

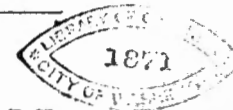
A
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR
OF
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

OR, AN
INTRODUCTION TO COMPOSITION;
IN WHICH
SENTENCES ARE CLASSIFIED INTO VERBAL
FORMS AND PHRASES.

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OR POPULAR TECHNOLOGY."

NEW YORK:
HUNTINGTON AND SAVAGE, 174 PEARL STREET.

1842.



PE 1109
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1842

ENTERED, according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1842,
By EDWARD HAZEN,
in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Maryland.

STEREOTYPED BY REDFIELD & SAVAGE,
13 Chambers Street, New York.

E.W.F. Apr. 14 - 1842

P R E F A C E .

It appears to be the prevailing sentiment, that English Grammar is not capable of further improvement, either in the science itself, or in the manner of presenting it. Had the author been of this opinion, he would not have tasked his energies and patience to prepare another work on this subject. On the contrary, he believed that no branch of learning so much needed improvement as that of English Grammar. He is sustained in this belief not only by a careful examination of the subject, but by the facts that pupils acquire but little knowledge of this science by a long and laborious study, and that what they do acquire, commonly remains an inefficient theory.

The difficulties which have attended this study, are attributed to various causes. Some contend that they are inherent in the subject itself, while others insist that they are the result of a bad nomenclature and inaccurate definitions. It is evident, however, to the author of this work, that they result chiefly from a failure to exhibit the construction of the language in a distinct and systematic manner, and from a want of practical exercise on the part of learners. It has, therefore, been his principal aim to supply this deficiency, and to afford the means for effecting a change in the method of instruction.

To exhibit the construction of the language in a distinct and systematic manner, sentences have been classified into *verbal forms* and *phrases*. The author has discovered that there are, in the language, but *five verbal forms*, and *five phrases*, which, in their various combinations, constitute its whole frame-work. The verbal forms are first presented, then the phrases in com-

bination with them, and, lastly, the phrases and the verbal forms are severally connected by the conjunctions. The frame-work of the language being thus presented in distinct portions, learners can direct their whole attention to a single part at a time.

Every verbal form and every phrase, as well as every part of speech, has been fully illustrated by examples; which of themselves constitute a complete synopsis of the language, and which render the subject so plain, that persons possessed of ordinary capacity, can understand the principles, as they occur.

These examples supply the means by which the whole theory of Grammar may be carried into practice; for, when pupils have become familiar with the etymology and syntax of any verbal form or phrase, they may use it as a model for the construction of others. This exercise will so impress on the mind both the rules and the construction, that they can never be effaced from the memory. It will also induce intellectual effort, by affording adequate motives for exertion.

The exercise of constructing verbal forms and phrases after models, will likewise be attended with the incidental advantage of learning the meaning and application of words. If the design of the author be fully carried out, pupils will acquire a knowledge of six or eight thousand words.

Having thus obtained a definite knowledge of the construction of sentences, together with the meaning and application of a sufficient vocabulary of words, pupils will experience but little difficulty in expressing their thoughts with propriety and elegance, on any subject which they may understand.

The claims of this Grammar rest chiefly on the peculiarities which have just been explained; nevertheless the author has taken unwearied pains to supply correct definitions and appropriate rules, as well as to afford correct formulas of parsing; and, although he may have occasionally failed in accomplishing his object, pupils cannot suffer materially from such failure, inasmuch as they will be guided to the correct construction by

the examples for parsing and imitation. When the classification of sentences, or the model system, is fully appreciated, slight deviations from accuracy in other respects will be regarded as unimportant.

No essential changes, either in the nomenclature, or in the general theory of Grammar, have been made, as both have been deemed, in nearly all respects, sufficiently accurate. A few new terms, however, have been introduced, which relate chiefly to the classification of sentences.

Especial attention has been bestowed on the conjunction. This part of speech has never before been sufficiently explained and illustrated; and writers who have learned to use words of this class with accuracy, have been guided almost exclusively by usage. The same remarks are also applicable to the gerundive, (participial noun.) The gerundive is often imperfectly understood by teachers of Grammar; but here it has been so fully explained, that no student need mistake its character.

False syntax, which occupies so prominent a position in the prevailing system of Grammar, has been entirely discarded, because the practice of writing correct examples after models renders it unnecessary, and even futile. Teachers will meet with more false syntax in the sentences constructed by their pupils than would be necessary for any grammar.

Prosody, being an extensive branch of Grammar, cannot be treated with success in the same volume with etymology and syntax, without enlarging the book beyond proper bounds. It has, therefore, been postponed, to constitute a part of a work, which the author may hereafter prepare for publication.

Some teachers may be deterred from adopting this Grammar as a text-book, from a fear of encountering insurmountable difficulties; but they are assured, that they will find the system easy and practicable throughout, and that they will discover, in the construction of the language, beauties which they had never before seen.

In constructing verbal forms and phrases after models, learners may not be able to call to mind a sufficient number of words to answer their purposes. To supply this deficiency in their vocabulary, "THE SPELLER AND DEFINER" is proposed as a book of reference. It is peculiarly adapted to this purpose, because the words are there classified according to the parts of speech.

To foreigners who wish to learn the English Language, this Grammar affords peculiar facilities, as it conducts the student directly to a knowledge of its construction. It also supplies the means of acquiring the meaning of a great number of words in common use. Having studied the work according to the directions, they will be able to read, by occasional reference to a dictionary, any well-written production in the language.

With these explanations and remarks, the author submits his work to the public, confidently anticipating for it a cordial reception, especially by the instructors of youth, who have long experienced the difficulties of communicating a competent knowledge of this useful, but difficult branch of learning.

New York, February, 22, 1842.

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HAZEN'S PRACTICAL GRAMMAR

AND

INTRODUCTION TO COMPOSITION.

PART I.

LANGUAGE.

LANGUAGE is composed of sounds and words, the import of which has been established by usage.

Language is either oral or written. It is said to be oral when spoken; and written when expressed by letters or artificial signs.

The various languages are usually designated by the name of the people who have used them; as the Greek language, the French language, or the English language.

GRAMMAR.

Grammar is the science of language, and the art of speaking and writing with accuracy.

It is denominated UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR, when the principles explained are applicable to all languages; and PARTICULAR GRAMMAR, when they are applicable to a particular language.

DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

Grammar is divided into four parts ; namely,

ORTHOGRAPHY, SYNTAX,
ETYMOLOGY, PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography relates to the nature and power of letters, and to their combination in words.

LETTERS.

