required to state the part of speech to which a word belongs, and to describe it by its accidents and uses.

2. In Syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed.

N.B. Before proceeding to Syntax, the pupil should be expert in etymological parsing. This he can hardly fail to be, if he has attended, in the manner directed, to the exercises already given. Lessons from the reading book, or sentences from any plain writer, may now be analyzed and parsed, as already directed. To assist further in this, observe the following

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

327. In order to parse a sentence, it is necessary to understand its proper meaning. Then, in parsing it, let the following general principles be remembered, viz.:

1. Every Article, Adjective, Adjective pronoun, or Participle, belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.

2. The subject of a verb, i.e. the person or thing spoken of, is usually in the nominative.

3. Every noun or pronoun, in the nominative case, when spoken of, is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood, i.e. it is that of which the verb affirms. To this there are a few exceptions.

Noun.—A word is expressed, when it appears in the sentence; it is understood, when it is implied but does not appear. Thus, "Mary’s paper is white, but John’s is brown;" in the first member of the sentence "paper" is expressed, in the last it is understood.
ловозий, lovenet, lovenet, knowledge, but ho that haevel repostr is brutsh.

II. EDUCATION.—Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Quintillian recommends to all parents the timely education of their children; advising to train them up in learning, good manners, and virtuous exercises; since we commonly retain those things in age which we entertained in youth.

'Tis education forms the common mind:
Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined.

An incensive and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance for them than a great estate.

III. PROSPERITY AND ADVERSITY.—If I must make choice either of continual prosperity or adversity, I would choose the latter; for in adversity no good man can want comfort, whereas, in prosperity, most men waste discretion. Adversity overcome is the greatest glory; and, willingly undergone, the greatest virtue; sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

IV. Anger.—The continuance of anger is hatred; the continuance of hatred becomes malice; that anger is not warrantable which has suffered the sun to go down upon it. Let all men avoid rash speaking. One unquiet, perverse disposition, disturbs the peace and unity of a whole family, or society—as one jarring instrument will spoil a whole concert.

V. Riches.—Ricbes beget pride; pride, impatience; impatience, revenge; revenge, war; war, poverty; poverty, humility; humility, patience; patience, peace; and peace, riches.

The shortest way to be rich, is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires. A great fortune in the hands of a fool, is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

PERSEVERANCE.—It is astonishing to see how much can be done by perseverance. Jessie is not so smart as either of her sisters, yet she strikes me, she will grow up the most sensible woman of the three; and what do you think is the reason? Why, because he never says she can not do a thing, but tries, over and over again, till she does it.
PART THIRD.—SYNTAX.

LESSON 38.—Analysis of Sentences.

331. Syntax is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.

332. A Proposition is a single statement or affirmation; as, "Bees make honey." "It will be cold in winter."

333. A Sentence is such an assemblage of words as expresses a proposition and makes complete sense; as, John studies. He will leave to-morrow. Buy the book if it is a good one. Go to school early. Do you go to school?

334. A Clause is a sentence used in another sentence to limit it, or any part of it; as, If John study, he will improve. (339.) It is an element of a sentence containing within itself a subject and a predicate.

335. A Phrase is two or more words rightly put together, but not making complete sense or expressing a proposition; as "A good boy." "By and by." "In truth, he did it."

336. The term phrase, in Grammar, is now generally limited to the preposition and its regimen as an adjunct of the antecedent term. (309.)

337. Infinitives and Participles with their regimen are clauses. (See Anal. 136.)

338. A word, phrase, or clause used to qualify or limit another word, is called an adjunct.

339. When the adjunct is in the predicate and affirmed of the subject, it is called an attribute; as, Snow is white.

EXERCISES.

[In the following, which are sentences?—which are clauses?—which are phrases?—which are adjuncts?—which adjuncts are attributes?]

* The word "proposition" refers to the substance of what is stated. The sentence is the language which expresses it.

LESSON 39.—Parts of a Sentence.

340. Every sentence consists of two parts—the Subject and the Predicate.

341. The Subject is that of which the affirmation is made; as, "Life is short." "Birds sing." "Haste makes waste."

342. The subject of a sentence is commonly a noun or pronoun, or a clause used as a substantive; as, God is good; he does good. To be a good scholar is an honor. "That the world is a sphere, has been abundantly shown." "Dust thou art, to dust returnest, was not spoken of the soul."

343. The Predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, "Life is short." "Rome was not built in a day."

344. The predicate properly consists of two parts—the attribute affirmed of the subject, and the copula, by which the affirmation is made. Thus, in the sentence, "God is love," God is the subject, and is love is the predicate, in which love is the attribute, and is the copula.

345. In the analysis of a sentence, first find the entire subject, and the entire predicate, before any discussion of individual words; for although there is generally a leading substantive, and always a principal verb, yet for the purposes of discourse the affirmation is made not of the noun simply, but of all the words, phrases, and clauses that limit it—and although it is the verb that affirms, yet the affirmation is incomplete unless we also take into account all the elements that modify the verb. The following are examples:
PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

Subject.  
Birds.  
Grass.  
Good boys.  
A good man.  
A bad man.  
The lazy boy.  
The active boy.  
The man whom you saw.  

Predicate.  
fly.  
is green.  
obey their parents.  
is respected by all.  
is not respected.  
moves slowly.  
moves rapidly.  
came while you were gone.  
enjoyed the fruit of his labor.

Note.—The teacher should illustrate fully by use of the blackboard, questioning the pupils until this distinction is perfectly understood.

346. The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word, which in that case must be a verb; as, "The fire burns." = "The fire is burning." Hence,

347. The attribute may be a noun or pronoun, an adjective, a proposition with its case, an adverb, an infinitive or part of a sentence, connected with the subject by an attributive verb as a copula.¹

348. The attributive verbs are such as, be, become, seem, etc.; and the passive forms of them, call, name, consider, etc.; as, He became wise. He was called a benefactor.¹

349. The Verb of the predicate is called the Affirmor.

EXERCISES.

(In the following sentences mention the affirmor of each predicate—the attribute—the copula. Mention the subject of each—the predicate of each.)

Snow is white. — Ice is always cold. — Birds fly. — Home should be pleasant. — The fields are green in the spring. — Be sure that truth will prevail. — Does he go to school? — To learn a lesson well is commendable. — The man saw him. — Horses eat hay. — John and Jane will come, if invited. — Crows are never the whitest for washing themselves. — Between virtue and vice, there is no middle path.

[Write additional sentences, with another predicate for each of these subjects, and another subject for each predicate.]

92

LESSON 40.—Classes of Sentences.

350. Sentences as to the Form of the affirmation or mode of expressing it, are divided into four classes, viz.:

1. Declaratory, or such as declare a thing; as, "God is love."

2. Interrogatory, or such as ask a question; as, "Loves thou me?"

3. Imperative, or such as express a command, entreaty, etc. (215); as, "John, go home." "Grant me my request."

4. Exclamatory, or such as contain an exclamation; as, "See how he runs!"

351. Sentences are Transitive, Intransitive, or Attributive, according to the kind of verb in the predicate. (181, 182, 183.)

352. As to the Number of Propositions they contain, sentences are divided into two classes, Single and Compound.

353. A Single Sentence expresses only one proposition; as, "John runs." "John runs faster than the dog." "I will go if the sun shines." "John and James left the table."

354. A Compound Sentence consists of two or more single sentences so united as to express several related propositions; as, "John runs and James walks." "The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are bold as a lion."

EXERCISES.

[State which of the following sentences are single, which compound, and of each whether declaratory, interrogatory, imperative, or exclamatory, and why—transitive, intransitive, or attributive, and why.]

Birds fly. — Do any fish fly? — He is a gentleman and a scholar. — Pray me the book and I will read it. — Write to me. — Ah! I see it. — The tide rises twice in twenty-four hours. — The land is good, but the buildings are old. — Do you intend to buy the farm? — Yes; and I shall build a house on it. — By improving the land I shall have better crops. — Who made the noise? — Charles, sir.

LESSON 41.—Single Sentences.

355. Single Sentences (expressing only one complete proposition) are of three kinds: viz., Simple, Composite, and Complex.

356. A Simple Sentence contains but one subject, one affirma, and, if transitive or attributive, one object or attribute; as, Horses run.—John strikes Thomas.—Sugar is sweet.—The boy reads (the paper).

357. The Simple Sentence may be enlarged—1. By an adjunct word or phrase in any or all of its parts; as, “Wise men use rightly their time.” 2. By the substitution of a clause for its subject, object, or attribute; as, “To be angry is to be mad.”

358. The Composite Sentence, in expressing one proposition, may have two or more subjects, affirmers, objects, or attributes, and is said to be compound in the part thus affected; as, “Time and tide wait for no man.” “He studies and recites grammar.” “The sky is bright and clear.”

359. The Complex Sentence is a single sentence containing a subordinate or dependent clause which limits the principal clause, or some part of it; as, “The boy who studies will improve.” (Student’s boy.)

EXERCISES.

[In the following single sentences, which are simple? which are compound subject? with compound predicate? which are complex sentences, and why?]

Grass is green.—Wood and coal will burn.—Coal burns readily when properly ignited.—He can read and write well.—I will finish the work when you wish me.—If the road is good, we can travel fast.—I bought a book and a slate for a good boy.—And now abideth faith, hope, and charity.—That is gold which is worth gold.—Learn to unlearn what you have learned already.

Anal. — 56.

THE SUBJECT.

LESSON 42.—The Subject.

360. The subject of a sentence is either grammatical or logical.

361. The grammatical subject is the person or thing spoken of, unlimited by other words; as, “Horses are strong.”

362. The logical subject is the person or thing spoken of, together with all the words, phrases, or clauses by which it is limited or defined. Thus: in the sentence, “Every man at his best estate is vanity,” the grammatical subject is “man;” the logical is, “Every man at his best estate.”

363. A relative clause which limits a grammatical subject is called an adjective adjunct; as, “The boy who studies will improve.” (Student’s boy.)

364. When the grammatical subject has no limiting words connected with it, then it and the logical subject are the same; as, “God is good.”—“Birds sing sweetly in the spring.”

365. The subject of a proposition is either simple or compound.

366. A simple subject consists of one subject of thought; as, Snow is white. The boiler of the steamboat exploded.

367. A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs the same predicate; as, You and I are friends.—Time and tide wait for no man.—Two and three are five.

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, which is the grammatical, and which the logical subject? State whether simple or compound—limited or unlimited. Distinguish the simple and the compound subjects. Point out the subject and the predicate in each.]

The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.—All men have not faith.—The memory of the just is blessed.—Happy is the man that findeth wisdom.—The blessing of the Lord.

Anal. — 115.
LESSON 43.—Modifications of the Subject.

368. A grammatical subject, being a noun or pronoun, may be modified, limited, or described in various ways; as,

1. By a noun in apposition: as, “Milton, the poet, was blind.”
2. By a noun in the possessive case: as, “Aaron’s rod budded.”
3. By an adjective phrase: as, “The works of Nature are beautiful.”
4. By an adjective word (i.e., an article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle): as, “A good name is better than riches.”
5. By a relative and its clause: as, “He who does no good, does harm.”
6. By an infinitive clause: as, “A desire to learn is praiseworthy.”
7. By a clause in apposition: as, “The fact that he was a scholar, was manifest.”
8. Each grammatical subject may have several modifications: as, “Several stars of less magnitude which we had not observed before now appeared.”

369. When the grammatical subject is an infinitive, or a participle used as a noun, it may be modified like the verb in the predicate (384).

LESSON 44.—Modifications of the Modifying Words.

