

SOME TOPICS  
IN  
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

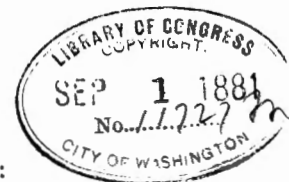
*For the PUPIL,*

*The TEACHER, and*

*The GENERAL READER.*

*Eng. Gram*  
EDITED BY  
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## PREFACE.

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ABOUT twenty years ago the instructor in grammar in the Westfield, Mass., State Normal School attempted to teach a class of teacher-pupils the principles of English grammar as inculcated in "the text-books." The attempt was not successful and was never renewed. The least to be said is that "the text-books" are unsatisfactory to intelligent pupils.

The teacher mentioned found himself driven by necessity to devise a system and to construct definitions acceptable to a class of conscientious pupils of ordinary intelligence. The statements of principles and the arrangement of the topics herein presented are in their essential features the product of his endeavor, and issue from the test of twenty years of discussion by the members of the Westfield Normal School.

Teachers are almost unanimous in condemning the grammars as untruthful, or inconsistent, or complicated, or as combining these faults. Many English grammars are untruthful, because they ascribe to the English language characteristics belonging to the Latin, and the Greek, and the Anglo-Saxon, but which our language either has never possessed or has cast off. The inconsistency of some grammars is owing in part to this untruthfulness and in part to the great difficulty of framing definitions capable of surviving the

test of application. The division of words into classes should be made upon some uniform and trustworthy basis. But grammarians have failed to perceive this, and hence inconsistency has been inevitable.

Some grammars are complicated because they intermix "language lessons" with grammar. Grammar, like zoology, and geology, and chemistry, is, as a science, but a record in a convenient, classified form, of facts. A knowledge of grammar does not insure correct speech. Many a child uses correct language who has never studied grammar, or, perhaps, has never even heard of it; many a teacher is faulty in speech who is thoroughly versed in grammar. To teach correct habits of speech would seem, then, to be not *the* province of grammar; it is the province of "language lessons." And "language lessons" should form a part of *all* the child's training, both at school and at home.

The following are the distinctive features of this work:

The presentation of the subject is natural. Every principle is illustrated *before* it is stated. The student is thus led, first, to recognize the principle, and afterwards, to give it formal expression. As a result his attention is directed beyond the text-book and its formal statements, and is fixed upon the English language and its principles. He is led to *think*. The book only guides.

Traditions have been disregarded. The work is based on the English language. The aim has been to record the facts, and to avoid ascribing to our lan-

guage characteristics that it does not possess. To secure consistency, the classifications and the definitions have been rested upon uniform and well-tested bases.

To make the work concise it was necessary to narrow the field. There has been no attempt to make the book "complete." It is of little importance to the average pupil how much the learned know about language. But it is of first importance how much time he shall be made to spend in the study of grammar and how well that time shall be spent. Recognizing this fact, the editor has not hesitated to omit much that heretofore has been deemed essential, but which is really cumbersome in a text-book; and, in his determination to consider the little time pupils have at their disposal, and the comparative unimportance of a wide knowledge of technical grammar, he has attempted to select from the great mass of material only those facts of which one can least afford to be ignorant. If the book does not contain all that a teacher could wish her pupils might know, the omissions have been made deliberately and for the pupils' sake, with the purpose of furnishing a book that they can *use*. It is with this purpose that the book has been divided into TOPICS and HELPS: the one containing only the bare subject matter, presented in a simple and straightforward manner, without comment and without superfluous illustration; while the other contains all that seems necessary of explanation and illustration.

The editor wishes to disclaim any intention of promulgating a creed of English grammar. His devoted wish has been to present the truth and to

furnish a trustworthy guide to the grammatical study of his mother tongue. Should there be any hesitation to accept the principles herein stated, he begs leave to be excused from resting his case upon any one's doctrine, but to be permitted to appeal to the English language of to-day.

In preparing this little book the only part of the work that was a task was the determining what not to omit. All teachers are agreed that a hand-book should be brief; but all are not agreed upon what are essentials and what are not. However, there has been no hesitation in excluding foreign matter, such as belongs to the province of rhetoric and etymology. So with the many subdivisions of the classes of words. It will be seen that the work is not a course of "language lessons."

The editor desires criticism upon his system, and most cordially invites suggestions concerning his material.

My thanks are due to Mr. J. G. Scott, to whose instructions I owe my acquaintance with this, his system of grammar, and whose counsel has been of great value to me in the preparation of these topics.

HEMPSTEAD, L. I., N. Y.  
Aug. 1881.

A. H., EDITOR.

## PLAN.

[For full Index to Pages see the end of the Book.]

### TOPICS.

Grammar, def. (=defined.)  
English Grammar, def.

Propositions, parts.

Subject, def.  
Predicate, def.  
Attribute, def.  
Copula, def.

Proposition, def.

Classes of Words, general divisions.

Nouns, def.  
Pronouns, def.  
Adjectives, def.  
(To limit, def.)

Verbs, def.  
(Object of a Verb, def.)

Adverbs, def.  
Prepositions, def.  
(Object of a Preposition, def.)

Conjunctions, def.  
Participles, def.  
Infinitives, def.

Propositions, kinds.

Declarative.  
Imperative.  
Interrogative.  
Simple.  
Compound.  
Complex.

Clauses.  
(Phrases.)

Uses.

## PLAN.

Classes of Words, separately studied.

Nouns : Some kinds.

Properties.

Numbers, def.

Genders, def.

Cases, def.

Rules.

Pronouns : Some kinds.

Properties.

Persons, def.

Genders, Numbers, Cases.

Rules.

Adjectives : Some kinds.

Properties.

Comparison.

Verbs : Some kinds.

Properties.

Persons, Numbers,

Tenses, def.

Tense phrases.

Rules.

Adverbs : Some kinds.

Comparison.

Conjunctions : Some kinds.

Participles : Imperfect.

Perfect.

Infinitives: Root.

In "ing."

## HELPS.

Hints, Examples, Illustrations, Lists

## TOPICS.

REMARK.

The Topics contain mainly the bare substance of the various subjects in such form that the student may readily refer to them for the salient facts of grammar. The Helps (see p. 73) contain remarks useful to the students who need additional assistance, and to teachers who desire hints concerning the presentation of the topics. *The teacher should read both parts of this book through before using it in class.*

## TOPICS.

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### DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR.

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#### THE FIELD OF STUDY LIMITED.

- 1, a. Every word is said to express an idea.
- b. Words may be combined in various ways. For example, the words **horse** and **black** may be written **horse black**, or **horse black** or **black horse**. In the first two cases there is not any necessary connection of the ideas expressed by **horse** and **black**. But in the third case, on account of the arrangement of the two words, we are led to connect the idea expressed by **black** with the idea expressed by **horse**. When words are combined as **black** and **horse** are in the third example, they are said to be **RELATED**. Whence it appears that
- c. **Words are related** when they are so combined as to lead us to put together the ideas expressed by them.
- d. Just as we say that things which are combined are in a combined state, we may say of the words

Grammar defined.

**black horse**, or any other *related* words, that they are in a related state. To such a state we will give the name **RELATION**; hence,

e. The **relation of words** is the state words are in when they are related.

2, a. In the expression,

**he mended his own coat,**

the word **his** indicates ownership; the word **he** does not. **His** is related to the other words in one way; **he** is related to them in another way. The two words, then, differ in their relations to the expression. The same is true of **they** and **their** in

**they knew their business.**

b. These illustrations show us that words may be used in **different relations**.

c. Moreover, **he** and **his**, though differently spelled, are practically one and the same word. They differ in form. This is true of **they** and **their** also. Hence it appears, too, that a word may have **different forms**.

d. Now it would not be proper to use **his** in the place of **he**, in the first expression, and **he** in the place of **his**, saying,

**his mended he own coat.**

Nor would it be proper to say

**their knew they business.**

In short, we may not use different forms of words indiscriminately in different relations.

Grammar defined.

e. Words, then, may be used in different relations, and for various relations various forms may be used, but not promiscuously. In studying language we may gain a knowledge of the **relations of words** and of the **forms words take in their various relations**. Such knowledge we will call **GRAMMAR**. Therefore,

f. **Grammar** is a knowledge of the relations of words and of the forms words take in their various relations.

g. **English grammar** is a knowledge of the relations of words in the English language and of the forms the words take in their various relations.

(For Remarks on the Definition of Grammar, see p. 77.)

## PARTS OF PROPOSITIONS.

## DEFINITION OF THE PROPOSITION.

3, a. By means of the expression

snow is melting,

something is said of the *substance* snow. The substance snow, then, is that of which something is said.

The *word* snow is a part of the whole expression; it is used to represent the substance snow, that is, to represent that of which something is said. Such a part is called the SUBJECT of an expression, therefore,

b. The **Subject** of an expression is that part of the expression which is used to represent that of which something is said.

c. We may say

the snow is melting, or

the exposed snow is melting, or

the slowly falling snow is melting.

In these examples the snow, and the exposed snow, and the slowly falling snow, are all parts representing that of which something is said. Hence it will be seen that the subject of an expression may be not one word only, but may comprise a number of words.

d. But in each of these examples the word snow is the only single word in the subject which may be used alone as the subject of the expression. Such a

## Divisions of the proposition.

single word, when it is one of a number of words forming a subject, is called the BARE SUBJECT.

e. The several words, including the bare subject, which together form the whole subject, are called the COMPLETE SUBJECT.

In using the term *subject* we shall designate the bare subject, except when the context clearly indicates the other meaning.

4, a. Again, in

snow is melting,

is melting is a part by means of which something is said concerning the substance snow, that is, concerning that which is represented by the subject. Such a part of an expression is called the PREDICATE; hence,

b. The **Predicate** of an expression is that part of the expression by means of which something is said of that represented by the subject.

c. Predicates, also, may be BARE PREDICATES and COMPLETE PREDICATES; bare and complete applied to predicates having a signification similar to that of bare and complete applied to subjects.

5, a. Referring to the preceding example, the word melting is a part of the predicate which indicates a condition of the substance snow, that is, a condition of that represented by the subject. In the expression

snow is white,

white is a part of the predicate which indicates a

Divisions of the proposition.

quality of that represented by the subject. Such a part of an expression, as either *melting* or *white*, is called an **ATTRIBUTE**; therefore,

b. The **Attribute** of an expression is that part of the predicate which is used to indicate a condition or a quality of that represented by the subject.

Attributes, also, may be **BARE** or **COMPLETE**.

If the definitions of a predicate and an attribute are rightly interpreted, it will be understood that a predicate asserts, while an attribute merely indicates.

6, a. In both

*snow is melting,* and  
*snow is white,*

*is* is used to connect the subject and the attribute, and is a part of the predicate. Such a part is called the **COPULA**; consequently,

b. The **Copula** of an expression is that part of the predicate which is used to connect the subject and the attribute.

Observe that the definition does not say that a copula does not assert. The copula *is* the assertive element in predicates composed of a copula and an attribute.

c. In the examples above, the copula is composed of a single word. Let the expressions,

*the snow has been melting,* and  
*the snow will have been melting,* and  
*the snow is just about to be melted,*

illustrate the fact that a copula may be composed of two or more words.

Divisions of the proposition.

7, a. *Snow is melting,*  
*the snow falls,*  
*the wind has begun to blow violently,* and  
*the beautiful evening star is sinking toward*  
*the western horizon,*

are all expressions combining a subject and a predicate. Such a combination is called a **PROPOSITION**; therefore,

b. A **Proposition** is a combination of a subject and a predicate.

It follows that an expression which lacks either a subject or a predicate is not a proposition.

c. There are various kinds and uses of propositions, the description of some of which involves the use of terms we have not yet defined. The subject will be treated farther on (see p. 29).

See p. 84 concerning the basis of the divisions of the proposition.

8. The expression,

*he can write as well as I,*

contains one complete proposition, *he can write*. But the expression is clearly intended to convey the idea that the person represented by **I**, also, can write, although *I can write* is not said in so many words. To completely express the sense of the statement it would be necessary to add the words *can write*. Any part which, though not actually employed, yet really belongs to a statement, is said to be **UNDERSTOOD**. It is always permissible in explaining an expression, to insert any understood part or parts. Indeed, it is not only permissible but necessary.

## CLASSES OF WORDS.

9. **REMARK.**—The combination of letters *chip*, employed in one connection, may mean a bit of substance, say wood or marble, obtained in a certain way. The same combination of letters, *chip*, employed in another connection, may mean a certain act combining breaking and splitting. Used in the one way *chip* will be one word; used in the other way it will be a different word from the first. In the one case it will belong to a certain class of words; in the other case it will belong to an entirely different class. The same in effect is true of many other words, numerous illustrations of which will present themselves to the student of grammar. It is a principle which should be borne distinctly and constantly in mind, that, in classifying words, dependence must not be placed upon spelling, solely, as a means of distinguishing different words. In what ways the necessary distinctions can be safely made will appear in the topics following. (For Exercises on the several classes of words turn to the corresponding sections in HELPS.)

### THE CLASSES OF WORDS DEFINED.

10, a. Anything of which we may think is called an **OBJECT OF THOUGHT**.

b. In the expression,  
*the child is father to the man,*  
*child* names an object of thought and is used as the subject of a proposition. Any word that names an object of thought, and that may be used as a subject, is a **NOUN**; therefore,

### The classes of words defined.

c. A **Noun** is a word which names an object of thought, and which may be used as the subject of a proposition.

So with *father* and *man*, above; each names an object of thought, and each may be used as the subject of a proposition. *Father* and *man* are therefore nouns.

d. It is not enough in defining a noun to say a noun is a name. For every word may be said to be the name of an idea. But not every word is a noun.

e. There is one exception to every definition of a class of words, viz., a word employed as the name of itself, as when we say,

“*truly*” is an adverb.

Any word so used becomes a noun.

There is a distinction between *may be used* and *is used* which the student should carefully note. (See p. 20, e.)

11, a. The word *his*, in

*the emperor has met his fate,*

is not a noun, but is used in the stead of *emperor*, which is a noun. It is a **PRONOUN**; hence,

b. A **Pronoun** is a word, not a noun, used instead of a noun.

12, a. The word *soldiers*, when used alone, includes in its application all soldiers. But, by using the word *valiant* with the word *soldiers*, the application of *soldiers* is made more definite and we are led to apply it to only those soldiers who are valiant.

## The classes of words defined.

When one word is so used with another word, it is said to LIMIT or RESTRICT that other word; therefore,

b. A word **limits** or **restricts** another word when it is so used with that other word as to lead us to make a more definite application of it.

c. The **valiant** soldiers rushed into the jaws of death.

Here **valiant** is neither a noun nor a pronoun; it is placed directly before a noun, **soldiers**, and it is used to limit that noun. Any word of which these things are true, and which may be so used, is an **ADJECTIVE**; from which it follows that

d. An **Adjective** is a word, neither noun nor pronoun, which may be placed directly before a noun to limit it.

The word *else*, generally considered an adjective, is an exception to this definition. It cannot properly be placed directly before a noun to limit it.

e. In

the grain fields were green but became golden, green and golden are neither nouns nor pronouns. They are adjectives although they are not placed directly before a noun to limit it; but they *may be* so placed and therein lies the distinction.

f. In the expressions,

he was a man of means, and  
to be thought honest is creditable,

a man of means, in the one case, limits he, in the

## The classes of words defined.

other, to be thought honest, is limited by creditable. We learn, then, that not only may one word limit another word, but several words may together limit or be limited as if they were a single word. (See p. 34.)

13. a. Many gases burn,  
some gases are dense.

**Burn**, in the first example is used as a predicate; **are**, in the second, as a copula. A word which may be made either a predicate or a copula is called a **VERB**; hence,

b. A **Verb** is a word which may be used as the predicate or the copula of a proposition.

REMARK.—Bear in mind that the definition does not say that a verb is a *group of words*, but that a verb is a *word*. In the expressions

the flower looks wilted,  
the flower seems wilted,  
the flower became wilted,

looks, seems, and became, are verbs. But looks wilted, taken together, do not constitute a verb. Nor are seems wilted and became wilted verbs. So, likewise, is wilted and has wilted are not verbs in

the flower is wilted,  
the flower has wilted.