Letters are characters used in writing and printing, to represent articulate sounds.

In the English alphabet there are twenty-six letters, some of which have several different sounds.

The alphabet is divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter, the name of which constitutes a full, open sound.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*; and *w* and *y*, when they do not begin a syllable.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be distinctly uttered without combining with it the sound of a vowel.

W and *y* are consonants when they begin a syllable.

Consonants are divided into mutes and semi-vowels.

The mutes are *b, d, k, p, q, t*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels are *f, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z*, and *c* and *g* soft.

L, m, n, r, are also denominated liquids.

THE ALPHABET MAY ALSO BE CLASSED AS IN THE FOLLOWING TABLE.

A a } E e } I* i } VOWELS. O o } U† u }	B b } P p } LABIALS. F f } V v } HISSING LABIALS. M m } N n } NASALS.
D d } G g } DENTALS. J j } L l } T t } PALATALS.	C c } H h } S s } HISSING DENTALS. X x } Z z }
K k } Q q } GUTTURALS. R r }	W w } Y y } VOWELS OR CONSONANTS.

* *I* is a consonant, when it has the sound of *y* before another vowel; as in union, minion.

† *U* is both a vowel and a consonant, when it has the sound of *yu*, as in useful.

SYLLABLES.

A syllable is a distinct sound uttered by a single impulse of the voice; as *ba, be, bat*.

A diphthong is a union of two vowels in one syllable; as *ou* in *mouse*.

A triphthong is a union of three vowels in one syllable; as *ieu* in *adieu*.

WORDS.

A word is a sound, or combination of sounds, which is used in the expression of thought.

A monosyllable is a word of one syllable.

A dissyllable is a word of two syllables.

A trissyllable is a word of three syllables.

A polysyllable is a word of four or more syllables.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

Words have as many syllables as distinct sounds: and they should generally be divided as the sounds are heard in pronunciation.

In writing or printing, a syllable should never be divided at the end of a line; nor should a vowel beginning a word ever end a line.

NOTE.—The limited treatise on Orthography here given is deemed sufficient, since this branch of Grammar is commonly learned from spelling books, and by practice in writing words, without much regard to special rules for spelling.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology relates to the classification, the modifications, and the derivation of words.

Words, in regard to form, are either primitive or derivative, simple or compound.

A primitive word is one that cannot be reduced or traced to a more simple word in the language; as, *man, good, cure*.

A derivative word is one that has been formed from a primitive word by adding one syllable or more; as, *man-ly, good-ness, cu-rable*.

A simple word is one that is not combined with any other word; as, *man, good, cure*.

A compound word is one that has been formed by a union of two or more entire words; as, *peace-maker*.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

The words in the English language may be divided into ten classes, called parts of speech; namely,

NOUN.	PARTICIPLE.
ARTICLE.	ADVERB.
ADJECTIVE.	PREPOSITION.
PRONOUN.	INTERJECTION.
VERB.	CONJUNCTION.

NOTE.—The classification of the parts of speech here adopted, is the one generally proposed. Perhaps a more philosophical one might have been chosen; but to induce the teachers to consent to any considerable change in this particular, might require more argument than it would be worth, either to the author or to the public.

THE NOUN, OR SUBSTANTIVE.

A noun is the name of any thing that can be separately considered.

Examples.

Animal	Virtue	Motion
Hero	Patience	Solitude
Vessel	Goodness	Admittance
Philip	Gravity	Concealment

Nouns are divided into common, proper, and collective.

COMMON NOUN.

A common noun is a name applicable to a class of things.

Examples.

Man	Field	Paper	Purity
Child	Town	Carpet	Magnitude
Fowl	River	Music	Removal
Horse	Mountain	Farmer	Investment

PROPER NOUN.

A proper noun is a particular name of a thing, applied to distinguish it from others of the same class.

Examples.

Charles	Hannah More	Europe
Mary	Robert Fulton	Ohio
July	John Marshall	Hudson
Sunday	Peter Little	Andes

COLLECTIVE NOUN.

A collective noun is the name of a collection of objects taken as a whole.

Examples.

Mob	School	Library
Clan	Army	Company
Crew	Party	Multitude
Flock	Family	Legislature
Gang	Faction	Committee

VARIATIONS IN NOUNS.

Nouns are varied in form or application by gender, number, person, and case.

GENDER.

Gender is a distinction in nouns with regard to sex.

There are three genders; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The masculine gender denotes the male sex.

The feminine gender denotes the female sex.

The neuter gender denotes that the object is not distinguished by sex.

Examples.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Man	Woman	Book
King	Queen	Lamp
Lord	Lady	House
Stag	Hind	Motion
Actor	Actress	Lesson

METHODS OF EXPRESSING THE GENDER OF NOUNS.

There are three methods of expressing the gender of nouns.

1. By a change in the entire word.

Examples.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Lad	Lass	Bull	Cow
Boy	Girl	Bullock	Heifer
Son	Daughter	Horse	Mare
Beau	Belle	Cock	Hen
King	Queen	Drake	Duck
Lord	Lady	Gander	Goose
Earl	Countess	Husband	Wife
Buck	Doe	Father	Mother
Uncle	Aunt	Brother	Sister
Nephew	Niece	Master	Mistress
Monk	Nun	Sloven	Slut
Hart	Roe	Wizard	Witch
Stag	Hind	Bachelor	Maid

2. By prefixing another word.

Examples.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
A he-goat	A she-goat
A he-bear	A she-bear
A cock-sparrow	A hen-sparrow
A man-servant	A maid-servant
A male-child	A female-child
Male relations	Female relations
Male descendants	Female descendants

3. By a difference of termination

Examples.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Heir	Heiress	Poet	Poetess
Host	Hostess	Prophet	Prophetess
Count	Countess	Tiger	Tigress
Jew	Jewess	Hunter	Huntress
Peer	Peeress	Songster	Songstress
Prince	Princess	Seamster	Seamstress
Shepherd	Shepherdess	Arbiter	Arbitress
Baron	Baroness	Enchanter	Enchantress
Deacon	Deaconess	Tailor	Tailoress
Lion	Lioness	Director	Directress
Patron	Patroness	Votary	Votress
Actor	Actress	Viscount	Viscountess
Author	Authoress	Hero	Heroine
Tutor	Tutress	Landgrave	Landgravine
Traitor	Traitress	Widower	Widow
Conductor	Conductress	Sultan	Sultana
Emperor	Emperess	Czar	Czarina
Elector	Electress	Bridegroom	Bride
Governor	Governess	Testator	Textatrix
Protector	Protectress	Executor	Executrix
Ambassador	Ambadress	Administrator	Administratrix

Many words are applicable to objects which are either male or female; such as *parent, child, teacher, friend, cousin, &c.* The sex of the individuals to which such words refer can often be determined by the context; but when this cannot be done, the epithets *masculine* or *feminine*, or *masculine* alone, may be used in grammatic solution. When two persons of different sexes are expressed by one word, the terms *masculine* and *feminine* should be used. The words *common* and *doubtful* as applied to gender are exceptionable.