370. Modifying or limiting words may themselves be modified.

1. A noun modifying another may itself be modified in all the ways in which a noun, being a grammatical subject, is modified.
2. An adjective qualifying a noun may itself be modified—
   1. By an adjective phrase: as, “Be a man just in your dealings.”
   2. By an adverb: as, “A truly good man hates evil.”
   3. By an infinitive: as, “Be swift to hear, slow to speak.”
3. An adverb may be modified—
   2. By another adverb: as, “Yours, very sincerely.”

371. A modified grammatical subject regarded as a complex idea, may itself be modified; as, “The OLD black horse is dead;” “The FIRST two lines are good.”

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, point out the grammatical subject—the logical—and state how the grammatical subject is modified.]

A wise man foreseeth evil.—Wisdom’s ways are pleasantness.—Treasures of wickedness profit nothing.—He that walketh uprightly walketh surely.—Nature does nothing in vain.—Socrates, the philosopher, died by poison.—A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion.
Great wealth properly used is a blessing.—The very best remedy for certain evils is exercise.—Truly great men are far above worldly pride.—Your very kind letter has been received.—The river flows very rapidly.

LESSON. 45.—The Predicate.

372. I. The **predicate**, like the subject, is either grammatical or logical.

373. The grammatical predicate consists of the attribute and copula, not modified by other words.

374. The attribute, which together with the copula forms the predicate, may be expressed by a **noun or pronoun**—James is a scholar; James is he; an **adjective**—James is diligent; a **participle**—James is learned; a **preposition with its regi num**—James is in health; and sometimes an **adverb**—John is not so.

375. The attribute is also expressed by an **infinitive** or other dependent clause; as, “To obey is to enjoy.”

376. The logical predicate is the grammatical, together with all the words and phrases and clauses that modify it; as, “Nero was cruel to his subjects,”—grammatical predicate, “was cruel”—logical, “was cruel to his subjects.”

377. When the grammatical predicate has no modifying terms connected with it, the grammatical and logical predicates are the same; as, “Life is short.”—“Time flies.”

378. II. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

379. A **simple** predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as, “Truth is mighty.”

380. A **compound** predicate consists of two or more simple predicates, affirmed of the same subject; as, “Truth is mighty and will prevail.”

LESSON 46.—Modifications of the Predicate.

381. A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in various ways.

382. When the attribute in the grammatical predicate is a **noun**, it is modified—

1. By a **noun or pronoun** limiting or describing the attribute; as, “He is John the Baptist.”—“He is my friend.”—“He is my father’s friend.”

2. By an **adjective** or **participle** limiting the attribute; as, “Solomon was a wise king.”

383. When the affirmer (349) contains the attribute, it may be modified—

1. By a **noun or pronoun** in the **objective case**, as the object of the verb; as, “We love him.”—“John reads Homer.”

2. By an **adverb**; as, “John reads well.”

3. By an **adjecti ve**; as, “They live in London.”

4. By an **infinitive**; as, “Boys love to play.”

5. By a **substantive clause**; as, “Plato taught that the soul is immortal.”
LESSON 47.—Limiting Clauses.

388. Clauses limiting single sentences, or the members of compound sentences, may be classified as to their office into substantive, adnominal, and adverbial.

389. A substantive clause performs the office of a noun; as, "That I said so is most true."—"He loves to do right."

390. An adnominal clause limits like an adjective; as, "The boy who studies will improve."—"The master directed him to study."—"Abram, he became rich."

391. An adverbial clause performs the office of an adverb; as, "He goes to school to learn."—"He is wiser than his brother."

392. The clause on which another depends is called the leading clause, its subject the leading subject, and its predicate the leading predicate.

393. In a complex single sentence, the dependent clauses are usually connected by relatives, conjunctive adverbs, or conjunctions; thus—

Relative.—"The apples that are in the basket are sold."

Conjunctive Adverb.—"We shall go when the corn is ripe."

Conjunction.—"The miser lives poor that he may die rich."

394. The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the book (which) I lost."

395. A dependent clause is frequently abridged by omitting the connecting word and changing the verb of the predicate into a participle or infinitive; as, "When we have finished our lessons, we will play."—Abridged, "Having finished our lessons, we will play."

396. When the dependent clause is the subject of the verb in the leading clause, it may often be changed for the infinitive with a subject; as, "I know that he is a scholar."—Abridged, "I know him to be a scholar."

397. When in such cases the subject of the dependent clause is the same as the subject of the principal clause, it is omitted in the abridged form; as, "I wished that I might go."—Abridged, "I wished to go."

398. A dependent clause may be abridged by substituting an equivalent qualifying word or an adjunct; as, "The man who is honest will be respected."—Abridged, "The honest man will be respected."

EXERCISES.

[1. Abridge the following propositions, and write them out.]

When our work is finished, we will play. —When I had visited Europe, I returned to America. —It is said that "the
love of money is the root of all evil;" daily observation shows that it is so.

[2. Extend the following abridged propositions, and write them:]
Time past can never be recalled.—The road leading to the castle was blocked up.—I know it to be genuine.—You know him to be your friend.—We hold these principles to be self-evident.—His being successful is doubtful.—The war being ended, trade revived.

LESSON 48.—Compound Sentences.

399. A compound sentence consists of two or more single sentences so united as to express several related propositions; as, "The man walked, and the boy ran."

400. The propositions which make up a compound sentence are called members.

401. The members of a compound sentence are grammatically independent of each other; each will make sense by itself.

402. After stating the members, and how they are connected, analyze each as if it were a single sentence.

In such sentences, the connective is often omitted.

EXERCISES

[1. In the following sentences, state which are single, and which are compound. In the compound sentences, point out the members.]
We may not always have time to read, but we always have time to reflect.—Time passes quickly, though it appears to move slowly.—Care for yourself, and others will care for you.—The eyes of the Lord are in every place beholding the evil and the good.—Righteousness exalteth a nation.—John is taller than I, though I am older than he.

[2. In the following compound sentences, name the members—name the connecting words.]
The weather was fine, and the roads were excellent, but we were unfortunate in our companions.—Beauty attracts admiration, as honor (attracts) applause.—Time is ever advancing, but it leaves behind it no traces of its flight.—When I was a child I spake as a child, but when I became a man I put away childish things.—He may go, or he may stay.—He was not a good speaker, yet he was an admirable writer.

Classification of Sentences.

1. Form .... [Declaratory. Interrogatory. Imperative. Exclamatory.]

LESSON 49.—Directions for Analysis.

403. 1. State whether the sentence is single or compound; whether transitive, intransitive, or attributive; whether declaratory, interrogatory, imperative, or exclamatory.
2. If single, state whether it is simple, composite, or complex.
3. Name the logical subject and the logical predicate.
4. Name the grammatical subject.
5. Show by what words, phrases, or clauses, if any, the grammatical subject is modified in the logical.
6. Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.
7. Name the grammatical predicate.
8. Show by what words, phrases, or clauses, if any, it is modified in the logical.
9. Show by what modifying words, phrases, or clauses, if any, each modifying word is modified.
10. If the sentence is compound, mention the members.
11. Show how the members are connected.
12. Analyze each member as a single sentence, by showing its subject, predicate, etc., as above.

N. B.—In analyzing sentences, it will be necessary always to supply the words left out by elision, and to supply the antecedent to the relative who, and to the compound relatives whoever, whichever, whatever, whatsoever; making also the change which is necessary in the relatives themselves, when the antecedent is supplied.¹

Models of Analysis.

104. 1. God is good.

This is a single sentence, simple, because it contains a single affirmation; declaratory because it declares something; attributive—It affirms the attribute good of the subject God. The logical subject is God, because it is that of which the quality good is affirmed. Is good is the logical predicate, because it affirms of its subject. Is is the verb or copula, and good is the attribute.

In this sentence, the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by other words.

Or, more briefly, thus:—The logical subject is God. The logical predicate is is good, in which is is the verb or copula, and good the attribute. The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

A. & P. Gr.—366.

2. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

This is a single sentence, simple, declaratory, attributive.
The logical subject is The fear of the Lord.
The logical predicate is is the beginning of wisdom.
The grammatical subject is fear. It is limited by the adjunct, of the Lord, and shown to be limited by the article the, (368, 4.)
The grammatical predicate is is beginning, in which is is the verb or copula, and beginning the attribute. It is modified by the adjunct of wisdom, and shown to be limited by the. (382.)

3. Two and two make four.

This is a single sentence, composite (with a compound subject), declaratory, transitive.
The logical subject is two and two, compound.
The logical predicate is make four.
The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.
The grammatical predicate is make; it is modified by its object four.

4. Will the king fight and not conquer?

This is a single sentence, composite, (with a compound predicate) interrogatory, used intransitively, (object omitted.)
The logical subject is the king.
The logical predicate is will fight and not conquer, compound.
The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.
The first grammatical predicate is will fight; the second is not conquer; they are connected by and.

5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

This is a single sentence, simple, imperative, transitive.
The logical subject is thou understood.
The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.
The logical predicate is Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.
The grammatical predicate is Remember. It is modified by now, an adverb of time, also by its object Creator, limited by
106 DIRECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

the possessive adjective pronoun thy. It is further modified by the adjuncts in the days of thy youth. In the first of these adjuncts, the term days is limited by the second adjunct, and shown to be so by the definite article the.

6. "A good man does what (that which) is right, from principle."

This is a single sentence, complex, declaratory, transitive, containing one leading affirmation and one dependent clause, connected by which.

The logical subject of the whole sentence is A good man; the logical predicate is does what is right from principle.

The leading affirmation is A good man does what from principle.

The dependent clause is which is right, and is restrictive of that in the leading proposition, the antecedent to which, the connecting word.

In the first or leading clause—

The logical subject is A good man.

The logical predicate is does that from principle.

The grammatical subject is man, qualified by good, and shown to be indefinite by a.

The grammatical predicate is does, modified by its object that, and the adjunct from principle; that is modified by the relative clause.

In the second or dependent clause—

The logical subject is which. It also connects its clause with the antecedent that, and restricts it.

The logical predicate is is right, in which is is the verb or copula, and right is the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

7. Righteousness exalteth a nation; but sin is a reproach to any people.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members, connected by but. Declaratory.

The first member, "Righteousness exalteth a nation," is a single, simple sentence, transitive, of which

The logical subject is Righteousness.

A. S. P. Gr. 610, 623.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES. 107

The logical predicate is exalteth a nation.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is exalteth (265). It is modified by its object nation, and this is shown to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed.

The second member, sin is a reproach to any people, is also a single, simple sentence, attributive, and connected with the preceding member by the conjunction but, expressing contrast or opposition.

Of this member, the logical subject is sin.

The logical predicate is is a reproach to any people.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is is a reproach, of which is is the copula, and reproach the attribute, shown to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed. It is modified by the adjunct to any people. In this adjunct, the word people is used in a general or unlimited sense, as intimated by the indefinite adjective pronoun any prefixed.

EXERCISES.

[Thus analyze the following sentences:]

Man is mortal. — All men are mortal. — The man and woman arrived to-day. — He sold his horse and wagon. — The hand of the diligent maketh rich. — The love of money is the root of all evil. — A friend in need is a friend indeed. — He that trusteth in his riches shall fall. — If I do not go you must. — The fire burns fiercely when the wind blows it. — It was I who wrote the letter, and he carried it to the post office. — He gave the book to some one, I know not to whom.

LESSON 50.—Construction of Sentences.

405. Words are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules, called the Rules of Syntax.

406. General Principles.

1. In every sentence there must be a verb and its subject, expressed or understood.
2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive, expressed or understood.

3. Every subject has its own verb, expressed or understood.

4. Every finite verb (that is, every verb not in the infinitive or participial mood) has its own subject in the nominative case, expressed or understood.