Is and has are the verbs; wilted belongs to another class of words (see p. 68, a, b). So, again, in

I will have been gone two hours,

will is the verb; have, been, and gone belong to other

The classes of words defined.

classes. Concerning the treatment of verb phrases, see p. 117.

c. If we say

John struck James,

we represent John as acting and James as acted upon. That which acts we call the **SUBJECT OF AN ACTION**. That which is acted upon is the **OBJECT OF AN ACTION**. In the above expression the word **struck** expresses the action of which James is said to be the object, and it is a verb; the word **James** represents the object of the action expressed by that verb, and is a part of the predicate. Such a part of a predicate is called the **OBJECT OF A VERB**; therefore,

d. The **Object of a verb** is that part of the predicate of a proposition which represents the object of the action expressed by the verb.

Like a subject, an object is not necessarily one word.

e. According to the definition of an object of a verb, a verb, to have an object, must express action. But in the expressions,

Troy was,  
the king sat upon his throne,  
the mother mourned,

the verb **was** does not express action; the verb **sat** does express action, but does not take an object,—indeed, this verb rarely takes an object; and **mourned** expresses action without taking an object,

The classes of words defined.

though the verb **mourned** is used with an object quite as often as without.

f. Some verbs, then, do not take objects. Some verbs expressing action do not take objects. And some verbs expressing action take objects, but may be used without.

Verbs which may take an object, are often called **TRANSITIVE VERBS**; and those which may not, **INTRANSITIVE VERBS**. But it is clear, from the examples given, that whether a verb be really transitive or intransitive depends upon the way in which it is used in the given case. It will be sufficient to our purpose to say, when the occasion arises, that a verb is *used* **TRANSITIVELY** or **INTRANSITIVELY**, as the case may be.

14, a. The night was **very** dark,  
the maid does her **work** **quickly**.

**Very**, in the first example, is used to limit **dark**, an adjective; **quickly**, in the second, limits **does**, a verb; **work**, likewise, limits the verb, but **quickly**, as a limiting word, differs from **work** in not being the object of the verb. Any word which may be used as either **very** or **quickly** is used, is an **ADVERB**; therefore,

b. An **Adverb** is a word which may be used to limit an adjective, or to limit a verb without being the object of the verb.

c. He was **almost** dead,  
I **almost** fell,  
my task is **almost** finished,

The classes of words defined.

to a l m o s t succeed is not enough,  
she performed her part a l m o s t perfectly,  
the sun is a l m o s t over our heads.

In neither of the last four of these examples does **almost** limit either a verb or an adjective. But by consulting the first two examples it will be seen that this word **almost**, without change of meaning, *may be* used to limit either an adjective or a verb, without being its object. It is consequently an adverb in all six cases according to the definition (see p 23).

d. But this reasoning must not be misapplied. It does not follow that because some word spelled so and so is a member of a given class, therefore every word so spelled is a member of that class. For example, the words **form** and **setting** may be a verb and an adjective respectively, as in

the clouds form a curtain to the setting sun;  
but they are not a verb and an adjective respectively in  
as the sun was setting his form appeared to  
change.

It is quite obvious that **form** in the first illustration is different, not only in its use but also in its meaning and application, from **form** in the second. And the first **setting** differs from the second at least in use and application, and also somewhat in meaning. In fact, **form** and **setting** in the one example are different words from the corresponding words in the other. The same, in substance, may be truly said of many

The classes of words defined.

other words spelled alike (see p. 18, 9). These examples may serve to emphasize the principle that the identity of a word is not fixed by its spelling alone.

It happens that there is no word spelled **almost** belonging to a different class from that to which **almost** in the above example belongs. But when we meet with such words as **form** and **setting**, we should determine their meaning, and especially should ascertain what are their characteristic relations in propositions. We can then easily assign them to their respective classes.

15, a. The word **to** in  
the meteorite fell **to** the earth,

is used to connect the words **fell** and **earth**, and is not a copula. It is a PREPOSITION:

b. A **Preposition** is a word, not a copula, used to connect words.

c. Of the two words connected by the preposition, the word **earth** is the one which follows it. In  
that point I will reach **beyond**,

**beyond** is a preposition connecting **reach** and **point**, and **point** is that one of the two words connected, that would follow the preposition if the words were arranged in their natural order. **Earth** and **point** are the OBJECTS OF THE PREPOSITION. Hence the definition:

d. The **Object of a preposition** is that one of the two words connected which follows the preposi-

## The classes of words defined.

tion when the words are written in a natural order.

**16, a.** In the expression  
spring came and the snows disappeared,  
spring came is one proposition, and the snows disappeared is a second. The word **and** is used to *connect the two propositions*. In

spring came when the snows had disappeared,  
there are two propositions connected by **when**. As a connective, **and** differs from **when** in not being a part of either of the propositions connected; while **when**, in limiting both **came** and **disappeared**, is actually a part of both the propositions it connects. Such a word as **and** is a **CONJUNCTION** :

**b.** A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect two propositions without forming a part of either.

**c.** The word **when**, used above, is plainly an adverb. In its capacity of a connective it is called a **CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB**. (See pp. 23 and 67.)

**d.** A comparison of the uses of prepositions and conjunctions will show that while prepositions connect words as such, conjunctions, though they may be said to connect words, do not connect them as such, but only as they represent propositions. For example,

Mary and Thomas played  
is a short way of saying  
Mary played and Thomas played,

## The classes of words defined.

two propositions connected by **and**. Again,  
apples are as good as pears

is a way of saying  
pears are good; apples are as good.

**17, a.** In the proposition  
my watch is losing time,

the word **losing**, having its origin in **lose**, a verb, may be said to be derived from a verb; it takes an object, **time**, and in that respect is like a verb, and may be said to **partake of the nature of a verb**; it is used to limit a noun (**watch**), a use characteristic of adjectives, and may therefore be said to **partake of the nature of an adjective**. Any such word as **losing** is a **PARTICIPLE**; therefore,

**b.** A **Participle** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

**18, a.**

His illness arose from breathing impure air.

Here **breathing** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb. Moreover, it is the object of a preposition (**from**), a relation common with nouns, and so **partakes of the nature of a noun**. Such a word as **breathing** is an **INFINITIVE**; hence,

**b.** An **Infinitive** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of a noun.

**19.** Recalling the definitions of a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, &c., &c., it will appear that the division of words

The classes of words defined.

into classes is based upon the uses, or relations, of words as such in propositions. It has already been stated that the spelling of a word is not a safe guide in determining its class. (See p. 18.)

## 20. In

**I do not know, alas! what may happen,  
is it true? pooh! I don't care,  
this is, oh! so funny,**

**alas, pooh,** and **oh** are introduced quite regardless of relation and even of position, and might be given any other position, or be omitted altogether, without impairing the completeness of the proposition as such. Their use can perhaps be best described by the colloquial phrase, "thrown in;" and such words are accordingly called **INTERJECTIONS**. Since they do not bear grammatical relations to propositions they cannot be classed.

## 21. Many words, like

<b>herself,</b>	<b>handful,</b>	<b>mill-race,</b>
<b>pea-green,</b>	<b>underline,</b>	<b>notwithstanding,</b>
<b>double-quick,</b>	<b>forever,</b>	<b>overflowing,</b>

are composed of two or more words combined so intimately as to become practically one word. All the classes of words are drawn from in making compound words, and every class of words has compound words among its members. The class to which a compound word belongs is determined exactly as with other words, by the relations it may hold in propositions, and not by the class membership of the separate words composing it.

[Exercises, &c., in the HELPS.]

## PROPOSITIONS.

KINDS OF PROPOSITIONS

22. Comparing the propositions,  
**the work has been finished,  
finish the work,  
have you finished the work?**

it will appear that the first is used to make an assertion or declaration; the second to express a command; the third to make an inquiry or interrogation. Such a proposition as the first is a **DECLARATIVE PROPOSITION**. One like the second is an **IMPERATIVE PROPOSITION**. Any proposition like the third is an **INTERROGATIVE PROPOSITION**. These terms almost explain themselves.

- 23, a. **The work has been finished,  
the work has been finished and the laborers  
have been paid,  
when the work has been finished, the laborers  
shall be paid.**

Comparing these examples, the second and third will be seen to be composed each of two propositions, while the first is composed of only one. In the third example, **the work has been finished** cannot strictly be said to make an independent assertion. Its assertive force is dependent upon its connection, **through when, with the laborers shall be paid**, which, however, does have a propositional force of its own. The

Kinds of propositions.

principal part, then, is taken by the proposition, **the laborers shall be paid**; while the proposition **when the work is finished** merely limits the other by indicating the time or the condition of the payment, and thus takes a subordinate part. So that the one may be called a **PRINCIPAL PROPOSITION**, and the other a **SUBORDINATE OR DEPENDENT PROPOSITION**, terms which almost explain themselves.

**b.** In the second example neither of the propositions is dependent upon the other; they may both be called **INDEPENDENT PROPOSITIONS**.

**24, a.** Any proposition, like the first of the examples above, which contains only one subject and one predicate, is a **SIMPLE PROPOSITION**.

**b.** A proposition, like the second, composed of two or more independent and simple propositions, is a **COMPOUND PROPOSITION**.

**c.** A proposition, like the third, composed of a principal and one or more dependent propositions, is called a **COMPLEX PROPOSITION**.

**REMARK.**—The terms **COMPOUND-COMPLEX** and **COMPLEX-COMPOUND** are given to more complicated propositions. According to some grammarians, a simple proposition is one that is composed of only one subject and one predicate; and all others are compound propositions.

**d.** The word **CLAUSE** is a general term often used

Kinds of propositions.

to denote any one of the component propositions of a compound or a complex proposition.

**e.** The term **SENTENCE** is very commonly used in a sense practically equivalent to that of the term **PROPOSITION** as employed in this book. But most of the definitions of a sentence say, in substance, that a sentence is a combination of words together expressing a complete thought. Without assuming to question the accuracy of the definition, we may state that such definitions are based on the meaning of the sentence, not on the relations of the parts composing it, and are, therefore, logical definitions rather than grammatical. Terms employed in a grammar would best be used in a grammatical sense. If the student chooses, for the sake of variety, to use the term sentence with the meaning of the term proposition, no especial objection can be offered, provided he use the term with that meaning in every case.

**THE SIMPLE PROPOSITION.**

**25, a.** We have learned that a proposition is composed of two essential parts, a subject and a predicate. It has been seen that the subject of a proposition may be a name of something, or a word used instead of a name. But the expressions,

**the cow and the calf are dead,  
to wait is often tedious,  
it is growing cold, it rains, it hails,**

illustrate other constructions:

**b.** The first example illustrates the fact that *two or more* names (or their equivalents) may be so intimately connected as to form practically *one* grammatical subject, taking *one* verb or having *one* predicate.

The Simple Proposition.

c. By the second we are taught that an infinitive may be the subject of a proposition.

d. The propositions in the third example have for a subject the word *it*, but used here in the place of no definitely assignable noun or name. *It*, as here used, is called an IMPERSONAL PRONOUN, and, as a subject, an IMPERSONAL SUBJECT.

e. The word *there* may be used somewhat similarly, as in

*there once lived two princes.*

But in this case *there*, though occupying the position of a subject, is not really a subject. *Two princes* is the subject, and *there* is an EXPLETIVE.

26, a. In the expression,

*they paid him money,*

the noun *money* is object of the verb *paid*. So, also, is the pronoun *him*. But we may consider *money* to be more directly connected with *paid* than *him* is. That one of the objects of a verb which is most intimately connected with the verb is called the DIRECT OBJECT; the other, the INDIRECT OBJECT. In this case the expression, without change of meaning, may be made to read,

*they paid money to him.*

Here the word which was in the other example the indirect object of the verb, is made the object of a preposition, *to*. The indirect object of a verb is generally susceptible of such a transposition.

b. Participles and infinitives, as well as verbs, may take a direct and an indirect object.

Clauses.

C. REMARK.—Some persons hold that a verb never has an indirect object. They affirm that what we have called an INDIRECT OBJECT is always the object of a preposition expressed or understood.

d. In

*they called him a hero,*

the construction is different from that in

*they paid him money.*

In the latter, *money* represents one object of thought, and *him* an entirely different object. But, in the former, *hero* and *him* represent the same object. It is not customary to apply the terms *direct* and *indirect object* to words representing the *same* individual. The term ATTRIBUTIVE OBJECT may be applied to a word used as *hero* is used in this example.

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SOME USES OF PROPOSITIONS AS CLAUSES.

27, a. In

*how long we shall stay is not decided,*

*how long we shall stay* is a proposition, used as the subject. In this respect it is like a noun. Any word, or phrase, or clause, used as a noun, is said to be used SUBSTANTIVELY. Therefore, *how long we shall stay*, above, is used substantively. Clauses so used are called SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES. The term NOUN CLAUSE is used in the same sense.

b. But nouns may be used in other relations than that

Phrases.

of subject. So substantive clauses may be used in various relations.

28. In the expression,

the house you painted white is sold,

you painted white, equivalent to which you painted white, a dependent proposition, is used to limit *adjectively* the word house, a noun. The common name for a dependent proposition used adjectively is **ADJECTIVE CLAUSE**.

29. He stood where I could see him.

Where I could see him limits the verb stood *adverbially*. The student will readily apply the term **ADVERB CLAUSE**.

30. It has been already stated that parts of propositions are often omitted, and the term **understood** has been applied to such parts. The omission is called an **ELLIPSIS**. (See p. 17.)

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**PHRASES.**

31, a. In the proposition,

at the last it biteth like a serpent,

the three words at the last are equivalent to at last. Both of these expressions have the force of **finally**, an adverb, and a single word. We have already seen that in

he stood where I could see him,

where I could see him has an adverbial force, and

Phrases.

that it is a proposition. But **at the last** and **at last** are not propositions. Such a collection of words as **at the last** or **at last** is called a **PHRASE**; therefore,

b. A **Phrase** is a collection of words, not forming a proposition, which together have the force of a single member of some class of words.

32. Adverbs, as in the example above, are not the only words represented by phrases. With a little thought the student will be able to construct propositions containing phrases representing nearly all the other classes of words.

## THE CLASSES OF WORDS, SEPARATELY STUDIED.

### KINDS, PROPERTIES : RULES.

**33. REMARK.**—In defining the classes of words we have sought out some particular uses by which the members of a class may be distinguished. Every object, however, possesses qualities besides those which serve to distinguish it from objects of other classes. The same is true of words. They have uses and properties not mentioned in a definition, but whose mention is nevertheless necessary to a reasonably full description. We shall have to do with some of the most important of these latter, those we can least afford to overlook. We will study separately the several classes of words, following the order marked out in the preceding topics.

### NOUNS.

#### SOME KINDS OF NOUNS.

(Hints and Exercises in HELPS.)

**34.** We have seen that a word to be a NOUN must be a NAME. The examples,

boy, street, tune, country, and  
John, Broadway, Greenville, France,

show us that a word may be the name of an object as one of a class of objects ; or that it may be the name of an individual object distinguished by it from other individuals of the same class. Such names as *boy*, *street*, *tune*, *country*, coming under the first head, are

### The Noun : Numbers.

generally called COMMON NOUNS ; while names like *John*, *Broadway*, *Greenville*, *France*, the names of individual objects, are called PROPER NOUNS.

**35. COMPOUND NOUNS.** (See p. 28.)

**36.** Nouns like

assemblage, people, throng, herd,  
family, dozen, pair,

which in the singular signify a collection of things, are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS or COLLECTIVES.

### NUMBERS.

(Hints and Exercises in HELPS.)

**37, a.** In the expression,

listen to the song of songs,

*song* and *songs* are *forms* used respectively to distinguish one and more than one. Such forms of words are called NUMBERS ; therefore,

**b. Numbers** are forms of words used to distinguish one and more than one.

**c.** The form *song* distinguishes one from more than one ; *songs*, more than one from one. Such a form as the first is a SINGULAR NUMBER ; as the second, a PLURAL NUMBER. Other examples are *book*, *books* ; *man*, *men*. *Song*, *book*, *man*, are nouns ; therefore,

**d. Nouns have Numbers : SINGULAR and PLURAL.** *English nouns have only these two numbers.*

The Noun: Numbers.

**38.** In saying that nouns have numbers we apply the term nouns to the class nouns, not to any individual member of the class. And so with the names of other classes. For while it is true that nouns as a class have numbers, such nouns as *sheep, deer*, are exceptions. *Sheep* does not distinguish one from more than one, nor more than one from one. Nor is there any authorized form of the word *sheep* which serves such a purpose. In fact, the noun *sheep* has not any number. Likewise the noun *deer*.

**39.** Some words, again, often employ their singular form with a plural meaning, as,

*fish, pike, foot, ton.*

Such is especially true of collectives. For example,  
*dozen, set, pair, head* (of cattle).