NUMBER.

Number is the individual or collective estimate of objects.

There are two numbers; the singular and the plural.

The singular number denotes but one object.

The plural number denotes more than one object.

Examples.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	Men	Lash	Lashes
Foot	Feet	Brush	Brushes
Hat	Hats	Knife	Knives
Book	Books	Child	Children

Person and case will be explained where the pupil will be more likely to understand their nature.

SYNTAX.

Syntax relates to the agreement and government of words, and to their appropriate arrangement in sentences.

This part of grammar consists chiefly of rules deduced from the customary forms of speech.

A rule, in its general application, is a definite direction.

An exception to a rule is a deviation from it in some particular case or cases.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

THE ARTICLE.

The article is a word placed before the noun to modify its application.

There are two articles, namely, *a* and *the*.

A is called the indefinite article. It is used to bring the noun from its widest application to denote a single object of a class or kind. *A* becomes *an* before a vowel sound.

The is called the definite article. It is used to bring the noun from its widest application to distinguish one object or more from all others of the same class.

Examples.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
A wolf	The king	The kings
A beaver	The camel	The camels
An hour	The farmer	The farmers
An author	The pyramid	The pyramids
A unit	The example	The examples
A eulogy	The christian	The christians

RULES OF SYNTAX.

The article *a* or *an* belongs to nouns in the singular number.

The article *the* belongs to nouns in the singular or plural number.

THE NOUN AND THE ARTICLE.

METHODS OF FORMING THE PLURAL OF NOUNS.

The regular method of forming the plural of nouns, is by adding *s*, or *es* to the singular.

When the singular ends in *x*, *s*, *ss*, *sh*, or *ch* soft, the plural is formed by adding *es*.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
A tax	The taxes	A brush	The brushes
A box	The boxes	A branch	The branches
A gas	The gases	A batch	The batches
A kiss	The kisses	A crutch	The crutches
A lash	The lashes	A dish	The dishes

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

A Tax—The Taxes.

A is the indefinite article and belongs to *tax*.

RULE. The article *a* or *an* belongs to nouns in the singular number.

Tax is a common noun, neuter gender, and singular number.

The is the definite article and belongs to *taxes*.

RULE. The article *the* belongs to nouns in the singular or plural number.

Taxes is a common noun, neuter gender, and plural number.

NOTE.—Parsing is an exercise in which sentences and phrases are analyzed. Imitation, as applied in this work, is the construction of sentences, or parts of sentences, in conformity with the examples adduced as models.

Words ending in other consonants form their plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
The slab	The slabs	The critic	The critics
The sled	The sleds	The sandal	The sandals
The stag	The stags	The chicken	The chickens
The chin	The chins	The winter	The winters
The scrap	The scraps	The goblet	The goblets

Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel in the same syllable, form the plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
The clay	The clays	The volley	The volleys
The dray	The drays	The monkey	The monkeys
The key	The keys	The chimney	The chimneys
The valley	The valleys	The attorney	The attorneys

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER.

The practice of defining the part of speech, and of every other property of each word while parsing, is tedious as well as unnecessary. A few questions and explanations in relation to the definitions, during the exercise, or before it, will be found sufficient.

After the pupil has parsed the examples, the teacher is requested to require him to write others exactly like them in grammatical construction. The examples should be first written on a slate, and then copied on paper to be preserved as specimens of original con-

Nouns ending in *y*, not preceded by a vowel in the same syllable, form their plural by changing the *y* to *ies*.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
A fly	The flies	A piracy	The piracies
A cry	The cries	A lady	The ladies
A berry	The berries	A prodigy	The prodigies
A city	The cities	A destiny	The destinies
A proxy	The proxies	A liberty	The liberties

Nouns ending in *o* pronounced like *oo* as in *too*, or in *o* preceded by a vowel, form their plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Examples for Parsing.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
A bamboo	The bamboos
A tattoo	The tattoos
A nuncio	The nuncios
Scipio	The Scipios

struction. This exercise should be continued throughout the work, wherever examples for parsing and imitation may be found.

The pupil having been thus carried through a course of phraseology, will very readily learn to combine sentences on any subject which he may understand. Composition will, by this means, be changed from a difficult and irksome task, to a comparatively easy and pleasant exercise.

The author would also remark, that the pupil should

Nouns ending in *o*, neither pronounced like *oo* in *too*, nor preceded by a vowel, form their plural by adding *es* to the singular.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
A hero	The heroes	A veto	The vetoes
A tyro	The tyroes	A motto	The mottoes
A negro	The negroes	A portico	The porticoes
An echo	The echoes	A manifesto	The manifestoes

Nouns ending with *a*, *e*, *u*, or *w*, form their plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
An era	The eras	A formula	The formulas
A zebra	The zebras	A diploma	The diplomas
A spade	The spades	A medicine	The medicines
A hive	The hives	A signature	The signatures
A pie	The pies	A swallow	The swallows
A hue	The hues	A gnu	The gnus
A saddle	The saddles	A landau	The landaus

learn the meaning of all the words in the various examples. To do this, he should always have a dictionary at hand to which he may refer while preparing his lessons; and the teacher should render their meaning still more distinct by explanations and illustrations.

To determine the part of speech, regard should be had to the etymological definitions only, as a reference to the dictionary for this purpose should never be encouraged by the teacher.

Some nouns ending with the sound of *f*, change *f* into *v* in the plural.

Examples for Parsing.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
The elf	The elves	The knife	The knives
The shelf	The shelves	The life	The lives
The wolf	The wolves	The wife	The wives
The leaf	The leaves	The thief	The thieves
The loaf	The loaves	The wharf	The wharves
The sheaf	The sheaves	The half	The halves
The beef	The beeves	The calf	The calves

Staff, a walking-stick, makes *staves* in the plural; but when *staff* is applied as a military term, it has the regular plural; as *staff*, *staffs*, *flagstaff*, *flagstaffs*.

Exceptions to the preceding rules for the formation of the plural.