5. Every possessive case limits a noun or substantive.

6. Every objective case is the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, or of a preposition; or denotes circumstances of time, value, weight, or measure. (473.)

7. The infinitive mood depends upon a verb, noun, or adjective.

8. Every adverb limits a verb, adjective, or adverb.

9. Conjunctions unite words and phrases that stand in the same relation in a sentence. They also serve to connect members and clauses in complex and compound sentences.

* The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

Parts of Syntax.

407. The Rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads; viz., Concord, or agreement, Government, and Position.

408. Concord is the agreement one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

409. Government is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, or case of another word. The word governed by another word is called its regimen. (309.)

410. Position means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

* In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence often depends much on the position of its words.

LESSON 51.—Substantives in Apposition.

411. Rule I.—Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case; as, Cicero, the orator. Carlo, the large dog, is dead.

412. Words thus used are said to be in apposition.

413. Explanation.—A noun is placed in apposition after another noun, to express some attribute, description, or appellation, belonging to it. Both nouns must be in the same member of the sentence, that is, in the subject, or the predicate. This Rule applies to all words used substantively, and it is only when the word in apposition is a pronoun that there is any danger of error, because in pronouns only the nominative and objective are different in form. The word in apposition is sometimes connected with the preceding by the words as, being, and the like.

EXERCISES.*

[In the following Exercise, point out the words in apposition. See if they are in the same case. If they are, the sentence is right; if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. In the following, some sentences are right, others wrong.]

First in the hearts of his countrymen is Washington, the hero, the statesman, and the patriot.—La Fayette, the friend of Washington, is no more.—Your brother has returned, him who went abroad.—I bought this paper from a bookseller, he who lives opposite: will you please to give it to that boy, he that stands by the door?—Is your sister well, her that was lately sick?—Hand that book to John, he who reads so well.—The President, Lincoln, was assassinated.

* N.B.—Throughout the Exercises in Syntax—first, correct the errors, and write the exercises as corrected; second, analyze orally the sentences corrected; thirdly, parse any word etymologically; and, lastly, parse syntactically the word or words to which the rule refers. (329.)
LESSON 52.—Adjective and Substantive.

414. Rule II.—1. An adjective or a participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs; as, "A good man." "A horse weary'd by labor." An adjective used as an attribute (344) in the predicate must qualify the subject; as, "Sugar is sweet."

2. Adjectives denoting one qualify nouns in the singular—adjectives denoting more than one qualify nouns in the plural; as, "This man." "These men." "Six feet."

415. Explanation.—This Rule applies to all adjective words, namely, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles. These being indeclinable in English, there is danger of error only in the use of such names number.

Observations.

416. Adjectives denoting one are this, that, one, each, every, either, neither; and the ordinal numerals, first, second, third, etc.

417. Adjectives denoting more than one are these, those, many, several; and the cardinal numerals, two, three, four, etc.

418. Some adjectives implying number can be joined with either singular or plural noun, according to the sense; as, some, no, etc.; thus, Some men—some men.

419. Exception.—When a noun following the numeral is used in an adjective sense (169), it has not the plural termination; thus, we say, A four inch plank; a three foot wall; a four horse team; a ten acre field, etc.

A. & P. Gr. 1084.

ADJECTIVE AND SUBSTANTIVE.

420. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, miserable poor; sings elegantly, should be, miserably poor; sings elegantly.

421. When two or more objects are contrasted, this and these refer to the last mentioned, that and those to the first; as, "Virtue and vice are opposite qualities; that ennobles the mind, this debases it."

422. Comparison.—1. When two objects are compared, the comparative degree is commonly used; when more than two, the superlative; as, "He is taller than his father." "John is tallest amongst us."

2. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; thus, "James is more taller than John."—omit more. "He is the most erect of the three."—omit most.

423. Position.—An adjective is generally put before its noun; but in the following instances it is put after: 1. When it qualifies a pronoun. 2. When other words depend on the adjective. 3. When the quality resulting from the action expressed by the verb. 4. When the adjective is predicated.

[* For other varieties and exceptions, see A. & P. Gr. 677-706.]

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, point out the adjectives, and the substantives (44) which they qualify. Tell which denote one, and which more than one, and make the substantives singular or plural as the adjectives require.]

A well six fathom deep.—A pole ten feet long.—A field twenty rod wide.—I have not seen him this ten days.—Those sort of people are common.—These kind of things are useless. —You will find the remark in the second or third pages.—Each have their own place, and they know it.—The second and third page were torn.

[3. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adjective of number (416-418), and a substantive in the number required by the adjective. Thus, Every man had a pole six feet long.]
LESSON 53.—The Article.

424. Rule III.—1. The article a or an is put before common nouns in the singular number, when used indefinitely; as, "A man"—"An apple," that is, "any man"—"any apple." 2. The article the is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used definitely; as, "The sun rises"—"The city of New York."

425. Explanation.—It is impossible to give a precise Rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule is, to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed. (For others, see A. & P. Gr. 707-728.)

Observations.

426. The article is omitted before a noun that is unlimited, or that stands for a whole species; as, Man is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, etc. Some nouns denoting the species have the article always prefixed; as, The dog is a more grateful animal than the cat. The lion is a noble animal. Others never have it; thus, Lead is softer than iron. Wood is lighter than stone.

427. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than writer.

428. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, are used to qualify the same noun, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; but when they belong to different subjects, the article is prefixed to each; thus, "A red and white rose," indicates one rose, partly red and partly white. "A red and a white rose," means two roses, one red and one white. "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," denotes one person. "Johnson, the bookseller, and the stationer," denotes two.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

LESSON 54.—Personal Pronouns.

429. Rule IV.—Personal pronouns agree with the words for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, All that a man hath, will he give for his life.

Explanation.—Only personal and possessive pronouns have different forms for the several genders, numbers and persons, and this Rule means, that when any of these pronouns is used, it must be of the same gender, number, and person, with the noun for which it stands.

Special Rules.

430. Rule 1. When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and if the words are of different persons, it prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, "He and she did their duty."—"John and you said I will do our duty."

431. Rule 2. When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken separately; or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, "A clock or a watch moves merely as it is moved."
432. Rule 3.—But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, “Neither he nor they trouble themselves.”

Observations.
433. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the noun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, “The army proceeded on its march”—“The court were divided in their opinions.”

434. The word containing the answer to a question (163), must be in the same case as the word that asks it; as, “Who said that?” Ans. “I (said it).” “Whose books are these?” Ans. “John’s.” [* For other Notes and Observations, see A. & P. Gr. 730–741.]

EXERCISES.
[1. In the following Exercise, point out the personal and possessive pronouns (163) and the nouns for which they stand. Change the pronouns, if necessary, for one of the same gender, number, and person, with its noun.]

Give to every man their due.—Answer not a fool according to his folly.—Take handfuls of ashes and sprinkle it toward heaven.—Rebecca took a garment and put them upon Jacob.—Thou and he shared it between them.—Who is there? Me.—Who did that? Him.—Whom did you meet? He.—Whose pen is that? Her or mine’s.—Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded.

LESSON 55.—Relative and Antecedent.

435. Rule V.—The relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number and person; as, “Thou who speakest”—“The book which was lost.”

436. Explanation.—The relative stands instead of the noun or pronoun called its antecedent, and also connects the idea expressed in its clause with the antecedent, either for the purpose of further describing it, or of limiting and restricting it. (158.) Consequently, the relative is always regarded as of the same gender, person, and number as its antecedent; and if the subject of a finite verb, the verb will be of the same number and person also. The relative has the same form in all genders.

For remarks respecting the antecedent, and the use of who and which, see Lesson 18.

Special Rules.
437. Rule 1.—Who is applied to persons or things personified; as, “The man who”—“The fox who had never seen a lion.”

438. Rule 2.—Which is applied to things, and inferior animals; as, “The house which”—“The dog which.”

439. Rule 3.—That, as a relative, is used instead of who or which—

1. After the superlative degree, the words same, all, and sometimes no, some, and any; and generally in restrictive clauses; as, “It is the best that can be got.”

2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, “The man and the horse that we saw yesterday.”

3. After the interrogative who, and sometimes after the personal pronouns; as, “Who that knows him will believe it.”—“I that speak in righteousness.”

4. Generally, when the propriety of who or which, is doubtful; as, “The child that was placed in the midst.”

440. Remark.—The relative as the object of a verb, generally precedes the verb on which it depends; as, “The man whom I saw, is here.”—“I have found that which I lost.” [* For other remarks, see A. & P. Gr. 743–759.]

EXERCISES.
[1. Point out the relative, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Tell the use of the relative and its clause in each sentence. After the relative, if necessary, as required by its antecedent, according to Sub-Rule 1. (437.) If the relative is in the nominative, put its verb in the same number and person as the relative or the antecedent. “Give a reason for each change.”

The friend which I love.—The vice whom I hate.—There is the dog who followed us.—They which seek wisdom, find
LESSON 56.—Subject Nominative.

441. Rule VI.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, “I am.”—“Thou art.”—“He is.”—“They are.”—“Time flies.”

442. Explanations.—A finite verb is a verb limited by person and number, i.e. a verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative mood.

443. The subject of a finite verb may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or a substantive clause. Any of these, when the subject of a verb, may be regarded as a substantive in the nominative.

Note.—In comparative sentences, the substantives in the second member must be in the same case as the corresponding substantives in the first; as, “One tree costs more than many vices (cost).”—“He reads more than she (reads).”

EXERCISES.

[In each sentence, point out the verb and its subject. If the subject is not in the right case, change it.]

Him and me are of the same age.—Suppose you and me go.

There are excellent.—It is probable that he and me will return.—Robert is taller than me, but I am as strong as him.

—I am older than him; but he is taller than me.

LESSON 57.—Nominative Absolute.

444. Rule VII.—A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute.

Special Rules.

445. Rule 1.—A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute; as, “He being gone, only two remain.”

446. Rule 2.—A substantive denoting a person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word, is put in the nominative; as, “I remain, dear sir, yours truly.” “Plato, thou reasonest well.”

447. Rule 3.—A substantive unconnected in mere exclamation, is put in the nominative; as, “O the manners!”

448. Rule 4.—A substantive used by pleonasm, before an affirmation, is put in the nominative; as, “Your fathers, what are they?”

* Under these rules, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the word in the case absolute or independent; if wrong, put it in the right case, and state why it should be in the nominative.]

Me being absent, the business was neglected.—Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.—Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings.—Thee too! Brutus, my son! cried Cesar overcome.

LESSON 58.—Verb and its Subject.

449. Rule VIII.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as, “I read;” “Thou readest;” “He reads;” “We read;” “He”; “We read;” etc.

A. & F. Gr.—1044, 2.
450. **Explanation.**—This Rule means, that a verb must take the form or termination denoting the same number and person with its subject. This Rule and the Special Rules under it apply, also, when the subject is an infinitive or other clause. See under Rule VI.

**Exercises.**

[1. In the following Exercises, tell which words are verbs—whether the subject agrees with the verb and its subject—and if not, make them agree by putting the verb in the person and number of its subject.] You was there.—They was absent.—Your brothers has been abroad.—Has your sisters come home?—Was you present?—The letters has come.—Fair words costs nothing.—There is no roses without thorns.—So much of ability and merit are seldom found.—In the work of education the order of studies are important. The value of the jewels are very great.

[2. Take the verb to write, and make it agree with I—with you—with he—In all the tenses of the indicative mood. Take any other verb, and do the same.]

**Lesson 59.**—Verb and its Subject.

**Special Rules under Rule VIII.**

451. **Rule 1.**—A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, "Ten sail (meaning ships) are in sight."

452. **Rule 2.**—Two or more substantives singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "James and John are here."