**40.** Certain abstract objects of thought, such as thoughtfulness, simplicity, music, can hardly be conceived as existing in numbers, but only as one. Therefore, the names of such will have, as a rule, only one number form, the singular.

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**FORMATION OF PLURALS OF NOUNS.**

**41, a.** Plurals may be either **SPOKEN** OR **WRITTEN**. By pronouncing the plurals of the singular nouns, *hat, bag; watch*, it will appear that the spoken plurals of these words are produced respectively by adding the sound of **s**, **z**, and **ɛz** to the spoken singular. Plurals formed as these are, are **REGULAR SPOKEN PLURALS**. Other spoken plurals are **IRREGULAR**.

The Noun: Numbers.

**b.** In the first case the sound of **s** is added rather than the sound of **z**, because that sound combines more readily with the last sound of the singular; in the second case, the sound of **z** combines more readily with the last sound of the singular; in the third case neither the sound of **s** nor that of **z** will combine readily with the last sound of the singular, and therefore the sound of **ɛz** is added.

**42.** *Hats*, the written plural of the noun *hat*, is formed by adding **s** to the written singular; *bags*, the plural of *bag*, by adding likewise **s**; *watches*, plural of *watch*, by adding **es**. In these plurals the **s** represents the sound respectively of **s** and of **z**; and the **es**, the sound of **ɛz**. Such written plurals are **REGULAR WRITTEN PLURALS**. Other written plurals are **IRREGULAR**.

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**OF IRREGULAR WRITTEN PLURALS.**

(For Lists of Irregular Plurals see the end of the HELPS.)

**43.** *Beauty, duty, pony*, are nouns singular ending in **y** preceded by a consonant. The plurals of these words are *beauties, duties, ponies*, formed by substituting **i** for **y** and adding **es**. The plural of other similar nouns is formed in the same way.

**44.** *Hero, negro, potato*, are nouns singular ending in **o** preceded by a consonant. The plurals of these words are *heroes, negroes, potatoes*, formed by adding **es**. The plural of most similar nouns is formed in the same way.

## The Noun : Numbers.

45. Court-martial, man-of-war, are compound nouns, singular number. Of these the plurals are **courts-martial**, **men-of-war**, formed in each case by pluralizing the most important part of the word. Most compound nouns are thus pluralized.

46. The words **five**, **itch**, **plus**, are nouns singular; plurals, **fives**, **itches**, **pluses**. The first singular is generally represented by the figure **5**, the second by the letter **h**, the third by the sign **+**. When the singulars are thus represented, the plurals are commonly represented by **5's**, **h's**, **+'s**, i. e., by affixing an apostrophe and an **s** to the sign for the singular. The same is true generally of other figures, letters, and signs; and also of any word used as its own name, as,

the paragraph contains too many **a n d 's**.

47. The nouns **minutia** and **dogma** are words taken from foreign languages. For the plural of **minutia** we employ **minutiæ**, the regular foreign plural of that word. For the plural of **dogma** we generally use **dogmas**, formed by pluralizing in the English way; but we may use **dogmata**, the regular foreign plural of **dogma**. In general terms, then, we use the regular foreign plural of some foreign words, while of others we may use either the regular foreign plural or a plural formed according to the rule for English nouns.

If a foreign word is pluralized in both ways, the English plural is preferred in ordinary social conversation; and the foreign, in scientific.

There are many other irregular plurals which can be learned best, perhaps, by observation. Lists of irregular plurals will be found on p. 123.

## The Noun : Genders.

## GENDERS.

(Hints, Exercises, and Lists, in HELPS.)

48, a. In the expression,  
the prince and the princess are fond of society,

the form **prince** represents an object as belonging to one sex, and **princess** an object as belonging to the other sex. Hence we may affirm that they distinguish objects in regard to sex. Such forms of words are called **GENDERS**; therefore,

b. **Genders** are forms of words used to distinguish objects in regard to sex.

c. Such a form as **prince** is a *masculine gender* :

A **MASCULINE GENDER** is that form of a word which represents an object *as* belonging to the male sex.

d. Such a form as **princess** is a *feminine gender* :

A **FEMININE GENDER** is that form of a word which represents an object *as* belonging to the female sex.

REMARK.—When we say,

the moon sheds *her* light,

we use the form *her* to represent the moon *as* belonging to the female sex. The moon does not have sex.

e. **Prince**, **princess**, and likewise **count**, **countess**, are nouns; therefore,

**Nouns have Genders. MASCULINE and FEMININE.**

49. Most of the feminine genders that are formed from a masculine are made by the addition of **ess** to the masculine, as **heiress** from **heir**. The tendency now is (1881) to

The Noun: Cases.

discard the feminine forms and to use the masculine form indifferently for either male or female. Thus the editor of a paper may be either a man or a woman.

**50.** A form used to represent an object *as belonging to no sex*, if there is such a form, would be called a NEUTER GENDER.

In words such as *friend, child, parent*, there is nothing to distinguish the sex of the object represented; and such words as *fin, warmth, sensitiveness*, never in themselves convey even a suggestion of sex. Such words have no gender.

*English nouns have only the two genders, masculine and feminine.*

**51.** Genders are little used in the English language, but substitutes for them are employed. For example, in

*the boy and the girl sing well together,*

*boy* and *girl* are distinct words. *Girl* is not a form of *boy*, and *boy* is not a form of *girl*. But they are equivalent to genders of each other, one meaning a young male of the human kind, and the other a young female of the same kind. To such words the term GENDER EQUIVALENTS may be conveniently applied.

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CASES.

**52, a.**

*That life is long which answers life's great end.*

Here the form *life* is used in the relation of subject; the form *life's*, in the relation of a limiting word.

The Noun: Cases.

The latter form is not appropriate to the relation in which *life* is, nor the former to the relation in which *life's* is. It is on account of the relation of the word in each case that the particular form is used. Such forms are CASES; therefore,

**b. Cases** are forms of words used on account of the relations the words hold to other words.

**c.** The first of the forms above is the simple form of the noun, the naming form, and is called a SIMPLE CASE or NOMINATIVE CASE.

**d.** Forms like the second, which is here used to limit another word in a certain way, are typically and generally used to limit by denoting possession, and are accordingly called POSSESSIVE CASES:

**e. A Possessive case** is a form used to limit, ordinarily by denoting possession.

**f. Life, life's, and John, John's,** are nouns; therefore,

Nouns have Cases: SIMPLE or NOMINATIVE and POSSESSIVE. *English nouns have no other cases.*

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Formation of the Possessive.

**53, a.**

*This casket India's glowing gems unlocks,  
words are men's daughters,  
by others' faults wise men correct their own.*

In these expressions the words *India's, men's,* and

The Noun: Cases.

others' are possessives; the first is a singular, the second and third are plurals. The first and second are formed by adding an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the simple or nominative case. The nominative case of the third is a plural, ending in *s*: its possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only. With a few exceptions, the possessives of other nouns are formed in the same way. Whence the rule:

b. The POSSESSIVE CASE of a noun should be formed by adding an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the nominative case; unless the noun be a plural ending in *s*, in which event the apostrophe alone should be added.

c. When the nominative singular ends in *s*, the poets sometimes add the apostrophe alone in forming the possessive. The weight of authority favors the employment in prose of the additional *s*.

54. The preposition *of* is frequently used with an object, the two together forming a phrase equivalent to a possessive noun. Thus,

the roar of the waves

is equivalent to,

the waves' roar.

The simple case with the preposition is generally to be preferred to the possessive case.

The Noun: Cases: Rules.**RULES FOR THE CONSTRUCTION OF NOUNS.**

To CONSTRUCT a noun properly in any given relation is to use the proper form for that relation.

FOR NOUN AS SUBJECT.

55, a. In

earth with a thousand voices praises God,  
earth is a noun used as *subject* and is in the *nominative case*. It is agreed that any noun so used shall be in the nominative case. Hence the rule:

b. A noun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

*Must be* is used in the sense of *must be put*.

FOR NOUN AS ATTRIBUTE.

56, a. In the expression,

innocence is his shield,

shield is a noun used as *attribute* and is in the *nominative case*. It is agreed that a noun so used shall be in the nominative case. Rule:

b. A noun used as the attribute of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

FOR NOUN USED AS OBJECT.

57, a. In

lives there a man who loves his pain?

pain is a noun used as *the object of a verb*. It is in the *simple* or *nominative case*. It is agreed that a noun so used shall be in the nominative case. Rule:

The Noun : Cases : Rules.

b. A noun used as the object of a verb must be in the nominative case.

REMARK.—Do not confuse the terms *relation* and *case*. A noun used as object is in the objective relation. A noun used as subject is in the subjective relation. In

he does not love his pain, and  
the pain is severe,

pain is used, first, in the objective relation, and secondly, in the subjective relation. Pain in the first example is identical in form with pain in the second. It is the *simple form*, or, as we have named that form, the *nominative case*.

## FOR NOUN IN OTHER RELATIONS.

58, a. In the same way, by employing expressions like the following, the students may derive rules for the construction of nouns used respectively as the object of a Preposition, a Participle, and an Infinitive :

they struggle for renown,  
the farmer's boy is ploughing corn,  
he loves to sing his little song,

b. In

that is a book of *William's*,

the use of the possessive after a preposition is peculiar. The possessive so used is considered more emphatic than when used in the ordinary way. To explain the expression we read,

that is a book of *William's* books,

which means practically,

that is one of *William's* books.

So that the apparent anomaly is really a regular employment of a noun in the possessive to limit another noun (understood).

The Noun : Cases : Rules.

## FOR THE POSSESSIVE.

59, a. In the proposition,

my life is my foe's debt,

foe's is a noun used to limit the noun debt, which denotes a different thing from that denoted by foe's. Foe's is a *possessive case*. It is agreed that a noun used as foe's is used shall be in the possessive case. Rule :

b. A noun used to limit another noun denoting a different person or thing must be in the possessive case.

c. If the limiting noun actually denotes possession the rule may be stated : A noun used to limit by denoting possession must be in the possessive case.

## FOR NOUN IN APPPOSITION.

60, a.

For the sake of *David*, my servant.

Here the word servant is a noun limiting another noun (*David*) which denotes the same person. The two nouns are practically alike in their relation to the rest of the proposition. A noun used as servant is, in this proposition, is said to be IN APPPOSITION WITH the noun it limits ; or the two are IN APPPOSITION. *David* and *servant* are in the *same case*. Hence the rule :

b. Nouns in apposition shall be in the same case.

c. If nouns in the possessive are in apposition it is customary to use only one possessive sign and to join that to

The Noun: Cases: Rules.

the possessive which stands directly before the word which the possessive limits, as in

for my servant David's sake.

In this case the possessive sign, though written in immediate connection with **David**, is supposed to belong just as much to **servant** as to **David**.

FOR NOUN INDEPENDENT.

## 61, a.

My friends, I come not here to talk.

**Friends** does not really form a part of a proposition, and is in that respect independent of grammatical relations. Words so used are said to be GRAMMATICALLY INDEPENDENT. **Friends** is in the *nominative case*. It is agreed that a noun grammatically independent, &c., &c. Rule.

62. Instead of a separate rule for each construction we may frame general rules to cover similar constructions, reducing the number of rules. Thus the rules for construction might read:

1. A noun used in the relation of object must be in the nominative case;
2. A noun used to limit another noun denoting a different person or thing must be in the possessive case;
3. Nouns in apposition must be in the same case;
4. A noun used in any other relation must be in the nominative case.

(Exercises in Parsing, &c., in the HELPS.)

## PRONOUNS.

## SOME KINDS OF PRONOUNS.

(Exercises, &c., in the HELPS.)

63. The pronouns **I**, **thou**, and **he**, possess a property called **PERSON** (see paragraph 66). They are on that account called the **PERSONAL PRONOUNS**.

## 64. In

he is a man who understands his business,  
the pronoun **who**, while subject of the proposition,  
**who understands his business**,

also serves to connect that proposition with the proposition

he is a man,

to show that the second *relates* to **man**, a part of the first. There are several such pronouns. They are called **CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS** or **RELATIVE PRONOUNS**.

65. The pronoun **who** may also be used as in  
**who is here?**

viz., in putting a question. **Who**, **what**, **which**, and **whether**, when so used, are called **INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS**. But it is doubtful whether at least **what** and **which**, when so used, should not be called **adjectives**, **INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES**.

There are other kinds of pronouns, whose names are not so commonly used as the preceding, and are omitted as comparatively unimportant.

## The Pronoun: Properties.

## PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS.

## 66, a.

I call, thou callest, he calls.

I is used to distinguish a person as the speaker; thou, a person as spoken to; he, as spoken of. Such a form as either I, thou, or he, is a PERSON. We may, then, state that

b. **Persons** are forms of words used to distinguish a person (or thing) as speaking, or as spoken to, or as spoken of.

Such a person as I is called a FIRST PERSON; as thou, a SECOND PERSON; as he, a THIRD PERSON.

c. I, thou, and he, are pronouns; therefore, Pronouns have Persons.

The three persons mentioned in these examples are not, however, forms of one another. Yet each is probably the remnant of a set of forms of one word. If this is not true, the propriety of calling these, or any other different words, PERSONS, may be fairly questioned.

## 67, a. In.

if thou dost not, they will,

it is obvious that thou and they are numbers. Thou is a pronoun. So, likewise, is they; therefore,

b. Pronouns have Numbers: SINGULAR and PLURAL.

## The Pronoun: Properties.

68, a. He and she, his and hers, represent the Genders of Pronouns: MASCULINE and FEMININE.

b. Whether it is a gender or not depends upon whether it distinguishes an object in regard to sex. As a fact, it is seldom, if ever, used with any even remote purpose of suggesting the idea of sex. Those who believe that it is a gender call it a NEUTER GENDER.

## 69, a. In the propositions,

who art thou?  
thy strength is manifest,  
I love thee, old England,

thou, thy, and thee, are forms used on account of the respective relations of the pronoun to other words. Such forms we have learned to call CASES. It is obvious that thou is a nominative case and thy a possessive case. The form thee is here used in the objective relation (object of love), and, in fact, is set apart for use in that relation. Any such form is an OBJECTIVE CASE; therefore,

b. An Objective case is that form of a word which is set apart for the objective relation.

From these several illustrations it will appear that

c. Pronouns have Cases: NOMINATIVE, POSSESSIVE, and OBJECTIVE. *English pronouns have no other cases.*

d. Let it not be inferred that every pronoun has all three cases. For example, which exists in only the simple form, and it, its, are the only forms of the pronoun it.

The Pronoun: Rules.

70. The number of pronouns is comparatively small. Yet, on account of the frequency of the use of pronouns, they constitute an important class. Below is a list of the forms of the principal pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PERSON.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. I	we	thou	you, ye
Poss. my, mine	our, ours	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj. me	us	thee	(you)

THIRD PERSON.			
SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
Mas.	Fem.	Neuter.(?)	
Nom. he	she	it	they
Poss. his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Obj. him	her(?)	(it)	them

The pronoun **who** has three cases: nom. **who**; poss. **whose**; obj. **whom**. For the pronoun **it**, used impersonally, see p. 32, d. Some grammars contain full lists of pronouns. The interested student will find it profitable to examine such lists.

**RULES FOR THE CONSTRUCTION OF PRONOUNS.**

## FOR PRONOUN AS SUBJECT.

## 71, a.

He is a prince among princes.

He is a pronoun used as a *subject* and is in the *nomi-*

The Pronoun: Rules.

*native case.* It is agreed that a pronoun so used shall be in the nominative case. Rule:

b. A pronoun used as the subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

## FOR PRONOUN AS ATTRIBUTE.

## 72, a.

It is I, I am he, we are they.

I, he, and they, are pronouns used as *attributes*. They are in the *nominative case*. It is agreed that a pronoun so used shall be in the nominative case. Rule:

b. A pronoun used as the attribute of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

## FOR PRONOUN AS OBJECT.

## 73, a. In the expressions,

I commend him to you, and  
the fur which the monarch wears warmed  
a bear,

him and which are pronouns used in the relation of object. Him is an *objective case*. Which is a *nominative case* and is used rather than an objective case, presumably because an objective case of which does not exist. It is agreed, &c., &c. Rule:

b. A pronoun used in the relation of object must be in the objective case if the pronoun has such a case; otherwise, in the nominative case.

This rule applies to the object of a Preposition, the object of a Participle, and the object of an Infinitive.

## The Pronoun: Rules.

## FOR THE POSSESSIVE.

74. The rule for a pronoun used to limit by denoting possession is essentially the same as that for a noun similarly used, and may be similarly stated. (See p. 47.)