Examples for Parsing.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
The man	The men	The tooth	The teeth
The woman	The women	The goose	The geese
The child	The children	The louse	The lice
The brother	The brethren	The mouse	The mice
The ox	The oxen	The die	The dice
The foot	The feet	The penny	The pence

Pennies denote real coin; *pence*, their value in computation. The plural of *die*, a cube used in games, is *dice*; but *die*, a stamp, has *dies* in the plural. *Brother*, a member of the same family, in common discourse has the regular plural; but *brother* in the Scriptures and in church phraseology, has *brethren*. The plural of *pea* is *peas* and *pease*; the former denotes the seeds as distinct objects; the latter, the seeds in a mass.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

Defective nouns are of several classes.

1. Those which are used only in the singular form and sense.

Examples.

Gold	Cotton	Honesty	Odium
Love	Silver	Violence	Heroism
Pride	Pity	Innocence	Canvass
Pitch	Hatred	Temperance	Eucharist
Wheat	Contempt	Affluence	Goodness
Sloth	Disdain	Confinement	Blackness
Sugar	Humility	Unconcern	Laziness

The names of things which are weighed or measured, belong to this class; but they admit of a plural, when several kinds of the same sort are referred to; as, *wheats*, *leas*, *sugars*, *cottons*, *coffees*, &c.

2. Those which are used in the plural form and sense.

Examples.

Ides	Hatches	Pleiads	Nippers
Lees	Riches	Calends	Vespers
Lungs	Ashes	Filings	Betters
Goods	Breeches	Tidings	Fetters
Dregs	Bowels	Matins	Bitters
Tongs	Entrails	Customs	Scissors
Shears	Vitals	Drawers	Mallows
Clothes	Victuals	Embers	Orgies
Thanks	Shambles	Pincers	Archives
Downs	Annals	Snuffers	Compasses

3. Those which have the plural form, and yet are to be used in the singular sense.

Examples.

News	Optics	Mechanics
Billiards	Physics	Mathematics
Ethics	Politics	Pneumatics
Conics	Hysterics	Metaphysics

4. Those which have the singular form, and yet may be used in the singular or plural sense.

Examples.

Deer	Fish	Salmon
Sheep	Trout	Cannon
Kine	Shad	Cattle
Swine	Herring	Hiatus
Hose	Haddock	Apparatus

5. Those which have the plural form, and yet may be used either in the singular or plural sense.

Examples.

Alms	Amends	Species
Means	Wages	Gallows
Odds	Series	Bellows

When a title is prefixed to a proper noun to designate a class of persons of the same name, the name is varied to form the plural; as, *The Miss Hamlins*, *The two Mr. Smiths*. But when the persons are referred to individually, the title is varied and sometimes also the name or names to express the plural; as, *Misses Ann and Julia Clifton*, *Messrs. Cushing and Sons*.

When the principal word in a compound noun is placed first, it is varied to express the plural.

Examples.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Father-in-law	Fathers-in-law
Court-martial	Courts-martial
Commander-in-chief	Commanders-in-chief

Words adopted into our language, sometimes retain their original plural, as in the following list.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Datum	Data	Axis	Axes
Stratum	Strata	Basis	Bases
Erratum	Errata	Crisis	Crises
Arcanum	Arcana	Diæresis	Diæreses
Effluvium	Effluvia	Ellipsis	Ellipses
Desideratum	Desiderata	Emphasis	Emphases
Animalculum	Animalcula	Hypothesis	Hypotheses
Automaton	Automata	Antithesis	Antitheses
Phenomenon	Phenomena	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses
Criterion	Criteria	Apex	Apices
Genus	Genera	Calx	Calces
Stamen	Stamina	Index	Indices
Focus	Foci	Vertex	Vertices
Magus	Magi	Vortex	Vortices
Stimulus	Stimuli	Virtuoso	Virtuosi
Genius	Genii	Ignis fatuus	Ignes fatui
Cherub	{ Cherubs Cherubim	Encomium	{ Encomia Encomiums
Seraph	{ Seraphs Seraphim	Memorandum	{ Memoranda Memorandums
Appendix	{ Appendices Appendixes		

THE ADJECTIVE.

An adjective is a word added to a noun to express some quality, circumstance, or kind.

Examples.

A good man	The latent cause
A timid animal	The brazen vessel
A lonely place	The circular theatre
An indigent woman	The French fashion
A long sermon	The conceited fop
A wooden vessel	The prominent politician

RULE OF SYNTAX.

Adjectives belong to nouns.

THE ARTICLE, THE ADJECTIVE, AND THE NOUN.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

A hungry wolf	A connubial tie
A ravenous appetite	A nuptial day
A luxurious liver	A hymeneal altar

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

A hungry wolf.

A is the indefinite article, and belongs to *wolf*.

RULE. The article *a* or *an* belongs to nouns in the singular number.

Hungry is an adjective, and belongs to *wolf*.

RULE. Adjectives belong to nouns.

Wolf is a common noun, masculine gender, and singular number.

An abstemious student	A conjugal relation
An insatiable thirst	An uxorious husband
A voracious desire	A matrimonial engagement

The fond parent	The ardent friend
The tender mother	The filial conduct
The affectionate father	The fraternal act
The maternal regard	The amicable agreement
The parental care	The friendly neighbor
The fatherly love	The mutual friend

A local attachment	A hostile army
A travelling agent	A militant nation
A domestic life	A spiteful serpent
A permanent abode	A petulant landlady
An erratic tribe	A vindictive temper
An errant knight	A pugnacious captain

A ferocious beast	A sly fox
A clamorous mob	A crafty jockey
A ruthless tyrant	A cunning lawyer
A destructive animal	An insidious foe
A murderous robber	A deceptive enemy
A malicious critic	A designing politician

The thievish propensity	The handy workman
The courteous dealer	The dexterous mechanic
The avaricious landlord	The ingenious machinist
The selfish merchant	The operative mason
The stingy farmer	The mechanical skill
The sordid miser	The constructive beaver

NOTE.—After the pupil has learned the nature of comparison, it would be well for him to parse the preceding examples again, with a view to comparing the adjectives.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Comparison is the variation of an adjective to express a quality or circumstance in different degrees.

There are three degrees of comparison; namely, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

The positive degree is the simple state of the adjective.

The comparative denotes a greater or less degree.

The superlative denotes the greatest or least degree.

Adjectives of one syllable are usually compared by adding to the positive *r* or *er* to form the comparative, and *st* or *est* to form the superlative.