453. **Ex.**—But when substantives connected by and denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "Why is dust and ashes proud?"

454. **Rule 3.**—Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as, "James or John attends."—"The dog or the cat makes the noise."

**Lesson 60.**—The Predicate Substantive.

455. **Rule IV.**—When substantives taken together, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next to it; as, "James or I am in the wrong." Better, "James is in the wrong, or I am."

456. **OBs.**—When the substantives are of different numbers, the plural number is usually placed last; as, "Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved."

457. **Rule V.**—1. A collective noun expressing many, considered as one whole, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company was large."

2. But when a collective noun expresses many, considered as individuals, the verb must be plural; as, "My people do not consider."

**Exercises.**

[1. In the following Exercises, put the verb in the number required by the Rule, and give the Rule for the correction.]

(1.) Forty head of cattle was grazing in the meadow.—(2.) Life and death is in the power of the tongue.—(3.) Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing.—(4.) Either the boy or the girl were present.—(5.) Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved.

(4.) I or you am to blame.—(5.) The people was numerous.—The deer were caught.

[2. Write the sentences as corrected.]

458. **Rule IX.**—The predicate substantive after an attributive verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as, "It is I."—"He shall be called John."—"I took it to be him."

459. **Explanation.**—Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly those which signify to be, or to become; passive verbs of naming, making, choosing, and the like; as, "John became a scholar."—"David was made king."
OBJECT OF A VERB.

The substantive before the finite verb is the subject, the one after it is the predicate, and the verb is the copula. Hence they all form a simple sentence; and though the nouns denote the same person or thing, and are in the same case, they are not in apposition, as in Rule 1; but the substantive after a verb is predicated of that before it.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, in each sentence, point out the verb to which the Rule applies, and the substantive or pronoun before and after it.
2. Tell the case of the one before, and why. Put the one after the verb in the same case as the one before it, give the Rule for the change, and show how it applies. Tell the subject and predicate in each sentence.]

It is me.—It could not have been them.—I am certain it was not me.—That is the man who I thought it to be.—Is that thee?—Whom did they say it was?—I understood it to have been he.—Was it me that said so?—It could not have been me; but it might have been him, or her, or both.

[3. Write similar correct sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, with the same case after it as before it, viz., is, are, become, was made, shall be chosen, to be, to be called, to be appointed. Apply the Rule as above.]

LESSON 61.—Object of a Verb.

461. Rule X.—A substantive being the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the objective case; as, "We love him."—"Whom did you send?"

462. Explanation.—The transitive verb in the active voice, always tells what its subject does to some other person or thing, called its object. The rule means, that the object must always be put in the objective case. This rule is liable to be violated only when the object is a pronoun, because in all other words the nominative and the objective case are alike in form. (83.)

463. Nouns and personal pronouns in the objective case, are usually placed after the verb—relative and interrogative pronouns, usually before it. (440.)

468. The infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or a substantive clause, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, "Boys love to play."—"He practised reading aloud."—"I know what he will do."

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, point out the transitive verb—its subject—the object—put that object in the proper case—tell what that case is, and why.]

He loves her and I.—Did they hurt ye?—We know he and they.—He and they we know.—The friend who I love. Take care who you admit.—I will not give ye up.—He who you ignorantly worship, declare unto you.—Let you and I go. —This is the boy who I saw.

[2. Write a number of sentences, each of which shall contain a transitive verb in the active voice; such as, do, have, touch, hurt, love, etc., followed by a personal pronoun in the proper case. Parse them, and give the Rule.]

Special Rules.

464. Rule 1.—An intransitive verb can have no object; as, "Repeating him of his design."—omitted him.

465. Rule 2.—Intransitive verbs used in a transitive sense (187), govern the objective case; as, "He runs a race."—"I laugh at him."

466. Rule 3.—Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice, except when used transitively (310); as, "My race is run." 

467. Rule 4.—A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it; as, "I will not allow of it."—omitted of.

468. Rule 5.—Verbs signifying to name, appoint, constitute, and the like, generally govern two objectives, viz.: the direct, denoting the person or thing acted upon; and the indirect, denoting the result of the act expressed; as, "They named him John."
LESSON 62.—Objective after a Preposition.

EXERCISES UNDER THE SPECIAL RULES.

[Show how the Rule is violated in each of the following sentences, and correct the error.]

1. Robert plays himself with his lessons.—He lies himself down on the grass.—They expatiated themselves largely.

EXPLANATION.—This rule can be violated only in the use of pronouns.

2. Whom and which sometimes depend upon a preposition at some distance after them. But this should generally be avoided; thus, "This is he whom I gave it to,"—better—"to whom I gave it."

3. The preposition is sometimes omitted. It is then said to be understood; thus, "Give (to) me that book." Here, "me" is the objective after "to," understood.

Special Rule.

4. Nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure are commonly put in the objective case without a governing word; as, "He was absent six months last year."—"It cost a shilling."—"It is not worth a cent."—"It weighs a pound."—"The wall is six feet high, and two feet thick."

This may be called the objective of time, value, weight, etc.
PREPOSITIONS AFTER CERTAIN WORDS.

124

PREPOSITIONS AFTER CERTAIN WORDS.

LESSON 63.—Prepositions after certain words.

475. Rule XII.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; thus—

Acquiesce in.

Accuse of.

Adapted to.

Ask or inquire of.

Believe in, sometimes on.

Betray to.

Care on.

Change for, into.

Compare with, in respect to quality.

Confide in.

Conformable, consonant to.

Conversant with.

Copy from.

Dependent upon.

Die of.

Differ from.

Diminish in.

Disappointed in.

Discourage from.

Discouragement to.

Engaged in.

Equal to.

Exception from.

Expert in.

Fall under.

Fond of.

Glad of.

Indulge with.

Independent of.

Insist upon.

Made of.

Marry to.

Martyr for.

Need of.

Observation of.

Offensive to.

Prevent (to persuade) with, on, upon; to overcome.

Provide with.

Provide for.

Regard for.

Reluctance to subdue.

Reconcile.

Reduce.

Shame in.

Share in.

Share of.

Share with.

Share with others.

Share with one another.

Share with the.

Share with us.

Share with what.

Share with what goes before.

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LESSON 64.—The Possessive Case.

479. Rule XIII.—A substantive that limits the signification of another, denoting a different person or thing, must be put in the possessive case; as, “Virtue’s reward.”—“John’s books.”—“The sun’s rays.”

480. Explanation.—The noun or pronoun in the possessive always limits the noun that governs it, and denotes a different person or thing; thus, “Virtue’s reward;” the latter word does not mean reward in general, or any indefinite reward, but a particular reward, viz., Virtue’s. This Rule applies to the relative pronoun, and to the possessive case of the personal pronoun, when the noun denoting the thing possessed is understood; as, “That book is mine.” When expressed, the possessor is denoted by the possessive adjective pronoun; as, “That is my book.”

Observations.

481. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive (’s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, “Jane and Lucy’s books,” i.e. books the common property of Jane and Lucy.

482. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, “Jane’s and Lucy’s books,” i.e. books, some of which are Jane’s and others, Lucy’s.

483. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, “Julius Caesar’s Commentaries,”—“The Bishop of London’s Charge.”

484. The noun limited by the possessive is frequently understood; as, “He stays at his father’s” (house).

485. The preposition of, with the objective, is frequently equivalent to the possessive, but not always; as, A picture of my father means a portrait of him. My father’s picture may mean a picture belonging to him.

Anal.—140. A. & P. Gr.—549.

LESSON 65.—Subjunctive Mood.

486. Rule XIV.—The subjunctive mood is used in dependent clauses, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity are expressed; as, “If he continue to study, he will improve.”

487. When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative or potential is used; as, “If he has money, he keeps it.”

488. Explanation.—Doubt and futurity are both implied when the auxiliary shall or should, referring to future time, can be inserted before the verb without changing the meaning; thus, “Though he fall,” and “Though he should fall,” mean the same thing. It is only in the present tense and third person

singer, that there is danger of error under this Rule, except in the verb to be.

489. Remark.—Many of the best writers, and some distinguished grammarians, often use the subjunctive present; when mere doubt or contingency is expressed, and not futurity. A contrary practice of using the indicative where both doubt and futurity are implied, now begins to prevail; thus, "If he continues to study, he will improve." But the weight of good authority still is evidently in favor of the preceding Rules. A general adherence to them would have this advantage, that the mood used would be a certain guide to the sense intended.

490. Sub-Rule.—Lest and that, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty."—"Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad."

491. The subjunctive mood, in the past tense, expresses a supposition with respect to something present, but implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I were a nightingale, I would sing;" implying, "I am not."

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, state whether the verb following "if" or "though" should be in the subjunctive or indicative mood, and why; and make the necessary correction.]

If there be a rule, it should be observed.—Though he be rich, he is not happy.—If the mail arrives to-morrow, we shall have letters.—If he studies diligently when he goes to school, he will improve.—If he is discreet when he goes abroad, he will gain friends.—If he have money, he must have earned it.

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LESSON 66.—Infinitive Mood.

492. Rule XV.—The infinitive mood is governed by verbs, nouns, or adjectives; as, "I desire to learn."—"A desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."

Anal.—155.
When the present participle is used, it is regarded as a modification of the verb.

Of forsaking undone, has object verbal noun may be modified in all respects as the verb.

Sive pronoun, verbal noun, syntactically.

Necessary, frequently.

Construction of Participles.

501. Rule XVI.—Participles have the construction of nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

502. Remark.—To participles used in these ways, the Rules of Syntax for nouns, adjectives, and verbs may generally be applied.

Special Rules.

503. Rule 1.—When the present or perfect participle is used as a noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case; as, “Much depends on the pupil’s composing frequently.”

504. Explanation.—The present participle is used as a verbal noun, whenever it is the subject of a verb or the object of a transitive verb or preposition. Under this Rule, the verbal noun may be modified in all respects as the verb.

505. A pronoun before the verbal noun must be the possessive pronoun, and not the possessive case; as, “Much depends on your composing frequently.” (not yours.)

506. Rule 2.—When the present participle used as a noun, has an article or adjective before it, the preposition of follows; as, “By the observing of these rules.” “A complete forsaking of the truth.”

507. Explanation.—When used in this way, the participle is regarded as a noun simply, and has not the government or modifications of the verb.

Lesson 67.—Construction of Participles.

508. The sense will often be the same, if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the omission of the other; thus, “By observing these rules.” In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary, as directed in the following rule.

509. Rule 3.—When the verbal noun expresses something of which the noun following denotes the door, it should have the article and the preposition; as, “It was told in the hearing of the witness.”—But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the door, but the object, both should be omitted; as, “The court spent much time in hearing the witness.”

510. Of, when followed by another preposition, can never be used after the verbal noun; thus, “By attending to these rules,” can not be changed into, “By the attending of to these rules.”

511. Rule 4.—(1) The past participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries have and be; as, “I have written” (not wrote).—“The letter is written” (not wrote).

(2) So also, the past participle should not be used for the past tense; as, “He ran;” not “He run.”—“I saw;” not “I seen.”

512. Explanation.—This Rule can be violated only when the past tense and past participle differ in spelling.

513. The participle in ing is sometimes used in a passive sense after the verb to be, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, “The house is building;” not is being built.

Exercises.

(Rule 1.)—To the following Exercise, tell which is the verbal noun, and how you know it to be used as such. If a noun stands before it, put that noun in the proper case, and give the Rule.

My brother being sick, is the cause of his absence.—A man making a fortune, depends partly on him pursuing a proper course.

—John attempting too much, was the cause of his failure.

—Here going away was not observed.