## FOR PRONOUN IN APPPOSITION.

75, a. In the expression,  
behold the king here; him whom all men  
praise,

him is a pronoun *in apposition* with a noun, king. We have already learned that words in apposition hold essentially the same relation in a proposition. It should follow, then, that a pronoun in apposition with a noun should have the case it would have if used in the position of the noun, i. e., if the noun were omitted and the pronoun substituted for it. This principle is observed in the construction of him, above; for if we omit the noun king we shall say,

behold him here, &c.,

him being the case prescribed by a previous rule for a pronoun used in the objective relation. Hence the rule:

b. A pronoun used in apposition with a noun must have the case prescribed to it for the relation in which the noun stands.

c. If nouns and pronouns had the same number of cases and the cases had the same names, the rule might stand: A pronoun in apposition with a noun or with

## The Pronoun: Rules.

another pronoun must be in the same case with that noun or pronoun.

## FOR PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

76, a. In

beauty's tears are lovelier than her smile,  
beauty's is the word for which her stands. The word for which a pronoun stands is the ANTECEDENT of the pronoun.

b. In

the king abdicated his throne,

both king and his are of the masculine gender and singular number. When two or more persons hold the same opinion we say they *agree* in opinion. In like manner, when words have certain common properties, we may say the words *agree* in whatever they have in common.

The his already mentioned is a pronoun and king is its antecedent. Because they have in common the masculine gender and singular number we say they *agree in gender and number*. But in

he was a king who loved his people,

while the antecedent, king, is a masculine gender and singular number, the pronoun who has neither gender nor number, and therefore cannot agree with its antecedent. We may, then, derive the rule:

c. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender and number whenever both have gender and number.

## ADJECTIVES.

## SOME KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

[Exercises, &amp;c., in the HELPS.]

77. Some adjectives, like  
three, fourth, one, first,  
convey an idea of number. Such adjectives are  
called NUMERAL ADJECTIVES, or NUMERALS.

78. The terms INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES, PRO-  
NOMINAL ADJECTIVES, and COMPOUND ADJECTIVES  
will explain themselves.

## PROPERTIES OF ADJECTIVES.

79, a. In the expressions,  
we thought you honest,  
we thought him honest,  
we thought them honest,  
we thought her honest,  
the adjective honest is constructed with words, you,  
him, them, her, differing, in the several examples, in  
person, number, gender, and case. But the form of  
honest remains the same throughout. As a rule, ad-  
jectives undergo no change of form when used in these  
several ways. We may affirm, then, that

b. Adjectives have neither Persons, Num-  
bers, Genders, nor Cases.

## The Adjective; Comparison.

c. There are two exceptions: *this*, which has a plural,  
*these*; and *that*, plural *those*.

## COMPARISON.

80. If we say of several acts that one is noble,  
another nobler, and a third noblest, we imply that the  
quality of acts may differ in degree. And we use  
the forms noble, nobler, noblest, to express such differ-  
ent degrees of that particular quality. In a similar  
way we may employ the forms brave, braver, bravest.  
We have not a good name for such forms. But be-  
cause by employing them we imply a comparison of  
the degrees of a quality, we may call them FORMS OF  
COMPARISON.

81. To distinguish the first of the forms, noble,  
nobler, noblest, from the others, we might properly  
call it the *simple form*, but the name POSITIVE FORM  
is more commonly given it. The second is equivalent  
to more noble, a phrase made by combining the word  
more with the simple form of the adjective. Such a  
form is called a COMPARATIVE FORM. The third is  
equivalent to most noble, which combines the word  
most with the simple form. Such a form is called a  
SUPERLATIVE FORM.

82, a. Noble and brave (above) are adjectives;  
therefore,

Adjectives have Forms of Comparison: SIM-  
PLE OF POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE, and SUPERLATIVE.

The Adjective : Comparison.

b. If one writes or pronounces in succession the positive, the comparative, and the superlative forms of an adjective, he is said to COMPARE the adjective.

83. From the examples,

tall, taller, tallest,  
young, younger, youngest,

it appears that the comparative form of an adjective may be made by adding *er* to the positive; and the superlative by adding *est* to the positive. This is the usual or REGULAR way of forming comparatives and superlatives. Other ways may be learned by observation.

84, a.

Brilliant light,  
more brilliant light,  
most brilliant light.

The adjective *brilliant* expresses a quality. But it is not here, nor is it ever varied in form to express different degrees of the quality. The same is true of many other adjectives; i. e., some adjectives are not compared.

b. Many adjectives are both compared and combined with *more* and *most* to form phrases of comparison.

85. The words *less* and *least* are also often used with the simple form of adjectives to form, in a certain negative sense, phrases of comparison.

## VERBS.

## SOME KINDS OF VERBS.

86. The terms TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE, as applied to verbs, and also the term COMPOUND, have been explained. (See pp. 22, 23, 28.)

## PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

(Exercises, &c., in the HELPS.)

87, a.

I am, thou art, he is.

The forms *am*, *art*, and *is*, lead us to think of the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person spoken of. Such forms we have learned to call PERSONS. (See definition, p. 50.)

b. In

thou lovest, he loves,

lovest and loves are likewise persons. These several words are verbs; therefore,

Verbs have Persons.

88.

Am, are, loveth, was, walkest, were,  
as verbs, illustrate the fact that

Verbs have Numbers.

The Verb: Tenses.

89, a. Comparing *write* with *wrote*, and *sleep* with *slept*, as they occur in

I write, I wrote,  
they sleep, they slept,

we observe that *write* affirms an act as taking place at the present time, and *sleep* affirms a condition as a present one; while the time of that affirmed by *wrote* and *slept* is past time. *Write* and *wrote*, then, and *sleep* and *slept* may be described as forms which distinguish the time of that expressed by them. Such forms are TENSES. These words are verbs; therefore,

b. Verbs have TENSES: PRESENT and PAST. *English verbs have only these two tenses*: PRESENT TENSE and PAST TENSE, terms which explain themselves.

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FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE.

90, a. In

I laugh, I laughed,

*laugh* is a present tense; *laughed*, a past tense. The latter is formed from the present tense by adding the letters *ed*. Past tenses made by adding *ed* to the present tense form are said to be *regularly* formed. Verbs whose past tense is thus formed are called REGULAR VERBS. Other verbs are IRREGULAR.

For lists of irregular verbs see p. 123.

The Verb: Agreement.

b. Comparing

I recite, and I recited,

*recited*, a past tense, would seem to be formed from the present tense by adding only *d*. But this is not true historically. The *ed* of *recited* is strictly the termination added to form the past tense, the *e* of *recite* being dropped, or omitted, in accordance with a familiar rule of orthography. The change may be represented by *recit[e]d*. The same rule is observed in the formation of *salable* from *sale*.

AGREEMENT.

91, a. In the expressions,

I am, thou art, he is, thou lovest, he loves,

the several verbs agree with their subject in person and number. In

we are, they are,

there is agreement in number only, *are* having no person. In

I read, they read,

there is no agreement in either person or number, because *read* is neither a person nor a number. The following, then, may be stated for a rule:

b. A verb and its subject must agree in person and number when both have the requisite person and number.

92, a. Verbs seldom have the requisite person and number. The verb commonly called *to be* has more person and number forms than any other English verb. The "forms" of this verb as used with the various forms of the pronouns are:

The Verb: Agreement.

PRESENT TENSE.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st P. I am,	we are,
2d P. thou art,	you are,
3d P. he is,	they are.
PAST TENSE.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st P. I was,	we were,
2d P. thou wast,	you were,
3d P. he was,	they were.

It will be seen that this verb has the requisite forms in both tenses for agreement in both numbers (no other verb has). For agreement in all three persons it has the requisite forms in only the singular of the present tense, having only one person in the singular of the past tense, and none in the plural of either tense.

b. Let the verb *move* illustrate the facts concerning other verbs:

PRESENT TENSE.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st P. I move,	we move,
2d P. thou movest,	you move,
3d P. he moves (moveth),	they move.
PAST TENSE.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1st P. I moved,	we moved,
2d P. thou movedst,	you moved,
3d P. he moved,	they moved.

The present tense has no persons in the "plural," and only the second and the third persons in the singular; and it has no singular number for the first person and no plural number for either of the persons. Even less is to be said for the past tense.

The Verb: Phrases.

93, a. If instead of *he* in *he moves* (above) we were to use *John*, saying *John moves*, we should have a verb in the present tense used with a singular noun. It will be seen that the verb is put in the singular number (according to the rule), and also in the third person, though *John*, like all other nouns, has no person:

b. Whenever a verb in the present tense is used with a noun that is singular in form (or in sense), the third person, singular, of the verb must be used.

**SOME VERB PHRASES.**

(For Discussion of Verb Phrases see HELPS, p. 117.)

94. When we say,

I shall write,  
you will write,  
I am going to write,  
I am on the point of writing,

the phrases *shall write*, *will write*, *am going to write*, *am on the point of writing*, are used to represent the act of writing as to take place in future time. There are no forms of English verbs thus representing an act. If such forms existed they would probably be called **FUTURE TENSES**. The above phrases, equivalent to future tenses, may be called **FUTURE-TENSE PHRASES**.

## The Verb: Phrases.

## 95, a.

I have written,  
 thou hast written,  
 he has written.

Have written, hast written, has written, represent the act of writing as *completed at the present time*. These phrases are combinations of the verb-forms **have**, **hast**, **has**, with the *perfect participle* of write, the verb expressing the action. (See p. 68, b.) Any phrase similarly composed is called a PRESENT-PERFECT-TENSE PHRASE.

b. It is agreed that if we wish to represent an action or state as finished or perfected at the present time, we shall do it by combining **have**, or **hast**, or **has**, with the perfect participle of the verb which expresses the act or state.

Some exceptions to this rule will be observed by the student, and some exceptions to following rules also.

## 96.

We had gone when the message arrived,  
 thou hadst gone when the message arrived.

The phrases **had gone** and **hadst gone** represent an action as *completed or perfected at or before a specified past time*. These examples teach us that to represent an action or state as completed at or before some specified time in the past, we may use a phrase combining **had** or **hadst** with the perfect participle of the verb expressing the action or state. Such phrases may be called PAST-PERFECT-TENSE PHRASES. Some call them PLUPERFECT-TENSE PHRASES.

## The Verb: Phrases.

## 97.

I shall have seen him ere to-morrow,  
 they will have seen us ere to-morrow.

The phrases **shall have seen** and **will have seen** represent an action as *to be completed at or before some specified future time*. They teach us that in order to represent an action or state as to be completed at or before some specified future time, we may use a phrase made by combining the phrase **will have** or **shall have** with the perfect participle of the verb expressing the action or state. Such phrases are FUTURE-PERFECT-TENSE PHRASES.

REMARK.—Verbs, participles, and infinitives combine in many ways to form verb-phrases of various kinds. (See p. 117.)

98. *English verbs do not at present have either MOODS or VOICES.*

## ADVERBS.

## SOME KINDS.

99. Little need be said concerning adverbs. Adverbs may be CONJUNCTIVE or RELATIVE (see p. 26, c), and COMPOUND. There are other kinds of adverbs, but less important.

## COMPARISON.

100, a. In

I read often,  
you read oftener,  
he reads oftenest,

it is obvious that often, an adverb, is compared. So with soon, compared soon, sooner, soonest. Hence,

Adverbs may be Compared. And, like adjectives, they may combine with more and most to form phrases of comparison.

b. Some adverbs are irregularly compared. (See p. 125.)

REMARK.—The "rule" for the use of adverbs is purposely omitted. Likewise the "rule" for prepositions, and that for conjunctions. Some reasons for these omissions will be found stated in the HELPS, p. 113.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

## SOME KINDS

101, a. We have learned that some propositions are INDEPENDENT, and that others are DEPENDENT or SUBORDINATE (pp. 29, 30). Comparing independent propositions with one another, they may be said to be of an equal order. But a dependent proposition is in order or rank subordinate to the principal proposition that it limits.

b. Conjunctions used to connect independent propositions or propositions of an equal order or rank, are called CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS. Those connecting dependent clauses with principal are called SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

102. The term CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB was explained in paragraph d, p. 26. The student is cautioned against confounding conjunctions with conjunctive adverbs. He will avoid the difficulty by carefully comparing and applying the two definitions.

103. The necessity of supplying understood parts of propositions is more frequent in explaining the uses of conjunctions, perhaps, than in connection with any other kind of words excepting conjunctive adverbs. (See pp. 23 and 26.)

## PARTICIPLES.

## PROPERTIES OF PARTICIPLES.

(Exercises, &amp;c., in the HELPS.)

104, a. When we say,  
 the liquid is fermenting, and  
 the liquid has fermented,  
 we use the form *fermenting* to represent the process of fermentation as still going on or as not perfected at the time indicated by the verb. The form *fermented* is used to represent the process as *completed* or to a certain degree *perfected* at the time indicated by the verb. *Fermenting* and *fermented* are participles; therefore,

b. Participles have Forms which represent that which they express to be either *unperfected* or *perfected*. Such a form as the first we will call an IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE, often called the PRESENT PARTICIPLE, or participle in -ING. Such a form as the second is called a PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

105. In describing a participle it is customary to refer it to the verb from which it is derived. Thus *fermenting* would be called the IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE, and *fermented* the PERFECT PARTICIPLE of the verb *ferment*,—the word *of* being used in a similar, but not identical, way with *of* in  
 the son of Zebedee.

## The Participle.

106. It is obvious that the participle in -ing is formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the present tense of the verb from which it is derived.

## FORMATION OF PERFECT PARTICIPLES.

107.

I have recited,  
 I have laughed,  
 I have driven,  
 I have hidden.

The perfect participles in these examples are derived respectively from *recite*, *laugh*, *drive*, and *hide*. They are severally formed by adding *ed* or *en* to the simple form of the present tense of the verb, and making the regular changes prescribed by the rules of orthography (p. 61). Perfect participles so formed are REGULAR PERFECT PARTICIPLES. Others are IRREGULAR.

*Been* is a notable exception to the rule just illustrated.

108, a. It is customary to speak of the simple form of the present tense of a verb, the simple form of the past tense, the imperfect participle, and the perfect participle, as the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb. Thus

write, wrote, writing, written,  
 are called the principal parts of the verb *write*.

b. But a participle belongs to a different class of words from verbs. Therefore a participle is not strictly a part of a verb.

## INFINITIVES.

## CHARACTERISTICS.

(Exercises, &amp;c., in the HELPS.)

109.

I see with the naked eye but you cannot  
see without glasses.

It will appear that the infinitive see is in form exactly like the root of the verb see. Such an infinitive is called a ROOT INFINITIVE, or simply an INFINITIVE.

110.

He is fond of walking.

The infinitive walking is formed from the verb walk by adding ing to the simple root form of the verb. Such an infinitive is called an INFINITIVE IN -ING.

111. It will be seen, then, that infinitives, like participles, are of two kinds.

For remarks on the *sign of the infinitive*, see p. 96.

## HELPS.

**REMARK.**

The preceding Topics contain only so much of explanation and illustration as the editor deems necessary to make them clear to the average mind. The Helps contain hints to the teacher concerning methods; explanations that it was not thought advisable to introduce into the Topics; additional illustrations for students who need further help; and examples and lists for reference. In accordance with this plan, the Topics may be used as a text-book; the Helps should be used only as a book of reference.

*Every paragraph in the Helps which refers to a paragraph in the Topics is numbered with the number of the paragraph to which it refers. Those marked ¶ do not refer to other paragraphs.*

# HELPS.

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## GENERAL SUGGESTIONS.

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### TO THE TEACHER.

¶ I. It should be strongly impressed upon the minds of all that to study grammar successfully we must study the language itself. Neither the teacher nor the text-book should serve as more than a guide. We must cultivate the habit of observing the facts of language as displayed in the utterances of approved writers and correct speakers. We must acquire facility in thinking, each for himself.

¶ II. In accordance with the most approved theories, the sensible teacher of botany encourages her pupils to go abroad to seek for themselves specimens for study. A similar course is equally incumbent upon the teacher of grammar. And the text-book of grammar should contain only the few illustrations necessary to guide the pupil to the broader field. It should be understood, then, that the illustrations inserted in the Helps are few because they are intended to be only helps to something more, not final subjects for the pupil's study.

To the Teacher.

¶ III. It must not be supposed that because a pupil has mastered a grammar, he will therefore have become a correct speaker. We have said that a person becomes a correct speaker through habit. A knowledge of grammar aids one in preserving the habit; but the study of technical grammar helps but very little in acquiring it. The habit is to be acquired chiefly through imitation.