Examples.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Tall	Taller	Tallest
Light	Lighter	Lightest
Large	Larger	Largest
Small	Smaller	Smallest
Hoarse	Hoarser	Hoarsest

Adjectives of two syllables or more are usually compared by prefixing to the positive, *more* or *less* to form the comparative, and *most* or *least* to form the superlative.

Examples.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Stupid	More stupid	Most stupid
Civil	More civil	Most civil
Slender	More slender	Most slender
Clever	More clever	Most clever

Stupid	Less stupid	Least stupid
Civil	Less civil	Least civil
Slender	Less slender	Least slender
Clever	Less clever	Least clever
Elegant	More elegant	Most elegant
Eloquent	More eloquent	Most eloquent
Laudable	More laudable	Most laudable
Ponderous	More ponderous	Most ponderous
Elegant	Less elegant	Least elegant
Eloquent	Less eloquent	Least eloquent
Laudable	Less laudable	Least laudable
Ponderous	Less ponderous	Least ponderous

Many adjectives of two syllables ending in *y* or *e* mute, may be compared by *r*, *er*, *st*, *est*, and by *more* and *most*, and *less* and *least*.

Examples.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Handy	Handier	Handiest
Jolly	Jollier	Jolliest
Lofty	Loftier	Loftiest
Heavy	Heavier	Heaviest
Handy	More handy	Most handy
Jolly	More jolly	Most jolly
Lofty	More lofty	Most lofty
Heavy	More heavy	Most heavy
Handy	Less handy	Least handy
• Jolly	Less jolly •	Least jolly

Lofty	Less lofty	Least lofty
Heavy	Less heavy	Least heavy
Able	Abler	Ablest
Nimble	Nimble	Nimblest
Ample	Ampler	Amplest
Simple	Simpler	Simplest
Able	More able	Most able
Nimble	More nimble	Most nimble
Ample	More ample	Most ample
Simple	More simple	Most simple
Able	Less able	Least able
Nimble	Less nimble	Least nimble
Ample	Less ample	Least ample
Simple	Less simple	Least simple

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good, well	Better	Best
Bad, evil, or ill	Worse	Worst
Little	Less	Least
Equal	Superior	Supreme or chief
Equal	Inferior	Least

Near has *nearest* and *next*, and *late* has *latest* and *last*, in the superlative.

Those adjectives expressing qualities which cannot be increased or diminished, cannot be compared.

Examples of Incomparable Adjectives.

Brazen	Present	Infinite
Golden	Absent	Eternal

Wooden	All-wise	Omniscient
Circular	Ceaseless	Omnipotent
Conical	Endless	Omnipresent
Perpendicular	Boundless	Pecuniary

A few adjectives will admit *ish* to express diminution in the quality. This is called the diminutive form of the adjective.

Examples.

Diminutive.	Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Whitish	White	Whiter	Whitest
Bluish	Blue	Bluer	Bluest
Sweetish	Sweet	Sweeter	Sweetest
Saltish	Salt	Salter	Saltest

Under this part of speech are also included certain words which merely modify or define the application of nouns. These words are called numeral adjectives.

NOTE.—Objects which admit of admeasurement or numeration, and quantities which can be weighed or measured, may be definitely compared; but, as objects of this description are not numerous, the precise amount of a quality or attribute can seldom be determined; and, since language corresponds with the weakness of our conceptions, it furnishes us with few definite means of comparison. In expressing degrees of qualities and attributes, however, we are not exclusively confined to the means described in the regular comparison of adjectives. There are other words of similar import which are frequently used for this purpose.

EXAMPLES.

A <i>very</i> good man	An <i>infinitely</i> wise Being
A <i>much</i> wiser man	A <i>truly</i> eloquent speaker
A <i>far</i> greater distance	An <i>exceedingly</i> happy couple
A <i>great deal</i> whiter paper	An <i>incomparably</i> splendid object

The words in italics are adverbs, see page .

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Numeral adjectives are of three kinds; namely, the cardinal, the ordinal, and the multiplicative.

The cardinal are, *one, two, three, four, &c.*

The ordinal are, *first, second, third, fourth, &c.*

The multiplicative are, *single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, &c.*

RULE OF SYNTAX.

Numeral adjectives agree with their nouns in number.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

Five ladies, 5 ladies	The 25th instant
Ten horses, 10 horses	The 7th ultimo
The first man	January 5, 1841
The seventh year	The single instance
The VI. Chapter	The triple alliance
The 10th verse	The threefold cord

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

Five Ladies—The 25th Instant—The single Instance.

Five is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, plural number, and agrees with *ladies*.

RULE. Numeral adjectives agree with their nouns in number.

25th is a numeral adjective of the ordinal kind, singular number, and agrees with *instant*.

RULE. Numeral adjectives agree with their nouns in number.

Single is an adjective of the multiplicative kind, singular number, and agrees with *instance*.

RULE. Numeral adjectives agree with their nouns, &c.

THE PRONOUN.

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

There are seven kinds of pronouns; namely, the personal, the possessive personal, the adjective, the relative, the interrogative, the interrogative adjective, and the compound relative.

RULE OF SYNTAX.

Pronouns must agree with their antecedents or the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number, and person.

VARIATIONS OF THE NOUN AND THE PRONOUN.

Nouns and some of the pronouns are varied by gender, number, person, and case.

PERSON.

Person is the relation which nouns and pronouns sustain to sentences.

Nouns are of the second or third person.

Pronouns are of the first, second, or third person.

The first person denotes the author of the sentence. The second person denotes the person addressed. The third person denotes the person or thing spoken of.

CASE.

Case is the relation which nouns and pronouns sustain to other words in a sentence.

There are four cases; namely, the nominative, the possessive, the objective, and the independent.

The nominative case denotes the agency which introduces the verb into the sentence.

The possessive case denotes possession or ownership.

The objective case denotes the passive relation of the noun or pronoun in which it is governed by a verb or preposition.

The independent case denotes that the noun or pronoun is free from any constructive dependance on any other word.

DECLENSION.

Declension is a regular arrangement of nouns and pronouns by cases and numbers.

Examples of Declension.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> Man	<i>Nom.</i> Men
<i>Poss.</i> Man's	<i>Poss.</i> Men's
<i>Obj.</i> Man	<i>Obj.</i> Men
<i>Ind.</i> Man	<i>Ind.</i> Men

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> Pen	<i>Nom.</i> Pens
<i>Poss.</i> Pen's	<i>Poss.</i> Pens'
<i>Obj.</i> Pen	<i>Obj.</i> Pens
<i>Ind.</i> Pen	<i>Ind.</i> Pens

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> Senator	<i>Nom.</i> Senators
<i>Poss.</i> Senator's	<i>Poss.</i> Senators'
<i>Obj.</i> Senator	<i>Obj.</i> Senators
<i>Ind.</i> Senator	<i>Ind.</i> Senators

NOTE.—The independent case has been introduced to avoid inaccuracy and confusion in the definition and application of the nominative case.