A. & P. Gr. — 906, and Appendix IX.
CONSTRUCTION OF PARTICIPLES.

RULE 2. In the following Exercises, point out the participle noun, and tell how you know it to be so used. See what words are before and after it, and if not right, according to the rule, make them so, and give the rule for the change.

Learning of anything well requires application. — The doing our duty is commendable. — By reading of good books the mind is improved. — Of the making many books there is no end. — By exercising of our faculties they are improved. — The giving to every man his own is a sacred duty.

RULE 3. Consider whether the noun following the present participle denotes the doer, or the object of the act expressed by it, and correct the sentence accordingly.

At hearing the ear, they shall obey. — Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them. — The greatest pain is felt in the cutting of the skin. — By obtaining of knowledge, you will gain respect.

RULE 4. In the following Exercises, when the past tense stands after the auxiliary base, or be, change it into the past participle, and give the rule for the change.

He should have wrote. — Have you spoke to the master? — I am almost froze. — She had just began to read. — James has broke his arm. — You should have drove more slowly. — He has drunk too much, and should be took home. — He might have rode if he had chose. — The thief has stole the spoons; I seen him do it. — John has shook the desk. — The boys book is tore, and he has went to get another.

2. Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change.

I seen him an hour ago. — I done what you told me. — James run a mile in ten minutes, and had not began to be tired. — The school begun yesterday. — He ought to have went, or at least to have wrote. — That is wrong, you had not ought to done it.

3. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, in the present-perfect or past-perfect indicative active, viz., begun, run, wrote, process, eat, drank. Parse the sentences, and apply the Rule.

4. Write short sentences, with the following verbs in the passive voice; viz., written, begun, shaked, shook, spoke, given. Parse them, and apply the Rule.

5. In the preceding exercises under Rules 3, 8, and 4, change the participle for a finite verb, and the other words so to correspond that the same sense may be expressed.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, point out the verb which is wrong in respect of tense. Put it in the proper tense, and tell why it is changed.

It was said that fever always produced thirst; that heat always expanded metals; and that truth was immutable. — He is now absent a week. — I have been abroad last year. — If he would lend me that book, I will be obliged to him. — He can do it if he would. — I intended to have written; but I still hoped he would have come. — Rome is said to be built seven hundred years before the Christian era. — Nero is said to persecute the Christians. — He has been gone long before I knew it.

A. & P. Gr. — 911. 916. 920, 921.

THE ORDER OF TIME.

LESSON 68. — The Order of Time.

514. RULE XVII. In the use of verbs, and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, "I have known him these many years" — not "I know him these many years."

515. EXPLANATION. This Rule is general, and here also the sense is the best guide. The following principles may be noticed here:

1. That which is always true, is expressed in the present tense; as, Vice produces misery.

2. That which is past, but viewed as continued in the present, is expressed in the present-perfect tense; as, I have been at school six months.

3. Verbs having the auxiliaries shall, will, may, can, can be associated in a sentence with other verbs in the present only; those with might, could, would, should, with verbs in the past; as, I go now that I may be in time. — I went that I might be in time.

4. The present infinitive expresses what is contemporary with, or subsequent to, the time of the governing verb; the perfect infinitive expresses what is antecedent to that time.

EXERCISES.
LESSON VI.-Adverbs modify verbs.

516. Rule 1.-Adverbs should not be used as adjectives; as, "John speaks distinctly," he is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly.

517. Rule 2.-Two adjectives are equivalent to an adjective, or adverb, as, "The following are very beautiful results of the examination," or, "The following are remarkably beautiful results of the examination," and after a verb, as, "I cannot decide which," I can decide which.

518. Rule 3.-Adverbs are for the most part placed after the verbs, except when the sense requires otherwise, as, "The ship was lost on the stormy sea," and "The ship was lost on the storm," the latter being ungrammatical, while the former is correct, and the latter was lost on the storm.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

EXERCISES.

In the following, point out the adverbs improperly used. Show why they are objectionable, and give the Rule. See A. & P. for a fuller account of the construction and use of adverbs. See A. & P. 923-941.

EXPLANATION.-This is to be considered only as a general rule. There are many exceptions. Indeed, there are no absolute rules for adverbs. The position in which a word is placed and the harmony of the sentence. This Rule applies to adjectives, adverbs, and other adverbs, as "Join speech artificially, he is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly."
LESSON 70.—Conjunctions.

525. Rule XIX.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences; as, “He and I must go; but you may stay.” (315, note.)

Special Rules.

526. Rule 1.—Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, “Do good, and seek peace.”—“Honor thy father and mother.”—“He and I saw it.”

527. Explanation.—The reason of this rule is, that words thus connected are generally in the same construction: that is, nouns and pronouns connected must be in the same case, because they are subjects of the same verb, or objects of the same verb, or preposition; and verbs thus connected have usually the same subject. In respect of case, errors occur chiefly in the use of pronouns.

528. When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses, or when a contrast is stated with but, not, though, etc., the subject is generally repeated; as, “He may return, but he will not remain.”

529. The relative after than, is usually in the objective case; as, “Alfred, than whom,” etc.

530. After verbs of doubting, fearing, denying, the conjunction that should be used, and not lest, but, but that; as, “They feared that (not lest) he would die.”

531. Conjunctions are sometimes understood between words or sentences connected; as, “John, Charles, James, and Edward were in the boat.”

532. In the compound tenses, verbs connected in the same tense, have the auxiliary expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, “John can read, write, and spell.” When different tenses are connected, the auxiliary must always be expressed; as, “He has come, but he will not stay.”

A. & P. Gr.—945. 954.
537. Rule 2.—Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connections in the subsequent one; thus,

1. In clauses or words simply connected—
   Both requires and; as, "Both he and I came."
   Either — or; as, "Either he or I will come."
   Neither — nor; as, "Neither he nor I came."
   Whether — or; as, "Whether he or I came."
   Though — yet; as, "Though he say no, yet will I trust in him."
   Not only — but also; as, "Not only he, but also his brother goes."

538. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—
The comparative degree requires than; as, "He is taller than I am."
Other requires than; as, "It is no other than he."
Else — than; as, "What else do you expect than this."
As — as (expressing equality); as, "He is as tall as I am."
As — so (expressing comparison); as, "As thy day is, so shall thy strength be."
So — as (with a negative, expressing inequality); as, "He is not so learned as his brother."
So — that (expressing consequence); as, "He is so weak, that he cannot walk."
Such — as (expressing similarity); as, "He, or such as he."
Such — that (with a finite verb to express a consequence); as, "The difference is such that all will perceive it."

535. Note.—As and so, in the members of a comparison, are properly adverbs.

536. Explanation.—This Rule means, that when any of the corresponding terms above, stands in one member of a sentence, the other term should stand in the other member. After "though," "yet" is sometimes understood.

537. Rule 3.—When a subsequent clause, or part of a sentence, is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both; as, "That work always has been, and always will be, admired."

538. Explanation.—In order to see whether sentences are correct according to this Rule, join the member of the sentence common to the two clauses, to each of them separately, so as to make two sentences. If both of the sentences are grammatically correct, and express the sense intended, the sentence is right—if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. Thus, for example, "He has not, and he can not, be censured," is wrong, because if you add the member "be censured," to the first clause, it will make "He has not be censured," which is incorrect, according to Sub-Rule 4 under Rule XVI. This must be corrected by inserting "been" after "has not," so as to read, "He has not been, and he can not be, censured." The different clauses should be correctly marked by punctuation.

539. This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Charles." Here, "as Charles," is applicable to the clause "so much admired," but can not be connected with "more beloved." In such sentences as this, the proper way is, to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; so as "He was more beloved than Charles, but not so much admired" (as Charles).

EXERCISES.

[Rule 1.]: In the following, point out the connected verbs. If they have the same subject, put them in the same mood and tense. If they must be in different moods or tenses, repeat the subject; and if that is a noun, repeat it by its pronoun. Point out the connected nouns or pronouns, and put them in the same case.]

He reads and wrote well.—If he say it, and does it, I am content.—If he be at home, and is well, give him this letter.—My father has read the book, and will return it to-morrow.—James and me ran all the way.—That is a small matter between you.
CONJUNCTIONS.

and I.—He and I are great friends, and so are Mary and me.—Nobody knows that better than he and me.

[2. Write short sentences, in which two or more verbs are connected in the same mood and tense, and notice particularly (531). Put the verbs in the present—in the past—and in the present-perfect, etc. Express the same ideas, with the verbs in the passive voice.

3. Write sentences containing two or more verbs in different moods and tenses, paying attention to (530); write others, containing two or more nouns or pronouns connected in the same case.

(Rule 3.)—1. Point out the corresponding terms in the following sentences, make the second correspondent to the first, or the first to the second, as the sense requires. Supply the correspondent term where improperly omitted.

He will not do it himself, nor let another do it for him.—Though he say me, so will I trust in him.—This is so far as I am able to go.—This book is equally good as that one.—Nothing is so bad as it can not be worse.—He was not only diligent, but successful in his studies.—It is neither cold or hot.

[2. Write correct sentences, each of which shall contain one pair of the corresponding terms above, and state what they express.

3. In the following sentences, point out the comparative degree, or other correspondent terms, and make the one correspondent to the other, according to the Rule.

James writes better as I do.—There were more besides him engaged in that business.—No more but two can play at this game.—The days are longer in summer besides they are in winter.—Has James no other book but this?—This is such conduct that I did not expect.—It can be no other but he.—They had no other book except this one.—I would rather read as write.—He had no sooner done the mischief but he repented.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a word in the comparative degree, or the word other or such followed by the proper correspondent term.

(Rule 3.)—Make trial of the following sentences, as directed in the explanation. If either of the clauses, when joined with the member of the sentence common to both, makes a grammatical error, point it out and correct it.

He always has, and he always will, be punctual.—They might, and probably were, good.—James is taller, but not so strong as, his brother.—His book is not so good, though larger than I expected.—This house is larger, but not so convenient as that one.—I ever have, and I ever will say so.—"He depends and confides in me," is as correct as, "He confides and depends upon me."—I am older, but not so feeble as Thomas.

--Warm weather is pleasant, but not so bracing as cold.

Iron is more useful, but not so valuable as gold or silver.

LESSON 71.—Prepositions and Interjections.

540. Rule XX.—A preposition shows the relation between the subsequent of its phrase and the word which the phrase limits; as, "The book lies on the table."—"The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."—"I am confident of success."

541. Explanation.—Whatever word is limited or described by the prepositional phrase as a whole, is the antecedent term of the relation. The principal substantive in the objective case is the subsequent term. The antecedent is most frequently a verb; as, "He lies in Boston." Often a noun; as, "The loss of wisdom." Sometimes an adjective; as, "There was another large of understanding." The prepositional phrase usually follows the antecedent; but it is sometimes placed before it; as, "This is he of whom I spoke." "Of making many books there is no end."

542. Rule XXI.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence.

543. After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second, in the nominative; as, "Ah me!"—"O thou!" In neither, however, does the case depend on the interjection. In the objective, there is an omission of the governing word; as, "Ah (pity) me!"

In the nominative, they are in the nominative independent, denoting the person addressed.
LESSON 72.—General Rule.

544. In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout.

545. Explanation.—This may be regarded as a general Rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding. Though these embrace almost every thing belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet there will sometimes occur, instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which, so very specific rules can be given.

546. Among the evils to be avoided under this Rule, are the following:

1. The use of words which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which convey another with equal propriety.
2. The arrangement of words or clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.
3. The separating of adjuncts from their principals, by placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong.
4. The separating of relative clauses improperly from their antecedents.
5. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third personal or possessive pronoun, especially in indirect discourse.

LESSON 73.—Ellipsis.