The teacher's part is to use language worthy of the pupil's imitation, to lead the pupil to observe and avoid the errors made by others, and to require him to correct his own. Special exercises should be devoted to such instruction at proper times. But it is far more important that this instruction should accompany that given in every subject, and from the very first. Indeed, from the time the child begins to talk, every occasion for using language of his own should be made an occasion for forming the *habit* of using correct language.

¶ IV. **Recitations and Study.** Prepare yourself thoroughly for each recitation. It is not enough merely to "know the lesson." Thorough preparation implies much *thought*; and implies readiness in asking questions to test the pupil's knowledge.

Recitations in grammar are recitations on language; therefore keep the language clearly before the pupil. To do this, the example recited upon should be written on the board by the pupil himself, and the words to be studied should be underlined.

At first, for one lesson assign only one topic. Require the pupil to read the topic carefully, again and again, until he understands it.

To the Teacher.

Require him to furnish for his recitation new examples illustrating the fact to be presented. Have him show by reciting upon his new examples whether he understands the principle they illustrate. Ask questions.

When the pupil shows himself familiar with the examples found in the book require him to select illustrations from the writings of approved authors.

Then let him have much practice in composing original examples.

He thus learns principles through applying them.

Do not hope that familiarity with a principle is to be acquired through "learning by rote." The final test of a pupil's acquaintance with a principle is not the glibness with which he can repeat the words in the book, but the readiness and the accuracy with which he can apply the principle, as shown by his facility in selecting and originating and explaining illustrations.

The pupil should give reasons for every conclusion he states. This is imperative. And his statement of reasons ought invariably to precede the statement of his conclusion: For example, he should not say, speaking of a given word, it is a subject *because* it represents that of which something is said. But he should say, it represents that of which something is said, and *therefore* it is a subject. This practice of stating reasons in advance cannot be too strongly insisted upon.

As a rule, the course we have indicated should be pursued with each topic separately. In reviewing a chapter, be careful not only to have the pupil understand each separate

To the Teacher.

topic, but also to have him perceive the relation of the several topics to one another and to the whole subject treated in the chapter. After reviewing a chapter the pupil should be able to state the plan of it.

On no account proceed to a new topic until the pupil thoroughly understands the topics already studied.

Pupils who are not intelligent enough to pursue such a course should not study grammar, no matter what their age may be.

ON THE  
DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR.

.Remark.—The study of the TOPICS should begin with the first chapter. Indeed, the student should not attempt any chapter until he has become familiar with the topics which precede.

1-2. In studying language we may gain a knowledge of the derivation and history of words and roots of words. Such knowledge is Etymology. Or we may acquire a knowledge of the formation of letters and the spelling of words, a knowledge sometimes called Orthography. Or we may learn the pronunciation of words and so know Orthoepy. We may, in studying language, gain a knowledge of the right use of language, by some called Rhetoric. Or we may study language with still other objects in view, and thus acquire knowledge of other branches of the subject. If we would make a scientific study of any one branch of the science of language, we shall need to guard against encroaching upon any other branch. One convenient way to avoid trespassing upon foreign province in studying a given science is to have the ground we wish to cover clearly marked out and its extent limited. In other words, we should define our subject. It is with this object that we begin our study by defining grammar.

1, e. In defining grammar the term *relations* is used in the technical sense. The technical terms used in this book should be interpreted technically.

2, g. This definition of grammar is not the definition commonly given. Yet it will be found to be serviceable

The Subject: Exercises.

and not inaccurate. According to this definition, the object of studying grammar is to acquire a classified knowledge of the relations of words and of the forms words take in their various relations. This implies, of course, a knowledge of correct expression, and, in fact, of many other things.

**THE SUBJECT.**

(See TOPICS, p. 14.)

**3, a.** Many persons make the mistake of saying that the subject, in grammar, is "that of which something is said." *That of which something is said* is always an *object of thought*, and must be distinguished from the *word* which *represents* an object of thought.

(The paragraphs marked ¶ do not refer to particular Topics.)

¶ This distinction between words and the objects words represent must be kept in mind, not only in this connection, but throughout the study of grammar.

**3, c.** The term **COMPLEMENT** is a convenient one to apply to the word or words which, together with the bare subject, make up the complete subject. The same word, complement, is used to name corresponding parts of predicates and attributes.

The Subject: Exercises.**Exercises.**

¶ The editor wishes to repeat that in inserting a few examples under this topic and following topics, his object is to furnish helps. But the pupil's study must not cease here. With the experience acquired in studying the examples found in the book, he will be able to look outside for further illustrations.

**Examples of the Subject.**

(Exercises on succeeding pages contain many examples of the Subject.)

¶ At first point out both the complete and the bare subject. But after a time it will be found more convenient, in using the term *subject*, to designate the *bare subject*.

1. *Elms* grew on the lawn.
2. *Stately elms* grew on the lawn.
3. *Tall, stately elms* grew on the lawn.
4. *Many tall, stately elms* grew on the lawn.
5. *Many tall, stately elms, graceful in outline and symmetrical in form,* grew on the lawn.
6. *Contributions to relieve the sufferers* were sent in.
7. In yonder cot, *the village maiden* kept her school.
8. *The wind* rushes by, *its howl* is unheard.
9. Nevertheless, strange stories got abroad.
10. Early the next morning the battle was begun.
11. How wonderfully are we made!
12. To relieve the poor is our duty.
13. How the soul is connected with the body is a mystery.

The Subject : Recitation.*Examples of a Recitation.*

¶ This and following examples of recitations are given merely by way of suggestion. There are many ways of conducting recitations from which the teacher will, of course, select those most suited to her class in the different stages of the pupils' progress. The recitations should be quite complete at first, but later, may be much abbreviated.

*Extended Form.*

The vessel was flying before the wind.

I. *Something is said* by this expression concerning a vessel : the word *vessel* represents the object vessel, and therefore represents that of which something is said. This word may be described, then, as a part of the expression which represents that of which something is said. According to our definition, such a part of an expression is the subject of the expression. The word vessel is therefore a subject.

It is not of *vessel*, merely, that something is said, but of *the vessel*. We have learned that we may call the several words which together form a subject, a complete subject. The vessel, therefore, is the complete subject of the above expression, and vessel, the bare subject.

It will be seen that the object of the recitation is to classify a certain part of the expression. The italicized words illustrate a way of applying a definition in such a case.

The Subject : Predicate.*Abbreviated Form.*

II. Of this expression (above), the word vessel is a part which represents that of which something is said. Such a part of an expression is the subject, according to the definition : The subject of an expression is that part, &c., &c. Vessel, the bare subject, and the together form a complete subject.

**THE PREDICATE.**

(See TOPICS, p. 15.)

*Examples of the Predicate.*

(The Exercises on the Subject contain examples of the Predicate.)

1. Time *flies*.
2. Time *is flying*.
3. Time *is swiftly flying*.
4. Time *never ceased to fly*.
5. Flowers *are peeping out everywhere*.
6. *In the evening they went to the concert together*.
7. The duty of government *is to protect persons and property*.
8. You *have heard if I fought bravely*.
9. There the wicked *cease from troubling*.
10. They *made him laugh*.
11. His misfortune *was to be born rich*.
12. Having been a benefactor to his race, this nobly generous man *died*.
13. What is your reason for *doing that?*
14. When does he *propose to leave town?*
15. Boys, *come in out of the rain*.

Attribute: Copula.

**ATTRIBUTE: COPULA.**

(See TOPICS, p. 16.)

- 5, b. When the attribute is a noun, as in  
that metal is gold,

it may not at first appear to indicate either a condition or a quality. However, a noun names a *set of qualities* or *conditions*, and so may fairly become an attribute.

**Examples.**

1. The work *is finished.*
2. His efforts were *well rewarded.*
3. To be polite is *to be kind in a courteous manner.*
4. He had grown to be *quite eloquent.*
5. Man *is mortal.*
6. The plant *will become stunted.*
7. The sun *seems to be rising.*
8. The moon *will soon have been obscured* one hour.
9. The air grows damp and feels chilly.
10. He is every inch a man.
11. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
12. Your spirits are too bold for your years.
13. Your brother is but young and tender.
14. My master is a man of churlish disposition.
15. The merchant might have become rich.

Proposition: Exercise.

**Example of a Recitation.**

The patient will soon have become strong.

a. Of this expression, the word *patient* is the subject: *will soon have become strong* is the predicate. The word *strong* is a part of the predicate, and indicates a condition of that represented by the subject. It is therefore an attribute, according to the definition: The attribute of an expression is that part of the predicate which is used to indicate a condition or a quality of that represented by the subject.

b. The attribute of the expression is connected with the subject by *will soon have become*, which is a part of the predicate; therefore, *will soon have become* is a copula, according to the definition: The copula of an expression is that part of the predicate which is used to connect the subject and the attribute.

The words composing the copula are so closely combined that it is hardly possible to separate them, and say of any one, that it can be used alone as the copula of the expression. So that the distinction of complete and bare predicate is not to be made.

**THE PROPOSITION.**

(See TOPICS, p. 17.)

**Exercise on the Proposition.**

¶ I. Point out the subjects, predicates, attributes, copulas, and propositions. Bear in mind that a proposition must

Proposition: Exercise.

combine both a subject and a predicate. *Reasons before conclusions.*

"A boy's first night at school is usually not a time of mirth. The heart of the solitary little lad at Corston sank within him. A melancholy hung about the decayed mansion. It had once known better days. The broken gateways, the summer-houses fallen in ruins, the grass-grown court, the bleakness of the schoolroom, depressed the spirits. Southey's pillow was wet with tears before he fell asleep. The master of the school was at one with his surroundings; he, too, was a piece of worthy old humanity now decayed; he, too, was falling in untimely ruins. The work of the school fell into the hands of his son, Charley Flower. Both father and son knew the mystery of the flamboyant penmanship, but Southey's handwriting had not yet advanced to the decorative style. His spelling he could look back upon with pride."

¶ II. It will be seen that the division of the proposition into Subject, Predicate, &c., is based upon the uses of those parts.

## THE NOUN.

(See TOPICS, p. 19.)

10. The exercises given under the topics Subject, Predicate, and Proposition, contain many examples of the NOUN.

¶ I. In reciting, names are not to be given yet to the kinds of nouns nor to the kinds of words belonging to other classes. *We are now making general divisions only.* Reasons before conclusions.

¶ II. By way of additional practice in identifying nouns the pupil may select any correctly written article and find all the nouns occurring in it, applying the definition to each one. He should continue this practice until he is able to identify nouns off-hand. It is of great importance that in every instance he should verify his choice.

*Example of a Recitation.*

"Beneath a bony buttonwood,  
The mill's red door lets forth the din;  
The whitened miller, dust imbued,  
Flits past the square of dark within."

¶ III. First divide the propositions into subject and predicate; do this always. Then:

**Buttonwood** is a word which names an object of thought and which may be used as the subject of a proposition. It is therefore a noun, according to the definition: A noun is a word, &c., &c.

The Pronoun : Recitation.

When the pupil says a certain word *may be* used as subject, if it does not happen to be so used, as in the case of *buttonwood*, above, he may compose a proposition in which the noun shall be used as subject. In such cases, moreover, the pupil should state, if possible, what *is* the relation of the word. In this instance he would continue, speaking of *buttonwood* :

It is not used either as subject or as attribute.

But if the sentence read,

**that bony tree is a buttonwood,**

he would say :

It, *buttonwood*, is here used as the attribute of a proposition.

And so on with *mill's, door, din, miller, square, dark*.

¶ IV. On no account should the pupil proceed to the next class of words until he is *skilled* in identifying words of the given class : this, if it requires a week, a fortnight, or a month.

**THE PRONOUN.**

(See TOPICS, p. 19.)

11. The practice work on pronouns should be similar to that on nouns. It should consist in identifying pronouns and in applying the definition, and also in determining the relation in which any given pronoun is used ; but *not yet* in distinguishing *kinds* of pronouns.

*Example of a Recitation.*

He lifted up his eyes.

He is a word, not a noun, which is used instead of a noun. It is therefore a pronoun, according to the

The Pronoun : Exercise.

definition : A pronoun is a word, &c., &c. It is not a noun since it does not name an object of thought. It is used instead of the noun—(the name of the person referred to). It is the subject of the proposition of which *lifted up his eyes* is predicate.

It will be observed that these statements are all suggested by the definition of a pronoun.

¶ I. On no account should the student proceed to the next class of words until he is *skilled* in identifying words of the given class, and of classes previously studied.

**Exercise on the Pronoun.**

Point out *both* the nouns and the pronouns. The pupil may continue giving full reasons for his selections of words : this, until he is perfectly familiar with the classes of words. No mention (yet) of *kinds* of nouns or pronouns.

Mother said she would propose a plan. Her mind had long been made up to take the children on their anticipated trip. They had begged to be taken for a sail up the Hudson. So, after consulting father, mother laid the plan before the children themselves and suggested the following Wednesday for a holiday on the river. The girls danced with delight, and each of the boys thought himself the happiest body in the world. Father said he would arrange his business so that it should take care of itself for one day, come whatever would. This almost made us cry for joy, because we very seldom have mother and father together to share the pleasure of our merry holidays. I don't know which of the children was most eager.

The Adjective: Limiting words.

Martha was really quite beside herself. Even Jip knew something unusual was going on, for he was jealous and seemed to say, "You do not take much notice of me."

On the appointed morning we were all awake by the time the sun showed his face. Mother had said, "Rest yourselves well, and do not get up until seven." But who *could* lie abed on such a morning!

**LIMITING WORDS.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 19, 20.)

12, a. Words limit one another *in many ways*. Much practice should be had in applying the definition of "to limit or restrict" before going on with adjectives.

**Exercise.**

"Milton was, like Dante, a *statesman* and a *lover*; and, like Dante, he had been *unfortunate* in ambition and in love. He had survived his *health* and *his* sight, the *comforts* of his home, and the prosperity of *his party*."

Only several of the limiting words are italicized. The pupil may, in each case, point out the word limited. *Of his party* illustrates the fact that several words may together limit another word.

**Example of a Recitation.**

When we say, simply, **he had survived**, we do not make a particularly definite application of **survived**.

The Adjective: Exercise.

But by connecting **comforts** with **survived**, a survival from some definite loss is indicated, and we are led to apply the term **survived** more definitely. **Comforts**, then, may be described as a word which is so used with another word as to lead us to make a more definite application of that word. It is therefore a limiting word, according to the definition: A word limits or restricts another word when it is so used, &c., &c.

**THE ADJECTIVE.**

(See TOPICS, p. 20.)

12, d. Bear in mind that an adjective

- (1) is not a noun;
- (2) is not a pronoun;
- (3) and may be placed directly before a noun to limit it.

¶ In reciting, the reasons should be stated why a given adjective is neither a noun nor a pronoun.

If in a given instance it happens that the adjective is not placed directly before a noun, but follows it, or is used as attribute or to limit a noun understood, the fact should be stated.

**Exercise.**

From my study I see in the lamplight,  
Descending the broad hall stair  
Grave Alice, and laughing Allegra,  
And Edith with golden hair.

The Verb: Hints.

A whisper and then a silence :  
 Yet I know by their merry eyes,  
 They are plotting and planning together  
 To take me by surprise.

A sudden rush from the stairway,  
 A sudden raid from the hall !  
 By three doors left unguarded,  
 They enter my castle wall !

They climb up into my turret,  
 O'er the arms and back of my chair ;  
 If I try to escape they surround me ;  
 They seem to be everywhere.

—*Longfellow.*

**THE VERB.**

(See TOPICS, p. 21.)

13, a-b. On no account should the next topic be considered until the pupil is ready in distinguishing verbs. It need hardly be suggested that the exercises should be continued on the classes of words already studied.

¶ At present the work should still consist mainly in learning to identify verbs by applying the definitions. In studying verbs, a course may be pursued similar to that suggested for the classes previously studied. The exercises under preceding topics contain many examples of verbs, with and without objects. Keep clearly in mind the definition of the class of words to be studied. *And do not confound verb phrases with verbs.*

The Adverb: Examples:**THE ADVERB.**

(See TOPICS, p. 23.)

14. c. The use of the adverb *almost* in so many ways illustrates the principle that the class-membership of a word is not determined by means of the number of its possible relations, but by the one or the several characteristic relations in which the word may be used. Adverbs are pre-eminently limiting words, and as such may limit almost all the kinds of words in various ways, so that it would be fatal to a definition of an adverb to include a statement of all those uses, or of any more of them than are really distinguishing uses. A definition is a limitation. A description may be limited or unlimited according to the purpose of the describer. Both are useful in study. But definitions and descriptions must not be made to do exchange duty.