The possessive case of nouns is formed—

1. By adding an apostrophe (') and *s*, when the noun does not terminate in *s*.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

Susan's doll	Peter's vision
Alfred's top	Paul's defence
Edward's form	Isaiah's prophecies
Frederick's store	Stephen's martyrdom

2. By adding an apostrophe only, when the noun terminates in *s*.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

Boys' hats	Mechanics' institute
Girls' bonnets	Merchants' exchange
Eagles' wings	Goodness' sake
Objectors' reasons	Righteousness' sake

There are few exceptions to the preceding rules, and these are found chiefly in words ending in *nce*, when the following word begins with *s*; as, *conscience' sake*, *appearance' sake*.

RULE OF SYNTAX.

One noun governs another noun or pronoun that depends upon it in the possessive case.

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

Susan's doll.

Susan's is a proper noun, feminine gender, singular number, third person, possessive case, and is governed by *doll*.

RULE. One noun governs another noun or pronoun that depends upon it in the possessive case.

THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The personal pronouns are simple substitutes. There are five of them ; namely, *I, thou, he, she, and it.*

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

	Singular.	Plural.	
First Person	<i>Nom.</i> I	<i>Nom.</i> We	} Mas. or Fem. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> My	<i>Poss.</i> Our	
	<i>Obj.</i> Me	<i>Obj.</i> Us	
	<i>Ind.</i> I	<i>Ind.</i> We	
Second Person	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	} Mas. or Fem. Gender.
	<i>Nom.</i> Thou	<i>Nom.</i> Ye or you	
	<i>Poss.</i> Thy	<i>Poss.</i> Your	
	<i>Obj.</i> Thee	<i>Obj.</i> You	
	<i>Ind.</i> Thou	<i>Ind.</i> Ye or you	
Third Person	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	} Mas. Gender.
	<i>Nom.</i> He	<i>Nom.</i> They	
	<i>Poss.</i> His	<i>Poss.</i> Their	
	<i>Obj.</i> Him	<i>Obj.</i> Them	
	<i>Ind.</i> He	<i>Ind.</i> They	
Third Person	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	} Fem. Gender.
	<i>Nom.</i> She	<i>Nom.</i> They	
	<i>Poss.</i> Her	<i>Poss.</i> Their	
	<i>Obj.</i> Her	<i>Obj.</i> Them	
	<i>Ind.</i> She	<i>Ind.</i> They	
Third Person	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	} Neu. Gender.
	<i>Nom.</i> It	<i>Nom.</i> They	
	<i>Poss.</i> Its	<i>Poss.</i> Their	
	<i>Obj.</i> It	<i>Obj.</i> Them	
	<i>Ind.</i> It	<i>Ind.</i> They	

THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

My hat	Our house
My gun	Our friends
My top	Our cattle
My ship	Our carriage

Thy home	Your office
Thy cottage	Your company
Thy dwelling	Your society
Thy residence	Your association

His duty	Their sickness
His interest	Their diseases
His concern	Their misfortunes
His litigation	Their disasters

Her beauty	Its population
Her conduct	Its productions
Her deportment	Its commerce
Her acquirements	Its magnitude

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUN.

The compound personal pronouns are formed by adding *self* or *selves*, to *my, our, thy, your, him, her, it, and them.*

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

My hat.

My is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, possessive case, and is governed by *hat*.

RULE. One noun governs another noun or pronoun that depends upon it in the possessive case.

Declension of the Compound Personal Pronouns.

	Singular.	Plural.	
First Person	<i>Nom.</i> Myself	<i>Nom.</i> Ourselves	Mas. or Fem. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> —	<i>Poss.</i> —	
	<i>Obj.</i> Myself	<i>Obj.</i> Ourselves	
	<i>Ind.</i> Myself	<i>Ind.</i> Ourselves	
Second Person	<i>Nom.</i> Thyself	<i>Nom.</i> Yourselves	Mas. or Fem. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> —	<i>Poss.</i> —	
	<i>Obj.</i> Thyself	<i>Obj.</i> Yourselves	
	<i>Ind.</i> Thyself	<i>Ind.</i> Yourselves	
Third Person	<i>Nom.</i> Himself	<i>Nom.</i> Themselves	Mas. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> —	<i>Poss.</i> —	
	<i>Obj.</i> Himself	<i>Obj.</i> Themselves	
	<i>Ind.</i> Himself	<i>Ind.</i> Themselves	
Third Person	<i>Nom.</i> Herself	<i>Nom.</i> Themselves	Fem. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> —	<i>Poss.</i> —	
	<i>Obj.</i> Herself	<i>Obj.</i> Themselves	
	<i>Ind.</i> Herself	<i>Ind.</i> Themselves	
Third Person	<i>Nom.</i> Itself	<i>Nom.</i> Themselves	Neu. Gender.
	<i>Poss.</i> —	<i>Poss.</i> —	
	<i>Obj.</i> Itself	<i>Obj.</i> Themselves	
	<i>Ind.</i> Itself	<i>Ind.</i> Themselves	

The pronouns on this page are also denominated reciprocal pronouns. Pupils need not learn to decline them, until they have advanced to that part of the grammar, where their application is illustrated.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective pronouns are definitive words placed before nouns, to modify their application.

They are divided into three classes; namely, the distributive, the definite, and the indefinite.

RULE OF SYNTAX.

Adjective pronouns belong to nouns.

DISTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The distributive adjective pronouns limit the noun to separate objects. They are, *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

Each visitor	Either way
Each person	Either book
Each animal	Either dilemma
Every pupil	Neither competitor
Every example	Neither conclusion
Every object	Neither candidate

DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The definitive adjective pronouns point out the noun in a definite manner. They are, *this*, *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*; *former*, *latter*, *same*, *said*, *afore-said*, *aforementioned*, *which*, and *what*.

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

Each visitor.

Each is a distributive adjective pronoun, and belongs to *visitor*.