547. Rule 1.—An Ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible, when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Thus,

Instead of saying, “He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man;” we say, “He was a learned, wise, and good man.”

548. Explanation.—There is a constant tendency among men, to express their ideas in the fewest words possible. Whenever, therefore, a word can be spared from a sentence without obscuring its meaning, that word is often left out. This is called ellipsis. Thus, instead of the full form of the sentence, as follows: “I rise at six hours of the clock in the morning, I breakfast at seven hours of the clock in the morning, I go to school at nine hours of the clock, and study till twelve hours of the clock,” we can say, (and be equally well understood), “I rise at six, breakfast at seven, go to school at nine, and study till
twelve." This is the origin of abbreviated sentences; and in order to parse such, or to understand their grammatical construction, the words left out must be supplied.

**EXERCISES.**

[1. In the following sentences, leave out such words as may be omitted without obscuring the sense.]

He had an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. — You may read, or you may write, as you please. — Will you study, or will you not study? — I have been at London, and I have seen the queen. — A house and a garden. — He would neither go, nor would he send.

[2. In the following sentences, supply the words left out, so as to show their full construction.]

It is six o'clock; we may study till seven. — We have done it, but you have not. — John will read, and Thomas write letters. — This apple is larger than that, but not so sweet. — Give this apple to James, that to Robert, and the other to Mary. — I have heard and read much about Washington and the Revolution. — "Sun, stand thou still upon Gideon; and thou, Moon, in the valley of Ajalon."

**LESSON 74.—Ellipsis not Allowable.**

**549. RULE 2.**—An *ellipsis* is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; for example—

"We speak that we do know, and testify that which we have seen," should be, "We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen."

**550. EXPLANATION.**—The sense will always be obscured, when on account of improper ellipsis, the construction of the sentence is rendered *doubtful*, or is not clearly and readily perceived. When a sentence or clause is emphatic, ellipsis is less allowable. The antecedent to the relative, except in poetry, is seldom omitted; and the relative itself, if in the nominative case, never. The article should be repeated when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and an ox."

**EXERCISES.**

[In the following sentences, point out the improper *ellipsis*. Show why it is improper, and correct it.]

Cicero made orations, both on public and private occasions. — He is the most diligent scholar I ever knew. — Thou hast that is thine. — Thine the kingdom, the power, and the glory. — Depart in peace, be ye warmed, clothed, and filled. — I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. — That is the best can be said of him. — He has a house and orchard. — We must all go the way we shall not return.

**LESSON 75.—Model of Syntactical Parsing.**

551. In *syntactical* parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, (326, 1) to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed. To illustrate this more clearly, the sentence parsed etymologically (328) is here parsed syntactically.

"Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."

**Give.** . . . . is a verb, transitive, irregular; *give, giving, gave, given*; in the imperative, active, second person, singular, and agrees with its subject *thou, understood*. Rule VIII. "A verb agrees," etc.

**Instruction.** . . . is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, object of *give*. Rule X. "A substantive being the object," etc.

**Th.** . . . . is a preposition, and expresses the relation between the verb *give* and *man*, as the remote object of the verb. Rule XX. "A proposition shows the relation," etc.
MODEL OF SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

A............. is an article, indefinite, belongs to man, and shows it to be used indefinitely. Rule III. "The article a or an is put," etc.

Wise........... is an adjective, compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and expresses a quality of man. Rule II. "An adjective or a participle," etc.

Man............. is a noun, masculine, in the objective singular, the object of to. Rule XI. "A substantive being the object," etc.

And............. is a conjunction, copulative, and connects the two clauses. Rule XIX. "Conjunctions connect," etc.

He.............. is a third personal pronoun, masculine, in the nominative, singular; stands instead of man, with which it agrees. Rule IV. "Prouns agree," etc., and is the subject of will be. Rule VI. "The subject of a finite verb," etc.

Will be.......... is a verb, attributive, irregular; am, being, was, been; in the future, indicative; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject he, with which it agrees. Rule VIII. "A verb agrees," etc.

Yet............ is an adverb, modifying wiser. Rule XVIII. "Adverbs modify," etc.

Wiser........... is an adjective, comparative degree; wise, wiser, wisest; and qualifies he (representing man) of which it is predicated. Rule II. "An adjective or a participle," etc.

[Questions similar to those suggested at the close of Lesson 37, may be proper here also.

For Exercises in Syntactical Parsing, the pupil may now return to Lesson 38, or take any plain passage in the ordinary reading books used in the school, as the teacher may direct.]

* * Classes of suitable age and culture may take up the regular study of the manual of "Analysis, Parsing, and Composition," prepared to accompany this series.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

LESSON 76.—Promiscuous Exercises.

552. In order to correct the following Exercises, examine each sentence carefully, and see wherein it is wrong. See, first, whether words that should agree, do so—the verb with its subject—the numeral adjective with its noun—the pronoun, personal and relative, with its substantive; secondly, whether nouns and pronouns are in the case which the word on which they depend requires; and lastly, whether the words are arranged in the order in which the Rules require. Having found the error, correct it, and give the rule for the correction. These Exercises, when corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be written out, analyzed, and parsed.

1. John writes beautiful.—I shall never do so no more.—The train of our ideas are often interrupted.—Was you present at last meeting?—He need not be in so much haste.—He dare not act otherwise than he does.—Him who they seek in is the house.—George or I is the person.—They or he is much to be blamed.—The troop consist of fifty men.—Those set of books was a valuable present.—That pillar is sixty foot high.—His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity.—The trees are remarkable tall.

2. He acted bolder than was expected.—This is he who I gave the book to.—Eliza always appears amiable.—Who do you lodge with now?—He was born at London, but he died in Bath.—If he be sincere, I am satisfied.—Her father and her were at church.—The master requested him and I to read more distinctly.—It is no more but his due.—Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain.—John told the same story as you told.—This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

3. Let he and I read the next chapter.—She is free of pain.—Those sort of dealings are unjust.—David the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers.—You was very kind to him, he said.—Well, says I, what do you think of him now?—James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behavior.—Thou, James, will deny the deed.—Neither good nor evil come of themselves.—We need not to be afraid.—It is all fall down.
4. He expected to have gained more by the bargain.—You should drink plenty of goat milk.—It was him who spoke first.—Do you like ass milk?—Is it me that you mean?—Who did you buy your grammar from?—If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray.—Neither man nor woman were present.—I am more taller than you.—She is the same lady who sang so sweetly.—After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee.—Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite?—There is six that studies grammar.

LESSON 77.—Punctuation.

553. Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops.

554. The design of these points is to show the meaning more clearly, and also to serve as a guide to the pauses and inflections required in reading.

555. The principal marks used for these purposes are the following:

The comma (,), the semicolon (;), the colon (:), the period or full stop (.), the note of interrogation (?), the note of exclamation (!), the parenthesis (), and the dash (—).

556. No very definite rule can be given for the length, in reading, of the pauses indicated by these marks. As a general rule, however, the comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; a colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and a period, a pause double that of the colon.

Comma.

557. The comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

1. In short simple sentences, the comma is not used; as, “Hope is necessary in every condition of life.”

2. When the logical subject of a verb is long, a comma is usually inserted before the verb; as, “A steady and undivided attention to one subject, is a sure mark of a superior mind.”

3. A comma is generally used between the members of a compound sentence; as, “Crafty men contempt studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them.”

4. Two words of the same class connected by a conjunction have no comma between them; as, “The earth and the moon are planets.” “He is a wise and good man.” When the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted; as, “He is a plain, honest man.”

5. More than two words of the same class connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, have a comma after each; as, “Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts.” But when the words connected are adjectives, the last should have no comma; as, “He was a brave, wise and prudent man.”

6. Nouns in apposition are usually separated by a comma; as, “Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles.” But a noun in apposition, unlimited, is not so separated; as, “Paul the apostle.”

7. The nominative independent and the nominative absolute with the clauses depending upon them, have a comma after them; as, “I am, Sir, your obedient servant.” “The time of youth being precious, it should be improved.”

8. A comma is generally placed after an adverb or adverbia phrase at the commencement of a sentence; as, “First, Secondly, In general, Indeed.”

9. When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, “Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man.”

Semicolon.

558. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

559. The parts of a sentence separated by a semicolon should contain in themselves a complete and independent proposition.
PUNCTUATION.

but still having a connection with the other parts; as, “Straws
swim after the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom.”

Colon.

560. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or
more parts, less closely connected than those which are separated
by a semicolon; but not so independent as to require a period;
as, “Study to acquire the habit of thinking; no study is more
important.” It is also used before a direct quotation.

Period.

561. The period is used when a sentence is complete,
with respect to the construction and the sense intended; as,
“God made all things.” “Have charity towards all men.”

562. A period must be used at the end of all books, chapters,
sections, etc., also after all abbreviations; as, A. D., M. A., Art. II.,
Obs. 2, J. Smith, etc.

563. But no pause is used between the different portions of a
person’s name when not abbreviated. Thus, we must not write,
John, A. Smith, or James Brown; but John A. Smith; James
Brown.

564. Such expressions, however, as, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 8vo, etc.,
being not strictly abbreviations, do not require a period after
them.

Note of Interrogation.

565. The note of interrogation is placed at the end of a
sentence in which a question is asked; as “What have you
done?”

Note of Exclamation.

566. The note of exclamation is used after expressions of
emotion or passion, and after solemn invocations; as,
“Hail! holy light!” “Offspring of heaven, first-born!” “Oh! that
he would come!”

The Dash.

567. The dash is used where a sentence is left unfinished;
also to denote a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sen-
timent—or that the first clause is common to all the rest; as in
this definition.

Other Characters used in Writing.

568. Parenthesis ( ) includes a clause inserted in the body
of a sentence, but which may be omitted without injuring the
construction of the sentence; as, “Know ye not, brethren, (for I
speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dom-
inion over a man as long as he liveth.”

569. Brackets [] are used to enclose a word or phrase, ex-
plaining, correcting, or supplying a deficiency in a sentence; as,
“James told John that he [John] was to study.”

570. The Apostrophe (?) is used when a letter or letters
are omitted; as, ‘er for ever, tho’ for though, or to mark the pos-
sessive case.

571. Quotation marks (“ “) enclose words and passages
quoted from another.

572. The Hyphen (-) is used to connect compound words;
as, lap-dog, horse-jockey; but in permanent compounds, the
hyphen is not used. Also at the end of a line to show that one
or more syllables of the last word are carried to the next line.

573. Section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter
into portions.

574. Paragraph (¶) denotes the beginning of a new
subject.

575. The Brace (—) is used to connect words which have
one common term, or three lines in poetry having the same
rhyme, called a triple.

576. Ellipsis (——) or (***) is used when some letters
are omitted; as, He—g or K* for King.

577. The Caret (\^) is used to show that some word is
either omitted or interlined.

578. The Index (§§) is used to point out anything that
requires special attention.
LESSON 78.—Capitals.

581. The letters commonly used in printing are distinguished and represented as follows:

1. **CAPITAL LETTERS.**
2. **SMALL CAPITALS.**
3. **ITALIC LETTERS.**
4. **Lower case** (small letters.)

582. In composition, the following words begin with capital letters:

1. The **first word** of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing; for examples, see the first word of this book, its chapters, etc.
2. The first word **after a period**; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other; as, “Love is stronger than death.” “What did he to thee? How opened he thine eyes!” “Gone to be married! Gone to swear a peace! Gone to be friends!”
3. **Proper names,** that is, names of persons, places, ships, etc.; as, George Washington, General Grant, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, America, The Ohio, Sheldon & Co., Broadway, New York.
4. The pronoun I, and the interjection O, are written in capitals; as, O my Country! how I love thee!