¶ In those cases in which a given adverb is not used to limit either an adjective or a verb, the pupil should compose expressions containing the adverb used in one of those ways.

**Examples of the Adverb.**

(For Examples of Conjunctive Adverbs, see p. 93.)

1. The horse grew quite thin.
2. The snowflakes fell slowly to the ground.
3. The king scowled ominously.
4. The rain was falling fast.
5. It is natural to the deer to move gracefully.
6. He leaped far beyond the mark.

The Preposition: Conjunction.**THE PREPOSITION.**

(See TOPICS, p. 25.)

15. In his practice exercises the pupil now has six kinds of words to talk about. And in his descriptions he will, when occasion requires, now have to mention, besides other relations, the relation of *an object of a verb* and that of *an object of a preposition*.

¶ The illustrations, under preceding topics, contain numerous examples of the preposition and the object of a preposition. Keep the definition in mind: prepositions connect *words*.

**THE CONJUNCTION.**

(See TOPICS, p. 26.)

16. d. The pupil will discover that it is often necessary to supply understood parts when explaining the uses of conjunctions.

¶ In distinguishing between conjunctions and prepositions, and between conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs, it should be kept in mind that the class-membership of words is determined by their relations to the proposition. (See p. 27, par. 19.)

*Examples of the Conjunction.*

1. The sun shone into my room and I was waked by his beams.
2. The winds blew but the house stood firm.
3. You may come to us or we will go to you.
4. The vase fell from the mantel yet was not broken.

The Participle: Examples.*Examples of the Conjunctive Adverb.*

(See also under the Topic Propositions, p. 103.)

1. They cannot go while I am away.
2. Never two ladies loved as they do.
3. The stag at eve had drunk his fill  
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill.
4. So still he sate as those who wait  
Till judgment speake the doom of fate.
5. Do you love him because I do?
6. He died a patriot's death after he had fought bravely for his country.

**THE PARTICIPLE.**

(See TOPICS, p. 27.)

17. Occasionally pupils find it difficult, in the case of some particular word, to determine whether it is a participle or an adjective. In such cases, carefully recall the two definitions. If a word, though like a participle in other respects, may, *without change of meaning* or *sacrifice of sense*, be actually placed, and used, before the noun or pronoun limited, it is included under the definition of an adjective, and is an adjective. While a word that is really an adjective cannot reasonably be included under the definition of a participle; because the definition of a participle would have a word merely "partake of the nature of an adjective." (See recitation, p. 94.)

The Participle : Examples.*Examples of the Participle.*

1. The windows rattling in their frames,  
The ocean roaring on the beach,  
The gusty blast, the bickering flames,  
All mingled vaguely in our speech.
2. Waste not a sigh on fortune changed.
3. All nature's children feel the matin spring  
Of life reviving with reviving day.
4. There is no flock however watched and tended,  
But one dead lamb is there.
5. Two good friends had Hiawatha,  
Singled out from all the others,  
Bound to him in closest union.
6. There was a stir and a sound in the slumbering  
village of Plymouth ;  
Clanking and clicking of arms, and the order  
imperative, "Forward!"  
Given in tone suppressed.

*Example of a Recitation.*

**They set him free without his ransom paid.**

**Paid** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of an adjective. It is therefore a participle, according to the definition: A participle is a word, &c., &c. It is derived from the verb **pay**. It is like a verb, because it may be limited adverbially in the way in which a verb is limited; for instance, we might say,

**without his ransom paid in full,**

The Infinitive.

in which case **in full** limits **paid** adverbially. **Paid** partakes of the nature of an adjective in limiting a noun, **ransom**, a relation characteristic of adjectives.

† This example illustrates the difference between a participle and an adjective. As the expression reads, we are led to understand that a person was given his liberty without the paying of a ransom. But, if the expression should read,

**he was set free without his paid ransom,**

we might understand that the person paid a ransom, and that it was not returned when he was set free; or that he had had in his possession a paid ransom, which, however, was taken away from him, and he was sent away without it.

We say, then, that **paid** in the original expression is a participle; and that it is not an adjective, because it cannot, without change of meaning, be placed before the noun to limit it.

**THE INFINITIVE.**

(See TOPICS, p. 27.)

**18, a.** In this description the infinitive is shown to be like a noun in being used as the object of a preposition. Nouns, however, are used in other common relations besides that of object of a preposition; for example, as subject, as object of a participle, as object of a verb. So with infinitives: they may be used in all these relations, and, therefore, in all these respects may partake of the nature of a noun.

† I. Let the student carefully compare the definition of an infinitive with that of a participle, and carefully consider

The Infinitive.

the various ways in which nouns and adjectives may be used. He will then be able to distinguish readily between infinitives and participles, and to recognize readily the similarity of infinitives to nouns, and of participles to adjectives.

¶ II. The following propositions all contain infinitives used as the object of a verb. The student should compose propositions containing infinitives used in the other relations mentioned.

I will *go* (meaning practically, I will the act of going),  
do *wait* (do the act of waiting),  
begin *writing*,  
let me *jump*,  
make him *laugh*,  
compel him to *laugh*,  
they intend *starting* to-morrow,  
they intend to *start*,  
he prefers *riding*,  
he chooses to *ride*,  
she can *sew*,  
you should *stop*.

¶ III. Some of these examples illustrate still another important fact. The "word" *to*, where it occurs in these expressions, cannot be assigned any meaning. It has not any meaning. It is therefore not a word at all. It is a mere sign which custom requires us to employ with some infinitives and to omit with others, and permits us to employ or omit as we please with still others.

¶ IV. Nevertheless *to* when it *is* a word may have an infinitive for an object, as in

The Infinitive: Examples.**I waited to see you.**

Here *to* actually has a meaning, being equivalent to *in order to*, and it is a word. It is a preposition. *See* is its object, and is an infinitive.

Examples of the Infinitive.

1. He chose to *sit* there.
2. Let me *see* it.
3. They must *do* their duty.
4. How can they *fly* without wings?
5. What would you *think* of me?
6. I enjoy *inhaling* the crisp air.
7. The king seems desirous of *advancing* the interests of his country.
8. She is determined to *try* the remedy.
9. They were endeavoring to *induce* him to *arrange* a program.
10. The rattling of musketry is said to *cause* horses to *grow* restive.
11. To *be* independent is with many persons to *be* unscrupulous.
12. Now I do frown on thee with all my heart.
13. I have more cause to hate him than to love him.
14. Perchance the maiden smiled to see  
Yon parting lingerer wave adieu,  
And stop and turn to wave anew.
15. Let me remember thee.
16. I am not taught to make anything.
17. I did find him still mine enemy.
18. Let us go thank him and encourage him.
19. What else may hap to time I will commit.
20. It shall become thee well to act my woes.

The Infinitive: Recitation.

*Example of a Recitation.*

We are going to try reading him to sleep.

Reading is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of a noun. It is therefore an infinitive, according to the definition: An infinitive is a word, &c., &c. It is derived from the verb read. It partakes of the nature of a verb in taking an object, *him*. It is the object of an infinitive (*try*), and in that respect is like a noun, nouns being often used as object.

Remark.—The pupil must persevere in applying the definitions and the principles, each one separately, again and again. But the object must not be to become glib in repeating definitions and statements of principles. Our aim should be to *know* the *facts* stated in definitions and to *know principles*; in short, to know English grammar.

## PROPOSITIONS.

(See TOPICS, pp. 29-35.)

23. The process of dividing a proposition into its parts is called ANALYSIS. An analysis should generally be accompanied with descriptions of the various parts. The analysis of a proposition may follow some such order as the following:

1. Declarative?                      2. Simple?
- Interrogative?                    Compound?
- Imperative?                        Complex?
3. If simple:                            Subject?            Predicate?            Phrases?
4. If compound:                        Clauses? Why called independent?
- Analyze the clauses:                Subject?            Predicate?            Phrases?
5. If complex:                         Clauses: Why called principal and subordinate?
- Analyze the clauses:                Subject?            Predicate?            Phrases?

† If a clause is used substantively, adjectively, or adverbially, the fact should be mentioned. *Reasons before conclusions.*

Propositions: Recitation.*Example of a Recitation.*

This recitation is not complete. It is intended to show especially a way of *distinguishing* a proposition.

**You now perceive what the trouble is.**

This is a declarative sentence. It contains two propositions,

**you now perceive, and  
what the trouble is.**

The latter is used to limit the former by serving as object to the verb of the former. The former, then, is a principal proposition; the latter, a subordinate; and the whole expression is a complex proposition, the subject of which is **you**, and the complete predicate, **now perceive what the trouble is.**

The subject of the subordinate proposition is **trouble**; the predicate (complete), is **what**.

We have said that **what the trouble is** is the object of a verb: in that respect it is like a noun, and is therefore a substantive clause.

*Examples of the Direct and the Indirect Object.*

(See TOPICS, p. 32, a.)

1. We paid the men their wages.
2. Let me see.
3. Let us forgive them their debts.
4. I'll give thy harp heroic theme.
5. Experience has taught men many severe lessons.
6. Her mother was engaged that moment in teaching her music.
7. I was asking the gentleman his name.

Propositions: Exercise.*Examples of Propositions, Clauses, and Phrases.*

1. Delays are dangerous.
  2. The gentle rain refreshes the thirsty flowers.
  3. A transient calm the happy scenes bestow.
  4. These are suggestions of a mind at ease.
  5. My master is of churlish disposition.
  6. A great cause of the night is lack of the sun.
  7. It was the deep midnight.
  8. I thank thee for thy love to me.
  9. Spinning tops is a favorite amusement with boys.
  10. To preach is not to practice.
  11. Havoc and spoil and ruin are my gain.
  12. His father left him well off.
  13. From peak to peak the rattling crags among  
Leaps the live thunder.
  14. Now I do frown on thee with all my heart.
  15. He is said to have been a very ingenious youth.
  16. Men have died from time to time.
  17. They danced themselves out of breath.
  18. I have enough money for the present.
  19. Disgusted by his discreditable acts, nearly all the man's  
friends deserted him.
  20. You have done very well on the whole.
  21. Having collected his army, Hannibal began his march.
  22. Wilt take thy chance with me?
  23. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
1. Now came still evening in, and twilight gray  
Had in her silver livery all things clad.
  2. Revenge is an act of passion; vengeance, of justice."
  3. Puss is still living and has just completed his ninth year.

Propositions: Exercise.

4. O'er rough and smooth she trips along and never looks behind.
  5. The day is cold and dark and dreary;  
It rains and the wind is never weary.
  6. The sea hath its pearls, the heaven hath its stars, but my heart hath its love.
  7. The familiar seems trivial, and only the distant and unknown completely fill and satisfy the mind.
  8. Either you or he must go.
  9. You have the power to command, nevertheless I will not come.
  10. In the process of ordinary distillation, the liquid to be distilled is heated and converted into vapor in one vessel, and chilled and re-converted into liquor in another.
- 
1. Though the deep between us rolls,  
Friendship shall unite our souls.
  2. His praise is lost who waits till all commend.
  3. There have been holy men who hid themselves  
Deep in the woody wilderness, and gave  
Their lives to thought and prayer.
  4. Come, sir, here's the place.
  5. My heart leaps up when I behold  
A rainbow in the sky.
  6. The bubbling brook doth leap when I come by,  
Because my feet find measure with its call.
  7. I'm a careless potato and care not a pin  
How into existence I came.
  8. As night to stars, woe lustre gives to man.
  9. Whate'er the motive, pleasure is the mark.
  10. Up guards! and at them!
  11. I ask you: are you innocent or guilty?

General Exercises.

12. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.
13. The good that men do lives after them.
14. All that I dread is leaving you behind.
15. Those that think must govern those that toil.
16. They never fail who die in a just cause.
17. He did what was required of him.
18. Thou see'st I am calm.
19. When icicles hang by the wall,  
And Dick the shepherd blows his nail,  
And Tom bears logs into the hall,  
And milk comes frozen home in pail;  
When blood is nipp'd, and ways be foul,  
Then nightly sings the staring owl,  
To-who.

*Exercises in Distinguishing Propositions,  
Clauses, Phrases, and Words.*

I.

Once, when the weather was very dry, a thirsty crow searched everywhere for water, but she could not find a drop. While she was croaking for sorrow, she spied a jug. Down she flew at once, and eagerly pushed in her bill; but it was of no use. There was plenty of water in the jug, but she could not reach it, because the neck of the vessel was too narrow. After she had tried in vain for half an hour to reach the water, she next attempted to tip the jug over; but it was too heavy for her, and she could not stir it. Just when she was on the point of giving up in despair, a

General Exercises.

new thought struck her. "If," said she, "I drop some stones into the jug, the water will rise higher, and in time it will rise up to my bill." Immediately, though she was nearly fainting with thirst, she bravely set to work. As each stone fell, the water rose; and before half an hour had passed, the clever crow had quite quenched her thirst.

## II.

The poetry of Milton differs from that of Dante, as the hieroglyphics of Egypt differed from the picture-writing of Mexico. The images which Dante employs speak for themselves:—they stand simply for what they are. Those of Milton have a signification which is often discernible only to the initiated. Their value depends less on what they directly represent, than on what they remotely suggest. However strange, however grotesque, may be the appearance which Dante undertakes to describe, he never shrinks from describing it. He gives us the shape, the color, the sound, the smell, the taste; he counts the numbers; he measures the size. His similes are the illustrations of a traveller. Unlike those of other poets, and especially of Milton, they are introduced in a plain, business-like manner; not for the sake of any beauty in the objects from which they are drawn, not for the sake of any ornament which they may impart to the poem, but simply in order to make the meaning of the writer as clear to the reader as it is to himself.

**THE CLASSES SEPARATELY STUDIED.****NOUNS: PROPERTIES.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 36-48.)

REMARK.—Up to this point, our work in connection with nouns, and with the other classes, has consisted merely in identifying words as members of classes. Now, the classes of words are to be studied separately, and we are to learn of the kinds and properties of nouns, pronouns, adjectives, &c., and of the rules governing the use of the various forms of words.

37. As each new fact is learned concerning nouns or any other class of words, the pupil in reciting should enlarge his descriptions accordingly. In describing a noun, he will now have to mention, besides other things, the number of the noun.

41-47. One can best learn by observation concerning the formation of plurals. Much information on the subject of irregular plurals and kindred subjects is to be obtained in the dictionaries, and in the encyclopedias of grammar. As occasions present, reviews upon irregular forms will be found practicable. (See the Lists, pp. 121-31.)

48. For exercises in genders and gender equivalents, the lists at the end of the book may be used.

**ON THE DEFINITION OF CASES.**

Every word when used at all in a proposition, is used in some relation. So with every form of any word. Hence there arises the danger of misapplying the definition of cases, and assuming that

Nouns: Parsing.

every word and every form of a word is a case. This danger may be easily avoided by keeping in mind the distinction between using a word *in* a certain relation, and using a form *on account of* a certain relation. Thus, in

the *hero* saved the *heroine's* life,

the nominative *hero* and the possessive *heroine's* are employed on account of the relation in which they are used respectively. It would be obviously incorrect to use the possessive form of *hero* in the relation in which the word *hero* is used, and the nominative *heroine* for the relation of *heroine's*, saying,

the hero's saved the heroine life.

But it would not be grammatically incorrect to interchange *hero* and *heroine* as *genders*, saying,

the heroine saved the hero's life;

for a gender indicates a sex as a mere fact, and genders are not used *on account of* grammatical relations.

In like manner, comparing cases with numbers, tenses, and other forms, it may be shown that only cases are used *on account of* certain grammatical relations.

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**ON THE PARSING OF WORDS.**

¶ I. Analysis, we have seen (p. 99), consists in dividing a proposition into its parts and describing those parts as such. But we may describe words as members of classes. To describe a word in this way is to PARSE it.

¶ II. It is presumed that the pupil has had practice in applying each new principle at the time it was taught. So that in giving a full description of a noun he will have a number of facts to observe and mention.

Nouns: Parsing.

¶ III. The following list and example of parsing are given by way of suggestion merely. It will be observed that the first few lines repeat in substance a recitation given under the definition of a noun. The repetition is made simply for the sake of completeness.

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**On the Parsing of Nouns.**

ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Number.
4. Gender.
5. The noun's relation:
6. Case.
7. Rule for construction.
8. Remarks.

*Example:*

There lives more faith in honest doubt,  
Believe me, than in half the *creeds*.