RULE. Adjective pronouns belong to nouns.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

This lion	The former letter
These lions	The latter end
That servant	The said John Doe
Those servants	The aforesaid James Carter
The same tiger	The aforementioned Peter Wilson

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The indefinite adjective pronouns point out the noun in an indefinite manner. The principal words of this class are, *one, no, some, other, another, all, such, any, many, much, several, few, whole, little, whatever, whatsoever, whichever, and whichsoever.*

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

One evening	Such nonsense
No person	Any officers
Some news	Many voters
Other matters	Few lemons
Another speculation	Whole numbers
All nations	Little reason

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Some, little, several, few, much, and many are compared ; thus,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Some	More Less	Most Least
Little		
Several		
Much		
Many		
Few	Fewer	Fewest
Few has also		

DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

One and other are sometimes declined by cases.

Singular.		Plural.
Nom.	One	Nom. Ones
Poss.	One's	Poss. Ones'
Obj.	One	Obj. Ones
Ind.	One	Ind. Ones
Singular.		Plural.
Nom.	Other	Nom. Others
Poss.	Other's	Poss. Others'
Obj.	Other	Obj. Others
Ind.	Other	Ind. Others

Another is declined like *other*, as it is the same word, with the article *an* prefixed. It is used only in the singular number.

THE POSSESSIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Mine	His	Ours	Theirs
Thine	Hers	Yours	

These words represent not only the possessor, but also the thing or things possessed. They are used only in the nominative and objective cases.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who	Which	That
-----	-------	------

A relative pronoun is a word that represents a preceding word, and introduces a verbal form without the aid of a conjunction.

DECLENSION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
Nom. Who	Nom. Which	Nom. That
Poss. Whose	Poss. Whose	Poss. —
Obj. Whom	Obj. Which	Obj. That

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who Which What

These words are denominated interrogative pronouns, when they are used for interrogation without a following noun to which they may belong.

THE INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Which What

These words are denominated interrogative adjective pronouns, when they are used for interrogation before nouns to which they belong.

THE COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

What Whoever
Whatever Whosoever
Whatsoever Whoso

These words are thus denominated, when they include in themselves the force of an antecedent and a relative. They sustain the relations of the words which they represent.

The words *ever* and *soever* are frequently added to *who*, *which*, and *what*; and the words thus formed are classed according to their application. *What*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*, when compound relative pronouns, are used either in the nominative or objective case. *Who*, when combined with *ever* or *soever*, is declined by cases, as in the preceding page. *Ever* and *soever* are the same in every case. *Whoso* is a contraction of *whosoever*.

NOTE.—Examples illustrating the application of the several kinds of pronouns have not been given, because pupils cannot understand this difficult part of grammar at this stage of advancement. The illustrations will be introduced hereafter.

A SENTENCE.

A sentence is two or more words which express an affirmation, an interrogation, a command, an exhortation, a petition, or an intimation.

Examples of Sentences.

AFFIRMATION.

I reflect.
I am studious.
He is the man.
John wrote a letter.
The lad was punished.

INTERROGATION.

Do you reflect?
Art thou studious?
Is he the man?
Did John write a letter?
Was the lad punished?

COMMAND, EXHORTATION, AND PETITION.

Reflect thou.	Be of good cheer.
Be studious.	Hear our cry.
Be a good man.	Forgive our sins.
Write a letter.	We beseech thee.
Be thou punished.	May we find thy favor.

INTIMATION.

When he has agreed to the measure, I will advise you.
Should he pay promptly, I will trust him again.
If he will go immediately, he may arrive in time.
Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.
Watch the door of thy lips, lest thou utter folly.

The noun or its substitute is the foundation of sentences. But no assemblage of words can constitute a sentence without a verb, introduced by the direct influence of a nominative case.

THE VERB.

A verb is a word which commonly expresses action or being.

The verb is usually introduced into sentences by the direct agency of a noun or pronoun in the nominative case; and it may be distinguished from other classes of words by this peculiarity.

Examples for Imitation.

I am.	The cradle rocks.
James is.	The horses run.
Animals live.	The ladies chat.
The lady sleeps.	The tree falls.
The servants wait.	The people vote.
Farmers raise grain.	Tanners tan hides.
Millers grind corn.	Tailors make clothes.
Bakers bake bread.	Barbers cut hair.
Brewers brew beer.	Merchants sell goods.
Butchers sell meat.	Authors write books.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

Verbs are divided into transitive, intransitive, and passive.

NOTE.—The old terms, *active* and *neuter*, have been rejected in the classification of the verb, because they do not well express the distinctions proposed. But they can be easily retained, should the teacher prefer them. It is presumed, however, that the change will be generally approved, as it has long been sanctioned by the best writers on the subject of English Grammar.

THE TRANSITIVE VERB.

The transitive verb expresses an action which terminates on an object.

Examples for Imitation.

Fishermen catch fish.	Lawyers plead law.
Shipwrights build vessels.	Physicians cure diseases.
Mariners traverse oceans.	Dentists repair teeth.
Clergymen exhort sinners.	Teachers instruct pupils.

THE INTRANSITIVE VERB.

The intransitive verb expresses being or action which does not terminate on an object.

Examples for Imitation.

He is.	The snail crawls.
The horses stand.	The oxen walk.
The girls blush.	The lamb skips.
The faces burn.	The child cries.
The interests clash.	The serpents hiss.

THE PASSIVE VERB.

The passive verb expresses action received by the nominative noun or pronoun which introduces it into the sentence.

Examples for Imitation.

Grain is raised.	Hides are tanned.
Corn is ground.	Clothes are made.
Bread is baked.	Hair is cut.
Beer is brewed.	Goods are sold.
Meat is sold.	Books are written.

VARIATIONS OF VERBS.

Verbs are varied by mode and tense, number and person.

MODE.

Mode is the manner of expressing action or being. There are five modes; namely, the indicative, the subjunctive, the potential, the imperative, and the infinitive.

A verb in the indicative mode, simply indicates or declares a thing.

A verb in the subjunctive mode, by the aid of a conjunction, expresses action or being in a doubtful or conditional manner.

A verb in the potential mode expresses action or being under a possibility, permission, necessity, ability, determination, or obligation; or it asks a question in the same form.

A verb in the imperative mode, expresses authority, exhortation, or entreaty.

A verb in the infinitive mode expresses action or being unlimited by person or number.

TENSE.

Tense is the time in which the verb expresses action or being.

There are six tenses; namely, the present, the indefinite past, the present perfect, the prior perfect, the indefinite future, and the prior future.

NOTE.—Pupils need not commit to memory the definitions of the several modes and tenses, until they again meet them in the conjugation of the verb *to go*.

The present tense denotes present action or being.

The indefinite past tense denotes action or being as indefinitely past.

The present perfect tense denotes action or being as past at some period of time including the present.

The prior perfect tense denotes action or being as past at or before some other time specified.