---

5. The **first word of every line in poetry;** as,

-Life is real, life is earnest,
   And the grave is not its goal:
   “Dust thou art, and dust returnest”
   Was not spoken of the soul.

6. The **appellations of the Deity;** as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, etc.
7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, etc.
8. The **first word of a direct quotation,** when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, Always remember the maxim, “Know thyself;” Solomon says, “Pride goeth before destruction.” But when the quotation is indirect, as not to form a complete sentence by itself, the first word does not begin with a capital; as, Solomon says that pride goeth before destruction.
9. Common nouns, when **personified**; as, “Come, gentle Spring.”
10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, “Euclid’s Elements of Geometry;” “Goldensmith’s Deserated Village.”
11. Historical eras, remarkable events, extraordinary physical phenomena, and generally, all words which are used in a specialized sense; as, The Iron Age, Magna Charta, The Declaration of Independence, The Polar Sea, Aurora Borealis, etc.

**Exercises.**

[In the following Exercises, correct the mistakes, and give a reason for the correction; also punctuate properly.]

in the beginning god created the heavens and the earth
dear sir your note is received sorry am i to be told of your sickness—i hope you may speedily recover

A. & P. Gr. — 1123. 1046. 77.
— the Boston courier makes fun of a learned disquisition in the Philadelphia press— George Washington was the greatest general of his age—youder comes the powerful king of day

haste thee nymph and bring with thee

mirth and youthful jollity

hail holy light offspring of heaven—holy holy holy lord god of sabbath—macaulay's history of england—prescott's conquest of mexico—Dickens household words—the evangelical monthly—the Edinburgh review—remember the saying that is written death is swallowed up in victory—the grecian sages were more learned than the roman—the erie canal passes through the state of new york—he is enacted by the senate and house of representatives that etc.—my country how i weep for thee—unto thee do I lift up mine eyes o thou that dwellest in the heavens—lessons at home in spelling and reading—part 1 price 8 cents—the resources of California comprising agriculture mining etc.

**LESSON 79.** Composition.

583. Composition is the putting of words together in sentences, for the purpose of expressing our ideas in writing, in the best manner, according to the Rules of Grammar, and the best usages of the language.

584. Almost all the Exercises in the preceding Grammar, and especially those under the Rules of Syntax, have been framed with a view to exercise the pupil in the elementary parts of composition.

1. By leading him to vary his ideas, and to express the same idea in different forms.

2. By enabling him to detect and correct errors which often occur in the construction of sentences; and so to put him on his guard against similar errors.

3. By the exercise of forming correct sentences for himself, according to the particular directions laid down under the various Rules.

585. In committing his own ideas to writing, in the form of compositions, then, all he has to do, is to endeavor to select the proper words, and to combine and arrange these so as to express his meaning correctly, according to the Rules with which he is now supposed to be familiar. The few following hints may be useful:

**General Directions to Young Composers.**

586. Spell every word correctly.* Pay proper attention to the use of capitals; always using them where they should be, and never where they should not be. (See 582.)

587. Carefully avoid all vulgar expressions and cant phrases, and never use words which you do not understand, or which do not correctly express your meaning.

588. At the end of the line, never divide a word of one syllable, nor any word in the middle of a syllable. If there should not be room at the end of the line for the whole syllable, do not begin it at all, but carry it to the next line.

589. When you have written what you intended, look over it carefully; see if you can improve it by a better choice of words, or by a better arrangement of them, so as to express your meaning more clearly (584); and mark the changes proposed.

590. Copy the whole over in as neat, distinct, and plain a manner as you can, guarding against blots and erasures, which disfigure any writing, dotting your i's, crossing your t's, and pointing the whole as well as you are able (584); so that any person, as well as yourself, may easily read and understand it.

591. Try to make every new composition better than the one before it. Never write carelessly, and though it may be somewhat difficult at first, a little practice will soon make it easy.

* For additional suggestions and directions, see "Analysis, Parsing and Composition," p. 181, and the "Analytical and Practical Grammar," of this series.

* For the principal rules for spelling derivatives, consult the dictionary, or A. & P. Gr.—51-76.
LESSON 80.—Construction of Sentences.

592. Although no excellence in composition is attainable without adequate notions of the subject of which we write, and intelligent thought in determining and adjusting the relations of ideas and in selecting the proper words to express them; yet practice in the mechanical construction of simple sentences may render important aid, and give facility, ease, and elegance to our style.

593. Let the following and similar Exercises be used judiciously in connection with the study of the regular lessons in the grammar. The teacher may extend these Exercises, and should in all cases seek to furnish new and fresh material.

594. A single proposition requires for its enunciation at least two words, sometimes three; as,

John......comes.
Pap~r....is white.

595. The subject in its simplest form, may be expressed: 1. By a noun; as, "Gold is heavy;" 2. By a pronoun; as, "She is wise;" 3. By an infinitive; as, To play is pleasant; 4. By a participle; as, Walking is a beneficial exercise.

596. The predicate in its simplest form consists of the copula and an attribute; as, God is good; or it may consist of only a verb, containing in itself both copula and attribute; as, John walks (=is walking). (346—348.)

597. The attribute may be, 1. A noun; as, Music is an art; 2. An adjective; as, Solomon was wise; 3. A participle; as, The boy was injured; 4. An infinitive; as, I am to go; 5. A prepositional clause; as, The affair is of consequence.

EXERCISES.

[Compose simple sentences, employing the following words as subjects.]

Example.—The bread is wholesome.

Bread—fruit—school—books—peas—pencils—pupil—children—exercise—water—plants—to study—we—carpet—work—to play—copper—gold—the dog—the horse—the elephant, etc.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

[Write simple sentences, using the following words as attributes in the predicate.]

Example.—The sky is blue.


[Put the following verbs in the predicate, and write out the sentences.]

Spoke—screamed—wrote—ran—saw—will come—may be allowed—must study.

[*] These lists may be enlarged at the discretion of the teacher.

In the sentences written as above, point out the subject and predicate; name the principal word in each.

Extension of Subject and Predicate.

598. Both the subject and predicate may be enlarged or expanded in various ways by words limiting or explaining the principal elements. (368, 381.)

599. When such limiting words are necessary to express any complete sense, they are called complements; as, John wrote a letter.—He became sick.

600. When they are added at the pleasure of the speaker, and may be omitted and still leave a complete proposition, they are called adjuncts; as, The old black horse ran rapidly along the road.

601. Complements and adjuncts are not necessary to the sense of all propositions. We may sometimes express ourselves intelligibly without them. There are, however, many instances in which their omission would leave the sense very indefinite or obscure; as, "An avaricious man is a miserable being." Take away "an avaricious," and "miserable," and the remainder, "Man is a being," will convey but an indefinite signification. Similarly, "The love of money is the root of all evil," becomes, when deprived of its complements, "Love is root."

EXERCISES.

[Write sentences, employing the following expressions as complements, or as adjuncts.]

Example.—The little bird is singing.

The practice of virtue brings its reward.
CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

158

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

159

Little—of virtue—in the school—at home—this young—the kind—his father—as honest.

[* Extend these examples at pleasure.

Complements for Predicates.

602. Predicates of sentences may, it is evident, be extended, at the will of the speaker, in an almost endless variety of ways. Thus, take the proposition "He gave." We may ask, What did he give? He gave bread—to whom?—to the poor—when?—during the winter season—how?—kindly. With all these additions, we have the following: "He kindly gave bread to the poor during the winter season.

EXERCISES.

[Write sentences, in which the extension of the predicate shall be supplied from the following:]

Many reasons—with a great army—in security—in great haste—to his own residence—with many excuses—to the poor—near the city—on the following day—my arrangement—having been completed.

603. The pupil may now be required to compose sentences in which both subject and predicate are extended or enlarged by limiting words; as,

1. A man of about forty years of age was then conducted into the room.

2. The tree in my garden is growing more beautiful every day.

3. The bright colors of the rainbow extended across the whole sky.

Hermit lived—we marched—a man dropped—the horses were left—the men drank—people pretend—they arrived—inhabitants flocked—birds began—pillar stands—London is supplied.

The Introductory Clause.

604. In order to add grace and harmony to composition, the adjunct, when it expresses time, place, or manner, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence, and followed by a comma. Such introductory clause should generally be short. The following are examples:

In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth.

During that long struggle, he was true to his country.

In the midst of the confusion, he escaped.

EXERCISES.

[Compose sentences with the following introductory clauses.]

In the mean time—Early the next morning—notwithstanding these difficulties—In every part of our land—In ancient times—ever since the beginning of spring—soon after these events—by dint of inquiry, etc.

605. Sometimes the subject is preceded by two or more introductory phrases or clauses, as follows:

With these words, and with a look of disdain, she passed on.

On the following day, my arrangements being all completed.

—Last year, about the middle of August—In the valley of the Nile, not far from Cairo, etc.

606. Remark—Sometimes a limiting clause or circumstance is placed immediately after the subject; as, Man, at his best estate, is vanity.

607. Caution.—Generally a circumstance or limiting phrase should not be inserted between the principal clauses of a sentence, as it will be sometimes doubtful to which it belongs; as, "Having finished the manuscript, upon the death of his father, he procured its publication."

Amplification.

608. As an additional exercise to give practical application to the preceding, the pupil may take the simplest form of sentence and add to it all the qualifying words and circumstances which can, without any violation of probability, be annexed to it; as,

1. The brothers walked.

2. The brothers walked towards the river.

3. The brothers walked together towards the river.

4. The brothers walked together in silence towards the river.

5. In the evening, the brothers walked together towards the river.
6. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers walked together in silence towards the river.

7. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers, arm in arm, walked together in silence towards the river which flows along the bottom of their garden, etc.

[Amplify the following, as shown above.]

He took leave of his friend. — The traveler was received. — The brother came. — They sailed. — The men saw. — They had reached home. — The people were glad, etc.

He told us a story. — They had reached home: — They had arrived. — They had arrived at home.

Note. — The learner may sometimes be assisted in this exercise by asking the questions how? when? where? by whom? etc., with the simple proposition.

Lesson 81.—Exercises in Composition.

609. The more simple exercises in composition are, for young beginners, so much the better. They should not be required to write about any thing with which they are not perfectly familiar.

1. The following is a very simple and easy exercise. A class of pupils may be directed to look at a certain picture in the Reading or Spelling Book or Geography, or any other book at hand; and the teacher may excite their attention by asking some questions, or telling them something respecting it, and then direct each one, either in his seat or at home, to write a description of the picture, together with any ideas that occur to him on the subject. This method will furnish an endless variety of easy and useful exercises.

2. The teacher may read or relate some simple narrative, or give a familiar description of some object, and pupils may be required to reproduce the same, from memory, in their own language. The lessons in geography, history, and other subjects of the daily school exercises, may similarly be reproduced in writing.

3. From pictures, the attention may be turned to real objects. The class may now be directed to any object or objects within their view, which they may be required to describe and give their ideas about, as before; for example, the school-house and its furniture—the business of the day, in the form of a journal—the principal objects in view to the south of the school-house—to the north—to the east—to the west. Each may be directed to describe his own house, and the leading objects in view from it in different directions, or any object which he may choose to select.

4. Another class of easy and interesting subjects may be found in describing familiar objects in natural history—the various seasons of the year, with their employments and amusements—the various operations of the farmer, and different mechanic arts—narratives of any accidents, or striking events that may have occurred.

5. Short familiar epistolary correspondence, real or imaginary. One pupil may be directed to write to another concerning any thing he pleases. A post-office might be set up in the school, with its letter-box; to be opened at stated times, and its contents read for the amusement and instruction of the school. This exercise, because voluntary, would be entered into with spirits, and prove of great benefit.