First, more or less extended analysis. Then:

*Creeds* is a word which names an object of thought and which may be used as the subject of a proposition. It is therefore a noun, according to the definition: A noun is a word which names an object of thought and which may be used as the subject of a proposition. It is a plural number and has no gender. It is the object of the preposition *of* understood, and is in the nominative case, according to the rule: A noun used as the object of a preposition must be in the nominative case.

Pronouns: Parsing.

(Remark.) We may consider the words **half the creeds** intimately enough connected to compose a phrase, and to be as such the object of the preposition **in**.

† IV. The pupil, for a time, should state his reasons for saying a word is of one gender or another, or of a certain number or case. He should never make a statement he does not understand and cannot verify.

† V. When the pupil has become familiar with the principles taught, it will not be necessary for him to make the parsing so complete. In fact, he should then abbreviate, so that his time and attention may be more fully occupied with new subjects.

The following is an abbreviated form of the foregoing example of parsing:

**Creeds** is a noun of the plural number, in the nominative case, and is the object of a preposition. With **half** and **the** it forms a phrase, **half the creeds**, which is object of the preposition **in**.

**PRONOUNS: PROPERTIES.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 50-55.)

66, c. Because we say that pronouns have persons, numbers, genders, and cases, it must not be inferred that every pronoun has all of these properties. A little thought will lead to the opposite conclusion. The term pronouns is applied to the class pronouns. (See TOPICS, par. 38.)

Pronouns: Parsing.*On the Parsing of Pronouns.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Person. 4. Number. 5. Gender.
6. The pronoun's relation:
7. Case. 8. Rule for construction.
9. Antecedent. 10. Rule for agreement.
11. Remarks.

*Example:*

**Huntsman, rest! thy chase is done.**

First, more or less complete analysis. Then:

**Thy** is a word, not a noun, used instead of a noun. It is therefore a pronoun, according to the definition: A pronoun is a word, &c., &c. It is of the second person, singular number; it has no gender. It is used to denote possession (in a certain sense) and is in the possessive case, according to the rule: A pronoun used to limit by denoting possession, &c., &c.

The antecedent of **thy** is **huntsman**, with which it agrees in number. Rule: A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, &c., &c.

(Remarks.) **Thy** here limits the noun **chase**. **Huntsman** has gender, but **thy** has not; hence these words can not agree in gender. **Thy** is a possessive pronoun for which **thine** is sometimes used as an equivalent.

## Adjectives: Parsing.

**ADJECTIVES: PARSING.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 56-58.)

81. It is not proper in speaking of the *forms* of an adjective, say *noble, nobler, noblest*, to call one a positive *degree*, another a comparative *degree*, and the third a superlative *degree*.

*On the Parsing of Adjectives.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Number (when the adjective has number).
4. Comparison.
5. Relation.
6. Remarks.

*Example:*

Affliction, when I know it, is but this:  
A deep alloy whereby man *tougher* is.

First, more or less complete analysis. Then:

*Tougher* is a word, neither noun nor pronoun, which may be placed directly before a noun to limit it. It is therefore an adjective, according to the definition: An adjective is a word, &c., &c. *Tougher* is the comparative form (not comparative *degree*) of the adjective *tough*, the superlative form of which is *toughest*. It is used here as the attribute of the proposition,

\* \* man is tougher,

and limits the noun *man*. We may say it limits some

## Verbs: Parsing.

noun as *person*, or *body*, understood. That noun would then be attribute of the proposition, and *tougher* merely a limiting word. (Remark.) It is proper to say *more tough* and *most tough*.

¶ *At the proper time the pupil may abbreviate; for example:*

*Abbreviated Form.*

*Tougher* (above) is an adjective of the comparative form. The positive form is *tough*; superlative, *toughest*. This adjective is used as attribute of the proposition,

\* \* man is tougher.

Or we may describe it as limiting a noun understood, as *person*, which would in that case be the attribute.

**VERBS: PARSING.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 59-65.)

90. For lists of irregular verbs see the end of the book. For remarks on the disposition of verb phrases, see pp. 117-20.

*On the Parsing of Verbs.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Person. 4. Number. 5. Tense.
6. Subject: 7. Agreement (Rule).
8. Use — { trans. (?), object.  
          { intrans.
9. Remarks.

Adverbs: Parsing.*Example:*

High in his pathway h u n g the sun.

First, more or less complete analysis. Then:

**Hung** is a word used as the predicate of a proposition. It is therefore a verb, according to the definition: A verb is a word, &c., &c. **Hung** is not a person nor a number. It is of the past tense. Its subject is **sun**. But, not having either a person or a number, **hung** does not agree with **sun**. The verb is here used intransitively and consequently does not have an object. The simple form of the present tense of this verb is **hang**.

¶ In those cases in which the verb is combined with a number of other words to form a verb phrase, the pupil should make mention of the fact. (See pp. 117-20.)

**ADVERBS.**

(See TOPICS, p. 66.)

*On the Parsing of Adverbs.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Comparison.
4. Actual relation.
5. Kind of adverb (why?). If conjunctive: propositions connected.
6. Remarks.

Some of the irregularly compared adverbs will be found on p. 125.

Prepositions: Conjunctions.**PREPOSITIONS.**

(See TOPICS, p. 25.)

*On the Parsing of Prepositions.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Words connected.
4. Object of preposition.
5. Remarks.

**CONJUNCTIONS.**

(See TOPICS, p. 67.)

*On the Parsing of Conjunctions.*

## ORDER.

1. Distinguishing qualities.
2. Definition.
3. Propositions connected.
4. Kind of conjunction.
5. Remarks.

¶ It was stated in the *Topics*, under adverbs, that the "rules" for the use of adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions were purposely omitted. We will select the "rules" for these classes of words as given in one of the grammars, and will use them in justifying their omission from this book:

An *Adverb* modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

A *Preposition* shows the relation of an object (object?) to some other (other?) word on which the adjunct depends.

A *Conjunction* connects words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

**Participles: Parsing.**

In the first place, these statements are not rules. The rules to be found in this work are imperative statements of a prescribed course to be observed in using certain words and certain forms. A rule should affirm that so and so *must* be or *should* be, &c., &c.

Again, we have learned that adverbs may limit other words than verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The "rule," then, is misleading.

Further, it is true that prepositions indicate the relations of the objects denoted by the words connected. But the relations of *objects* to one another are not grammatical relations and need not be mentioned in a grammar. We may say with propriety that prepositions indicate the relations to each other of the words they connect, but the statement of the fact is not a rule, and is not of first importance.

Lastly, in our definition we say that conjunctions connect propositions; so that there is no need of any "rule" to call attention to that fact.

**PARTICIPLES: PARSING.**

(See TOPICS, pp. 68, 69.)

***On the Parsing of Participles.***

Since pupils find participles and infinitives more difficult to understand than other kinds of words, the work upon these subjects should be made very thorough.

## ORDER.

- |                             |   |
|-----------------------------|---|
| 1. Distinguishing qualities | } deriv. from verb.<br>nat. of a verb.<br>nat. of an adj. |
| 2. Definition.              |   |
| 3. Verb from which derived. |   |

**Participles: Parsing.**

4. Respect in which similar to a verb.
5. Respect in which similar to an adjective.
6. Principal parts of corresponding verb.
7. Remarks.

*Example.*

From the steep promontory gazed  
The stranger, *raptured* and amazed.

First, more or less complete analysis. Then :

**Raptured** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of an adjective. It is therefore a participle, according to the definition: A participle is a word, &c., &c. It is derived from the verb **rapture**. It partakes of the nature of a verb because it may be limited by an adverb as a verb is limited. It partakes of the nature of an adjective in limiting adjectively **stranger**, a noun. It is a regular perfect participle. The principal parts of the corresponding verb are **rapture**, and **raptured**.

REMARK.—It may be said, also, that the relation of **raptured** to **stranger** is similar to that of a noun in apposition with another noun. It may therefore be said to limit **stranger** appositively. That relation of the participle is not inconsistent with the definition, which declares the participle to be like an adjective; because the relation of apposition, though common with nouns, is really not a substantive relation, but adjectival.

¶ When the participle is part of a phrase the fact should be noted.

Infinitives: Parsing.**INFINITIVES: PARSING.**

(See TOPICS, p. 70.)

*On the Parsing of Infinitives.*

## ORDER.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. Distinguishing qualities               | { deriv. from verb.<br>nat. of a verb.<br>nat. of a noun. |
| 2. Definition.                            |   |
| 3. Verb from which derived.               |   |
| 4. Respect in which similar to a verb.    |   |
| 5. Respect in which similar to a noun.    |   |
| 6. Principal parts of corresponding verb. |   |
| 7. Remarks.                               |   |

*Example:*

He can do little that can't do this.

First, more or less complete analysis. Then :

**Do** is a word derived from a verb and partaking of the nature of a verb and of a noun. It is therefore an infinitive, according to the definition: An infinitive is a word, &c., &c. It is derived from the verb **do**. It is like a verb in that it may take an object (unless we consider **little** to be a noun, in which case **do** does take an object). It partakes of the nature of a noun in being the object of a verb, **can**. The corresponding perfect participle is **done**. The principal parts of the corresponding verb are **do** and **did**.

¶ Exercises in analysis and parsing can be varied in many ways. Some teachers may deem it necessary to supplement the exercises with more or less work of various kinds. Some may choose to abridge. It should be remembered that grammar is not the most important of studies, and in assigning work to pupils the teacher should consider time and the *comparative* importance of the subject.

## VERB PHRASES.

**ON THE DISPOSITION OF PHRASES.**

¶ I. In disposing of verb phrases containing, besides the verb, both participles and infinitives, there is seldom any difficulty in distinguishing the verb. Whenever there is any difficulty, it is generally occasioned by the participles and the infinitives. Therefore it has seemed best to introduce the discussion of this subject after the topics, Participles, and Infinitives.

*Example of a Recitation.*

He must have been injured.

**Must have been injured** is a verb phrase forming the predicate of the proposition. **Injured** is a perfect participle limiting **he**, the subject, and is the attribute of the proposition. **Must** is a verb having no tense, no person, and no number. **Have** is an infinitive, the object of **must**. **Been** is a perfect participle joined with **must have** to form a copula connecting the attribute **injured** with the subject. The words together form a phrase representing an act as certainly performed at some past time not specified.

¶ II. It will be noticed that **have** was not said to take an object, though it is ordinarily transitive; and that **been**, a perfect participle, was not called an attribute. To explain this, a long statement is necessary. The explanation is logical rather than grammatical:

## Verb Phrases discussed.

† III. The expression,

**I will go,**

one of the examples given under the topic Infinitive (p. 96), was said to mean, practically, **I will the act of going.** So

**I ought (to) go**

means practically **I owe the act of going.** In the first example **will** is a verb and **go** is an infinitive, object of **will**; in the second, **ought** is a verb and **go** is an infinitive, object of **ought.** And in

**I shall go,**

**I may go,**

**I can go,**

**I must go,**

**go** is an infinitive, object respectively of **shall, may, can, and must.**

Again in

**I shall be,**

**I may be,**

**I can be,**

**I must be,**

**be** is an infinitive, and, like **go** in the preceding examples, it is the object of a verb in each instance. But these expressions sound incomplete. Let us add the word **walking**, so that the expressions shall read,

**I shall be walking,**

**I may be walking,**

**I can be walking,**

**I must be walking.**

The word **walking** in each case limits the subject, **I**, and is an attribute. It is connected with the subject by **shall**

## Verb Phrases discussed.

**be, may be, and so on,** which are therefore copulas. Yet **shall, may, can, and must** are still verbs. And **be** is still an infinitive in each example, just as it was in the preceding examples.

Again, let us substitute **have** for **be** in **I shall be,** forming

**I shall have.**

**Have,** like **be,** is an infinitive, and is the object of **shall.** **I shall have,** however, does not sound complete. We may add **the book,** saying,

**I shall have the book,**

**have** signifying possess. And if we wish to describe the condition of the book which is to be possessed we may add the word **bound,** saying,

**I shall have the book bound,**

**have** still meaning *possess.* As before, **shall** is a verb, and **have** is its object. But now **have,** also, has an object, **book,** which is limited by **bound,** a perfect participle.

Furthermore, if we choose to put the perfect participle nearer to the verb phrase, we may by transposing obtain

**I shall have bound the book.**

By this transposition the meaning of the expression is greatly changed. Whereas before, the expression only indicated the time at which possession of the book was to be obtained, without reference to the time of the binding, it now declares particularly that the binding is to be completed at some future time. Indeed, **shall have bound** is a perfect tense phrase. But in producing it, **have** has lost its meaning of *possess,* and no longer takes an object. It has lost individuality in becoming part of a phrase having a pe-

Verb Phrases discussed.

cular meaning. It cannot, therefore, be parsed as fully as when possessed of an individual force. Such is the case generally with words that go to make up phrases. This is shown further in

**they have gone.**

Here, though a *present tense*, **have** is joined with a perfect participle to form a phrase representing an act performed during *past time*. And in

**they may have gone,**

the infinitive **have** serves a similar purpose. If we divide these phrases, **have gone** and **may have gone**, and attempt to ascribe to each word the force it would have if used alone, we shall destroy the peculiar force of the phrase. The same is true of **must have been injured** in

**he must have been injured,**

the example used in the recitation introducing this topic; also of such expressions as

**he was to have been made secretary, and  
the king having been dethroned, the prince was  
crowned.**

*We may say, then, in general terms:* Whenever several words, composing part of a proposition, are so intimately combined in a phrase as to lose individual force, the nicer analysis may be waived, and the words may be described as phrase members. This is true of adverb phrases and phrases of other kinds, as well as of verb phrases.

## LISTS OF WORDS

FOR

## EXERCISES ON IRREGULAR FORMS, &amp;c.

REMARK.—These lists are not intended to be complete vocabularies of irregular words, but merely to furnish material for exercises on the more familiar words.

*Genders and Gender Equivalents.*

I.

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
bachelor	maid	gentleman	lady
	spinster	hart	roe
beau	belle	he	she
boar	sow	horse	mare
boy	girl	husband	wife
bridegroom	bride	king	queen
brother	sister	lad	lass
buck	doe	lord	lady
	ewe	male	female
bull	cow	man	woman
bullock	heifer	master	mistress
colt	filly		miss
drake	duck	Mr.	Mrs.
earl	countess	mister	mistress
father	mother	monk	nun
friar	nun	monsieur	madame
gander	goose		mademoiselle

## Irregular words : Genders.

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
nephew	niece	stag	hind
ox	cow	steer	heifer
papa	mamma	swain	nymph
ram	ewe	uncle	aunt
rooster	hen	wizard	witch
sir	madam	youth	maiden
sire ( <i>horse</i> )	dam		damsel
son	daughter		

## II.

abbott	abbess	Infant	Infanta
administrator	administratrix	Jesse	Jessie
anchorite	anchoress	John	Johanna
Augustus	Augusta	Joseph	Josephine
Cornelius	Cornelia	Julius	Julia
czar	czarina		Juliet
don	donna	landgrave	landgravine
duke	duchess	marquis	marchioness
emperor	empress	negro	negress
executor	executrix	Paul	Pauline
Francis	Frances	signor	signora
Frank	Frances	sultan	sultana
goodman	goody	testator	testatrix
Henry	Henrietta	votary	votaress
hero	heroine	widower	widow.