The indefinite future tense denotes action or existence as indefinitely future.

The prior future tense denotes action or being which will take place at or before some other future time.

THE PARTICIPLE.

A participle is a word that partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective.

Participles are derived from verbs. Each complete verb supplies three participles; namely, the present, the perfect, and the prior perfect.

NOTE.—The names of five of the tenses have been varied to express their meaning with greater precision; but, to prevent all inconveniences which might arise from these changes, the old terms are placed on the right of the new in the regular conjugation of the verb. Should the teacher prefer the old terms, he can use them in grammatic solution without inconvenience.

The names of the tenses here presented have been before proposed by authors of considerable note, and it is believed that many more will adopt them as soon as it can be done with safety to their works.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

The conjugation of a verb is a regular arrangement of its several parts in its modes, tenses, and participles.

In every complete verb, there are three principal parts; namely, the present tense, the indefinite past tense, and the perfect participle.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

A verb is regular, when it forms the indefinite past tense and the perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense.

A verb is irregular, when it does not form the indefinite past tense and the perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

An auxiliary verb is a word used in the conjugation of other verbs.

LIST OF AUXILIARY VERBS.

May	Might
Can	Could
Shall	Should
Will	Would
Must	Do
Be	Have

Do, *be*, and *have* are also principal verbs, being complete in all the tenses and participles. Explanations of the meaning and application of the auxiliary verbs are unnecessary, as both can be learned from the examples proposed for parsing and imitation.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

In the English language there are five distinct verbal forms of construction, to which phrases are prefixed and appended; namely, the intransitive, the intransitive post-adjective, the intransitive post-substantive, the transitive, and the passive.

THE INTRANSITIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the intransitive form are a nominative case, and an intransitive verb, introduced by it into the sentence.

Examples of the Intransitive form.

I am.	Doctors differ.
It was.	The horses pranced.
He went.	The wolf howled.
She absconded.	The passengers embarked.

THE INTRANSITIVE POST-ADJECTIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the intransitive post-adjective form are a nominative case, and an intransitive verb, commonly the verb *to be*, introduced by it into the sentence, together with an adjective, belonging to that nominative case.

Examples of the Intransitive post-adjective form.

I am cautious.	The boys are obedient.
She was fashionable.	The servants were honest.
He has been indignant.	Our farmers have been rich.
The lady will be humane.	Kings will be despotic.

THE INTRANSITIVE POST-SUBSTANTIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the intransitive post-substantive form, are a nominative case, and an intransitive verb, commonly the verb *to be*, introduced by it into the sentence, together with another nominative case having reference to the same thing.

Examples of the Intransitive post-substantive form.

I am he.	We are gardeners.
He was the person.	You were teachers.
The man has been a miller.	They have been butchers.
This girl will be a beauty.	His brothers will be tailors.

THE TRANSITIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the transitive form are a nominative case, and a transitive verb introduced by it into the sentence, together with an objective case governed by the verb.

Examples of the Transitive form.

I read history.	Charles struck William.
He studies grammar.	Architects plan buildings.
Farmers plough the soil.	The sheep yields wool.
Hunters kill wild animals.	The orchard affords fruit.

THE PASSIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the passive form are a nominative case, and a passive verb introduced by it into the sentence.

Examples of the Passive form.

I was accosted.	The note may be paid.
He was accused.	The bill should be allowed.
She was applauded.	Children must be taught.
I shall be delighted.	Sinners will be confounded.

NUMBER AND PERSON OF THE VERB.

The number and person of the verb are modifications in which it agrees with its nominative case. The verb, in every tense of the indicative, subjunctive, and potential modes, has two numbers and three persons. In the imperative, it has two numbers and one person. In the infinitive, it is not distinguished by either number or person.

The English verb, unlike that of many other languages, is but little varied to express either number or person. No ambiguity, however, arises from this deficiency, as both are easily determined by the nominative case, when the form of the verb fails to furnish the indications.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

The agent which introduces the verb into the sentence must be in the nominative case.

The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

Transitive verbs govern the objective case.

Any verb may have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to the same thing.

THE INTRANSITIVE FORM.

The essential elements of the intransitive form are a nominative case, and an intransitive verb introduced by it into the sentence.

THE INTRANSITIVE VERB.

The intransitive verb expresses action or being which does not terminate on an object.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO GO.

Present Tense.	Indefinite Past Tense.	Perfect Participle.
Go	Went	Gone

INDICATIVE MODE.

A verb in the indicative mode simply indicates or declares a thing; or it asks a question in the same form.

PRESENT TENSE.

The present tense denotes present action or being.

Singular.	Plural.
1 Person. I go	1 Person. We go
2 Person. Thou goest	2 Person. You go
3 Person. He goes	3 Person. They go

NOTE.—*Ye*, being seldom used, is commonly omitted in the conjugation of the verb. But pupils can be made to understand its use just as well as if it were introduced into every tense. *Ye* is employed chiefly in the solemn and burlesque styles. General usage sanctions the application of the pronoun *you* to a single individual, but, in all cases, the verb to which it is nominative case must have the plural form. *Thou* is but little used for ordinary inter-communication; but, as it is always used in the Sacred Scriptures, and generally in the solemn style, it has been retained in the conjugation of the verb throughout.

Examples for Parsing and Imitation.

I err.	We fail.
Thou comest.	You grow.
The seal dives.	The birds flit.

EXAMPLES OF PARSING.

I err.

I is a personal pronoun, singular number, first person, and nominative case to *err*.

RULE. The agent which introduces the verb into the sentence, must be in the nominative case.

Err is a regular, intransitive verb, indicative mode, present tense, singular number, first person, and agrees with *I*.

RULE. The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

NOTE.—The tenses which are formed by the principal verb alone, are called simple tenses, and those which are formed by the help of one auxiliary or more, are called compound tenses.

NOTE.—Before proceeding to analyze the sentences for parsing and imitation according to the above formula, the teacher is requested to see that the pupils understand the meaning of each word, and the class to which it belongs. They should also be required to decline the nouns and pronouns, and conjugate the verbs in their principal parts, to determine whether they are regular or irregular. At this stage of advancement, pupils should begin to learn to conjugate the irregular verbs, a complete list of which is given a few pages in advance of this. A whole class might be made to repeat them together. In this way, they may be all committed to memory in a few hours. A great number of regular verbs should also be conjugated in the same manner.

NOTE.—The pronoun being a mere substitute for the noun, the adjective belongs to it by the same rule. The word pronoun, however, may be introduced into the rule, when it would be applicable.