6. For the purpose of giving readiness and facility in composition, and compelling abstraction of the mind from every other interest save that in hand, there is no exercise of greater worth than that of impromptu composition.

Method. Let the pupils of a class be seated in order, with slate and pencil, or other writing material in hand. When all are in readiness, the teacher announces a simple theme adapted to the capacity of the class, and at a signal all begin to write. At the expiration of three, five, or ten minutes, upon the giving of another signal, all cease. No confabulations are now to be made.

The teacher may now call upon one and another of the pupils to read what they have written, and when a little confidence has been created by experience, the pupils, and afterwards the teacher, may, in a kindly spirit, criticize the several performances, and make such suggestions as seem pertinent.

After a time, these impromptu exercises may be made a drill preliminary to a more elaborate essay on the same subject, to be written out by each pupil.
162 EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

The time allotted, and the particular methods employed, may be varied as each teacher's genius and experience, and the wants of the class, may dictate.

7. Themes on familiar subjects may next be assigned, such as the following:

Point out the evils of the following vices and improprieties, and make such remarks respecting them as you think proper; viz., Lying, Stealing, Swearing, Disobedience to Parents, Sabbath-breaking, Discontentment, Intemperance, Ill-nature, Violent passions, Penuriousness, Idleness, Cruelty to animals, Bad company, etc.

Point out the benefits arising from Truth, Honesty, Sobriety, Love to God, Love to men, Good nature, Industry, Contentment, Kindness to the poor, Keeping good company, Proper amusements, etc., and make such remarks as you think proper respecting them.

In all cases with beginners, it is better to require them to give their own thoughts on familiar subjects with which they are acquainted, than to give them subjects of an abstract nature, or of which they can not be supposed to have much knowledge. In the former case, they will be likely to give their own thoughts in their own way; in the latter, they will have to resort to books, and instead of giving their own ideas, will be apt to copy the writings of others, without, perhaps, well understanding them.

8. When the compositions are prepared, the errors in Grammar should be pointed out and explained; mistakes in orthography, capitals, punctuation, etc., corrected, or pointed out to be corrected, and then the whole copied in a correct and plain manner, into a book kept for that purpose.

Compositions of a higher order than those which have been suggested, would be above the years and acquirements of those for whom this little work is intended, and would therefore be improper.

Having gone through these Lessons, pupils, though young, will be well prepared for taking up, with ease and advantage, the "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language," and the manual of "Analysis, Parsing, and Composition," and for going through a more thorough and critical course.

PART FOURTH—PROSODY.

LESSON 82.—Prosody.

610. Prosody consists of two parts; Elocution and Versification.

1. Elocution.

611. Elocution is correct pronunciation, and the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.

612. In order to read or speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to correct pronunciation, the proper pitch of the voice, the accent and quantity of syllables, and to emphasis, pause, and tone.

613. Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable in pronouncing a word of two or more syllables. Thus, in the word harmony, the stress is on the first syllable, in "understand," it is on the last.

614. When expressed at all, this stress of voice is indicated by the mark (!) placed on the accented syllable.

615. Words of more than two syllables generally have a primary and a secondary accent; as, communication, dominion.

616. To know the place of the primary accent is indispensable to correct pronunciation. A good dictionary is the best guide to the proper accent of a word.

617. Words from English roots commonly keep the accent throughout on the root; as, love, loveliness, lovely; beloved, lovely. This is not so, however, with words from foreign roots; as, harmonize, harmonious.

618. In disyllables which are at once nouns or adjectives, and verbs; the noun or adjective generally has the accent on the first and the verb on the last syllable; as,
II. Versification.

621. Versification is the arrangement of a certain number of long and short syllables according to certain rules. Composition so arranged is called Verse or Poetry.

622. Verse is of two kinds: Rhyme and Blank verse. Rhyme is a similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry consisting of such lines, is sometimes called Rhyme. Blank-verse is poetry without rhyme.

623. Every verse or line of poetry consists of a certain number of parts called Feet. The arrangement of these feet in a line according to the accent, is called Meter; and the dividing of a line into its component feet is called Scanning.

624. All feet used in poetry, are reducible to eight kinds: four of two syllables, and four of three syllables; the long syllable being marked by a straight line (=) and the short, by a curve, (—) as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diplessable</th>
<th>Trisyllable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Trochee — —</td>
<td>A Dactyl — — —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An iambus — —</td>
<td>An Amphibrach — —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Spondee — —</td>
<td>An Anapest — —</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Pyrrhic — —</td>
<td>A Tribrach — —</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

625. In English, accented syllables are long, unaccented are short.

626. The Meters in most common use, are the Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapastic.

627. Iambic Meter is adapted to grave and serious subjects; it has the second, fourth, and other even syllables, accented or long; and the first, third, and other uneven syllables, unaccented or short. Of this verse there are various kinds, some having two feet, some three, some four, some five. This last is called heroic measure, and is the same that is used by Milton, Young, Thomson, Pollok, etc.

628. In iambic verse set to music, especially in sacred songs, stanzas with alternate lines of four and three feet are called common meter; when all the lines have four feet each, long meter. Stanzas having three feet in the first, second, and fourth lines, and four in the third are called short meter.

629. When the last line of a stanza is extended to six feet, it is called Alexandrine.

630. Trochaic Meter is quick and lively, and adapted to gay and cheerful composition. It comprises verses of one and a half, two, three, four, five, and sometimes six feet; sometimes followed by an additional syllable.

631. Anapastic Meter consists of lines of two, three, four Meters or Anapastis, with sometimes an additional syllable.
APPENDIX.

I. ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

By an element we mean one of the simplest parts or principles of any thing. It performs a distinct office or function. Thus,

An element of a word is a letter or a sound.

The elements of a phrase are the words of which it is composed.

The elements of a sentence are the separate words, phrases, or clauses which give specific character to the proposition.

NOTE.—Frequently several words, constituting a phrase or a clause, taken together, only one sentential element. Thus,

Several stars of less magnitude now appeared.

The boy who studious (= studious) will improve.

In every sentence there must be a subject and its verb. Other elements may be added to limit, modify, or enlarge the ideas which these contain. Hence,

The elements of a sentence are of two kinds, principal and subordinate.

1. Principal Elements are those necessary to the structure of any sentence. (Grammatical subject and grammatical predicate, 361, 373.)

2. Subordinate Elements are those which modify or limit the principal elements. A subordinate element may limit another subordinate element.

II. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

An analysis of the English verb will show that in the passive voice there is, strictly speaking, only one form, viz., the past participle, having the following uses and connections:
168 APPENDIX.

1. Joined directly with a substantive (its subject), to express the receiving of an act; as, “He saw me ruined, and helped me.”

2. Used as an attribute of the subject, after an attributive verb, most commonly the verb to be; as, “I am hurt.”—He was despaired.

Instead of the commonly received method of parsing the passive voice, in all the moods and tenses, we may separate it into the verb to be as a copula, and the past participle used as an attribute.

III. ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

Many adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions were originally nouns or verbs, which have become entirely or almost obsolete, or are abbreviated modes derived from other parts of speech. The following are examples:

**Adverbs.**

Aghast, from aque, to look with astonishment.
Aye, a contraction of agane, from go.
Asunder, from participles anaundare, separated.
Farewell, from an old verb, meaning to go, etc.

**Prepositions.**

Beyond, from be and gangue, to go, and well.
Athat, from an old verb, meaning to twist.
Among, from an old verb, meaning to miss.
But, from an old verb, (be-utane), to be out.
Concerning, participle, used absolutely; as, “Concerning virtue.”
Except, (verb), to leave out, etc.

**Conjunctions.**

Since, from seon, to see, (participle.)
Lest, from leasun, to dissemble.
And, imperative, from an old verb, meaning to add.
Yet, from potan, to obtain, etc.

**IV. SYNOPTICAL TABLES.**

For the purpose of aiding the pupils in seeing at one view the leading characteristics and distinctions of the different parts of speech, the following synoptical view is presented:

1. Table of Nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class names</th>
<th>Seizable</th>
<th>Person...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collective names</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common names</td>
<td>Names of materials.</td>
<td>Gender...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns of measures, etc.</td>
<td>Qualities.</td>
<td>Number....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>Actions.</td>
<td>Singular.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper</td>
<td>States.</td>
<td>Plural.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particular names</td>
<td>In transition state.</td>
<td>Case.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Table of the Articles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definite.</th>
<th>A, before a consonant.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite.</td>
<td>An, before a vowel.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Table of Adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compounded.</td>
<td>Pleasant.</td>
<td>Long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeral.</td>
<td>Few, many.</td>
<td>First.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place.</td>
<td>Unmerited.</td>
<td>Sixth.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pupils may be exercised in constructing tables and other synoptical statements of the parts of speech, and “elements” or parts of sentences, at the option of the teacher.**
4. Table of Pronouns.

**Personal.**
- Simple: I, you, he, she, it.
- Compound: Myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves.

**Relative.**
- Compound: Who(ever), Which(ever), What(ever).

**Interrogative.**
- Possessive: My, thy, his, her, its, one's.
- Dative: Each, Every, Either, Neither.
- Adjective: This, these, That, those.
- Indefinite: Any, One, Other, All, Each, Some, etc.

5. Table of the Verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Noun of Action</th>
<th>Noun of Process</th>
<th>Noun of Receiving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>Present:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intransitive,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Past:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attributive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fut.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular, Irregular, Defective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Past-perf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Imperative:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Present:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-perf.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Pers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut-perf.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Pers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Table of Adverbs.

1. Manner as, justly, bravely, slowly.
2. Place Here, there, whither.
3. Time Now, then, when, often.
4. Direction Upward, downward.
5. Affirmation Certainly, truly, yes.
8. Comparison More, most, as.
9. Quantity Much, some, enough.
10. Order First, secondly, thirdly.
11. Uncertainty Perhaps, probably.
12. Connection Conjunctive, Disjunctive, Express, Adverbial.

7. Table of Prepositions.

1. Place Motion to or from. He went into the house.
2. Time and place Till noon.
3. Agent or Instrument By his power.
4. Cause For my sake.
5. Separation Without.
6. Indication For.
7. Direction Against.
8. Substitution Instead of.
11. Opposition Against.

8. Table of Conjunctions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Connective</th>
<th>Copulative</th>
<th>Continuative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>As</td>
<td>And, also, likewise.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>Connective</td>
<td>Moreover, for, etc.</td>
<td>Before, where, after, if,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disjunctive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unless, until, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Or, nor, either, neither.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>But, nevertheless.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Table of the Parts of Speech.

* The Parts of Speech and their most common characteristics and accidents, may be presented at one view, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nouns</th>
<th>Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Common</td>
<td>Personal</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relative</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interrogative</td>
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<td>Adjective</td>
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<td>Use</td>
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<td>Transitive</td>
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<td>Active</td>
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<td>Intransitive</td>
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<td>Passive</td>
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<td>Attributive</td>
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<td>Form</td>
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<td>Regular</td>
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<td>Irregular</td>
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<td>Defective</td>
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<td>Connection</td>
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<td>Principal</td>
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<td>Auxiliary</td>
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<td>Adjectives</td>
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<td>Articles</td>
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<td>Indefinite</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Definite</td>
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<td>Connective</td>
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<td>Disjunctive</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distributive</td>
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<td>Adversative</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Place</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affirmation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manner, etc. (294)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>Place</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Time</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Affirmation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manner, etc. (294)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
<td>Connective</td>
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<td>Continuous</td>
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<td>Place</td>
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<td>Time</td>
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<td>Agent, or Instrument</td>
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<td>Case</td>
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<td>Miscellaneous</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interjections, — various emotions.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expletives, or Words of Ruphacy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>