## III.

archduke	archduchess	milkman	milkmaid
he-bear	she-bear	peacock	peahen
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
he-goat	she-goat	stepson	stepdaughter
grandfather	grandmother	stepfather	stepmother
landlord	landlady		

## Irregular words : Plurals.

## IRREGULAR PLURALS.

		I.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
beef	beeves	mouse	mice
brother	brothers	ox	oxen
	brethren	pea	peas
calf	calves		pease
child	children	penny	pennies
cow	cows		pence
	kine	self	selves
die	dies	she	they
	dice	sheaf	sheaves
elf	elves	shelf	shelves
foot	feet	sow	sows
genius	geniuses		swine
	genii	staff	stuffs
goose	geese		staves
half	halves	that	those
he	they	thief	thieves
I	we	this	these
index	indexes	thou	ye
	indices	tooth	teeth
it	they	wharf	wharfs
knife	knives		wharves
leaf	leaves	wife	wives
life	lives	wolf	wolves
loaf	loaves	woman	women
louse	lice		
man	men		

## II.

## FOREIGN WORDS.

Words marked R. form also the regular English plural.

analysis	analyses	axis	axes
alumna	alumnae	bandit, R.	banditti
alumnus	alumni	basis	bases

## Irregular words: Adjectives.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
beau, R.	beaux	monsieur	messieurs
crisis	crises	Mr.	Messrs.
criterion, R.	criteria	nebula	nebulae
calyx, R.	calyces.	nucleus, R.	nuclei
cherub, R.	cherubim	oasis	oases
datum	data	parenthesis	parentheses
dilettante	dilettanti	phenomenon	phenomena
erratum	errata	radius, R.	radii
ellipses	ellipses	rostrum, R.	rostra
focus, R.	foci	seraph, R.	seraphim
formula, R.	formulae	spectrum, R.	spectra
fungus, R.	fungi	stamen, R.	stamina
fulcrum, R.	fulcra	stimulus	stimuli
genus	genera	stratum, R.	strata
hypothesis	hypotheses	synopsis	synopses
lamina	laminæ	synthesis	syntheses
larva	larvæ	terminus	termini
medium, R.	media	thesis	theses
memorandum, R.	memoranda	tumulus	tumuli
metamorphosis	metamorphoses	vertebra	vertebrae
minutia	minutiæ	vertex, R.	vertices
madam	mesdames		

## IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.
bad	worse	worst
evil	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost
good	better	best
hind	hinder	hindmost
ill	worse	worst
(in)	inner	innermost
		inmost

## Irregular words: Adverbs.

POSITIVE.	COMPAR.	SUPERL.
little	less	least
	lesser	
late	later	latest
	latter	last
many	more	most
much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest
		next
(out)	outer	outmost
	(utter)	utmost
		uttermost
old	older	oldest
	elder	eldest
(up)	(upper)	uppermost
well	better	best

## IRREGULAR ADVERBS.

badly	worse	worst
early	earlier	earliest
far	farther	farthest
forth	further	furthest
little	less	least
near	nearer	nearest
		next
much	more	most
well	better	best
oft, often	oftener	oftenest

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

It will be observed that in many cases either the past tense, or the perfect participle, or both have the regular form. The italicized forms are either obsolete or not so often used as the accompanying forms.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, <i>awaked</i>	awaked
be or am	was	been
bear ( <i>bring forth</i> )	bore, <i>bare</i>	born
bear ( <i>carry</i> )	bore, bare	borne
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
belay	belaid, <i>belayed</i>	belaid, <i>belayed</i>
bend	bent, bended	bent, bended
bet	bet, betted	bet, betted
bereave	bereft	bereft, bereaved
beseech	besought	besought
bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blended, <i>blent</i>	blended, <i>blent</i>
bless	blessed, <i>blest</i>	blessed, <i>blest</i>
blow	blew	blown
break	broke, <i>brake</i>	broken, <i>broke</i>
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built, builded	built, builded
burn	burned, <i>burnt</i>	burned, <i>burnt</i>

## Irregular Verbs.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid, <i>chode</i>	chidden, <i>chid</i>
choose	chose	chosen
cleave ( <i>adhere</i> )	cleaved, <i>clave</i>	cleaved
cleave ( <i>split</i> )	clove, cleft, <i>clave</i>	cleft, <i>cloven</i>
climb	climbed, <i>clomb</i>	climbed
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed, <i>clad</i>	clothed, <i>clad</i>
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crowed, <i>crew</i>	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare ( <i>venture</i> )	dared, <i>durst</i>	dared
deal	dealt, <i>dealed</i>	dealt, <i>dealed</i>
dig	dug, <i>digged</i>	dug, <i>digged</i>
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
dress	dressed, <i>arest</i>	dressed, <i>arest</i>
drink	drank, <i>drunk</i>	drunk, <i>drunken</i>
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
eat	ate, <i>eat</i>	eaten, <i>eat</i>
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown

## Irregular Verbs.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded
gird	girt, girded	girt, girded
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven, graved
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang ( <i>suspend</i> )	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, <i>hove</i>	heaved, <i>hoven</i>
hew	hewed	hewn, hewed
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held, <i>holden</i>
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laded, laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leap	leaped, <i>leapt</i>	leaped, <i>leapt</i>
learn	learned, <i>learnt</i>	learned, <i>learnt</i>
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie ( <i>recline</i> )	lay	lain
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit

## Irregular Verbs.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mowed, mown
pass	passed, past	passed, past
pay	paid	paid
pen ( <i>enclose</i> )	penned, <i>pent</i>	penned, <i>pent</i>
prove	proved	proved, proven
put	put	put
quit	quitted, <i>quit</i>	quitted, <i>quit</i>
rap	rapped, <i>rapt</i>	rapped, <i>rapt</i>
read	read	read
rent	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode, <i>rid</i>	ridden, <i>rid</i>
ring	rang, <i>rung</i>	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven, rived
run	ran, <i>run</i>	run
saw	sawed	sawed, <i>sawn</i>
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe	seethed, <i>sod</i>	sodden, seethed
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shape	shaped	shaped, <i>shapen</i>
shave	shaved	shaven, shaved
shear	sheared, <i>shore</i>	shorn, sheared
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone

## Irregular Verbs.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shred	shred	shred
shrink	shrank, <i>shrank</i>	shrank, shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang, <i>sung</i>	sung
sink	sank, <i>sunk</i>	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slidden, slid
sling	slung, <i>slang</i>	slung
slink	slunk, <i>slank</i>	slunk
slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, <i>smelt</i>
smit	smote	smitten, <i>smit</i>
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke, <i>spake</i>	spoken
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
spell	spelled, <i>spelt</i>	spelt, spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spin	spun, <i>span</i>	spun
spit	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit
split	split	split, <i>splitted</i>
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang, <i>sprung</i>	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
stay	staid, stayed	staid, stayed
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung

## Irregular Verbs.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PERFECT PARTICIPLE.
stride	strode, <i>strid</i>	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow, strew	strowed, <i>strewed</i>	strown, strewn
swear	swore, <i>sware</i>	sworn
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen, swelled
swim	swam, <i>swum</i>	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore, <i>tare</i>	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	thrived, <i>throve</i>	thrived, <i>thriven</i>
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	waked, woke	waked, woke
wax	waxed	waxed, waxen
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	wedded, wed	wedded, wed
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted
whet	whet, whetted	whet, whetted
win	won	won
wind	wound, winded	wound
work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote, <i>writ</i>	written

## INDEX.

*The references are to pages.*

- Abbreviate, 108 (V).  
abbreviated form of recitation: adjective, 111; noun, 108;  
subject, 81.  
abstract names, number, 38.  
action: object of, 22 (c); subject of, 22 (c).  
adjective: def., 20; clause, 34.  
adjectival nature of participle, 27 (a).  
adjectives:  
abbreviated recitation, 111.  
cases (?), 56; comparison, 57-8; compound, 56.  
exercises, 89-90.  
genders (?), 56.  
interrogative, 56; irregular, 124-5.  
numbers, 56-7; numeral, 56.  
parsing: abbrev., 111; example of, 110; order, 110.  
persons (?), 56; pronominal, 56.  
recitation, 110; remarks, 89.  
adverb: def., 23; clause, 34; remark on def., 91.  
adverbs: comparison, 66; compound, 66; conjunct., see letter c.  
exercises, 91.  
parsing, order, 112.  
"rule," 66 (remark), 113-14; relative, 66.  
agreement: mean'g, 55; verb and subject, 61-3, 63 (b).  
analysis: meaning, 99; order of, 99-100.  
antecedent: mean'g, 55; agree't, 55.  
apposition: mean'g, 47; nouns, 47; pronouns, 54.  
attribute, def., 16.  
bare, complete, 26; exercises, 82; recitation, 82 (a).  
attributive object, 33 (d).

- Bare: subject, predicate, &c., 15; attribute, 16; copula, 16.
- Cases: def., 43; as opposed to other forms, 105-6; as opposed to relations, 46.  
 nominative: nouns, 43; pronouns, 51.  
 nouns, 42-48; pronouns, 51-3.  
 objective, of pronouns, 51.  
 possessive: nouns, 43; pronouns, 51; formation, 43-4  
 rules, see letter r.
- class membership: how determined, 18 (remark); 23-4; 27 (par. 19);  
 or (c).
- classes of words: defined, 18-28; in forming compounds, 28;  
 separately studied (chapter), 36-70; remarks, 105.
- classification of words, basis: 27 (par. 19), 18 (remark), 24 (d),  
 or (par. 14 c).
- clauses: mean'g, 30 (d); adject., 34; adverb, 34; noun, substan-  
 tive, 33 (a); exercises, 102-3, 103-5.
- combined: words, 11 (b); subj. and pred. in prop., 17.
- collectives, 37; number of, 38.
- compare, to, 58; comparative form, 57.
- comparison: adjectives, 57-8, 124-5; adverbs, 66, 125.
- complement, 78 (3, c).
- complete: subject, predicate, 15; attribute, copula, 16.
- complex proposition: mean'g, 30 (c); analysis, 99 (par. 5); exer-  
 cises, 102-3; recitation, 100.
- compound: adjectives, 56; adverbs, 66; verbs, 59.  
 propositions: mean'g, 30; exercises, 101-2, 103.  
 words, 28.
- condition: in def. of attribute, 15; indicated by attribute, 16 (b), 82.
- conjunction, def., 26.
- conjunctions: disting. from prepositions, 26 (d), 92 (d); co-  
 ordinating, 67; exercises, 92, 101-2, 103; remarks, 92; subor-  
 dinating, 67.
- conjunctive: adverbs, 26 (c), 66; disting. from conjunctions,  
 92 (d); exercises, 93, 102-3; pronouns, 49.
- connectives: copulas, 16; conjunctions, 26; conjunctive ad-  
 verbs, 26 (c); conjunct. pronouns, 49; conjunctions, 26; prep-  
 ositions, 25; phrases, 16 (c), 35.
- construct, to, def., 45.
- construction, see rules, letter r.
- co-ordinating conjunctions, 67.
- copula: def., 16; in def. of preposition, 25; in def. of verb, 21;  
 phrase, 16 (c); exercises, 82; recitation, 83 (b).

- Declarative proposition (clause), 29.
- deer, not a number, 38.
- degrees, disting. from forms, 110.
- dependent proposition (clause), 29 (a).
- derived, in definition of participle, infinitive, 27.
- direct object, 32 (a); exercises, 100.
- Ellipsis, 34.
- else, exception to definition of adjective, 20 (d).
- English grammar, def., 13.
- equivalents: gender, 42; phrases of comparison, 58 (a,b); 66 (a).
- etymology, 77.
- expletive, 32 (e); *there*, 32 (e).
- Feminine gender: def., 41; formation of (nouns), 41 (par. 49).
- first person: pronouns, 50; verbs, 59.
- foreign nouns: plurals of, 40 (par. 47); list, 123.
- formation of genders, numbers, tenses, &c., see letters g, n, t, &c.
- forms: in definition of grammar, 12-13; disting. from *degrees*,  
 110; from *relations*, 46; of nouns, pronouns, &c., see letters  
 n, p, &c.
- future-tense phrase, 63.
- future-perfect-tense phrase, 65.
- Genders: def., 41; of nouns, 41-2; of pronouns, 51; equiva-  
 lents, 42; feminine, def., 41; formation of feminine, 41 (par.  
 49); irregular genders and equivalents, 121-2; neuter of  
 nouns, 42; neuter of pronouns, 51.
- grammar: def., 11-13; English grammar, def., 13; object of  
 studying, 77 (g); remarks on definit., 77-8.
- grammatically independent, 48 (a); rule for nouns, 48.
- Helps, 70 +.
- hints, to teachers (unclassified): abbreviating recitations, 108 (IV),  
 111 (I); applying definitions and principles, 73-7, 80 (I),  
 86 (II), 88 (a), 98 (remark); assigning lesson, 74 (IV).
- book as guide, 73 (I).
- cases: definition, disting. from other forms, 105-6.
- complement, 78.
- course of study, 77 (remark).
- conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, 92.

hints—*continued.*

definition: of adjective, 89 (¶); of adverb, 91; of attribute, 82; of cases, 105-6; of conjunction, 92; of grammar, 77-8; of subject, 78; of the several classes, 95 (I).

distinctions: degrees-forms, 110; definition-description, 91; words-objects, 78; *may be used—is used*, 86 (top of p.).

division of words into classes, 85 (I).

formation of plurals, 105.

habit of speaking correctly: the teacher's part in inculcating, 95-8; in preface.

infinitive, 95-8.

learning by rote, 75.

limiting words, 88, 89 (¶), 91, 95 (¶).

new examples for recitations, 75; object of examples, 80 (¶).

nouns, 85-6, 105-8.

parsing, 106, 107 (III), 108 (V).

participles, 93; prepositions, 92; pronouns (properties), 108.

plan of subjects studied, 76.

preparation for class, 74 (IV).

progress, 76, 86 (IV), 87 (I).

reasons for conclusions, 75; omitted, 108.

recitations and study, 74-6; on definitions, 85 (a).

relations, 77; as basis of classification, 91.

reviewing, 75-6.

"rules" for adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, 113-14.

selections from authors for recitations, 75.

study of nouns, 85-6; of pronouns, 86-7.

teacher a guide, 73 (I).

test of knowledge of principles, &c., 75.

using the book, 10, 72; illustrations, 73 (II), 79.

verb phrases, 112 (¶), 117-20.

who should study grammar (?), 76.

Ideas, words express, 11 (a).

imperative propositions, 29.

independent: grammatically, 48 (a); proposition, 30 (b, 1).

indirect object, 32 (a); examples, 100.

infinitive, def., 27.

infinitives: disting. from participles, 95 (¶ I); from nouns, 96 (¶ II); direct, and indirect object of, 32 (b), 100; exercises, 96, 97; in *-ing*, 70; as object of verb, 96; parsing, order, example of, 116; recitation on definition, 98; root, 70; as subject of proposition, 32 (c).

*-ing*: infinitive in, 70; participle in, 68 (b).

interjection, meaning, 28.

interrogative: adjectives, 49, 56; pronouns, 49; propositions, 29.

intransitive verbs, 23 (f).

irregular: adjectives, 124-5; adverbs, 125; genders, 121-2; past tenses, 60, 126-31; perf. participles, 69, 126-31; plurals, 38, 39-40, (lists) 123-4, (foreign) 123; verbs, 60, (lists) 126-31; words, remark, 105, (lists) 121-31.

it, impersonal, 32 (d).

Language lessons, preface; 74 (¶ III).

language, study of, 77.

less, least, 53.

limit or restrict, to: def., 20; exercises on limiting words, recitation, remarks, 88, 89; in def. of adjective, 20 (c, d); phrases 20 (f).

lists, of irregular words, 121-31 (see under irregular).

Masculine gender, def., 41; of nouns, 41; of pronouns, 51.

*may be used*, disting. from *is used*, 19 (e), 20 (e), 23 (c), 86, 89 (¶), 91 (c, ¶).

moods (?), 65.

more, most, in adjective phrases, 58 (a, b); in adverb phrases, 66.

Name: in def. of noun, 19; noun as name of itself, 19 (e); noun as name of abstract objects, 38 (par. 40).

neuter gender: nouns (?), 42; pronouns, 51.

nominative case: nouns:—43 (c); of subject, attribute, object, 45; object of preposition, participle, infinitive, 46 (a); in independent relation, 48; pronouns:—31 (a); as subj., attrib., object, 52-3.

noun: def., 19; in def. of adjective, 20; of adverb, 23; of infinitive, 27; clause, 33 (a); as name, 19 (d); as name of itself, 19 (e), 40 (par. 46); as name of abstract object, 38 (par. 40).

nouns: chapter, 36-48; cases, genders, numbers, rules, see letters c, g, n, r.

appositive, 47; attribute, 45, 82.

common, proper, compound, collective, 36-7.

obj. of infinitive, preposition, participle, verb, 45-6.

possessive of, 43-4, 47.

parsing: order, example of, 107; abbreviated, 108; remarks, 108.

recitation on the definition, 85; remarks, 85, 86.

as substantive, 33 (a).

- numbers: def., 37; adj., 57 (c); nouns, 37-40; pronouns, 50; verbs, 59.  
 singular, plural (meaning), 37 (c).  
 plurals: formation of, 38-40; irregular (meaning), 38 (a); formation of, 39-40; lists of irregular, 123-4; spoken, written, 38-9.  
 numeral adjectives, 56.
- Object: of action, 22 (c); attributive, 33 (d); direct and indirect, 32 (a)—examples, 100; of infinitive, 46 (a), 96; of participle, 46 (a); of preposition, 25, 46 (a); of a verb, 22 (c, d, e, f)—not an adverb, 23 (a, b).
- objective case, 51.  
 orthography, 77.  
 orthoepy, 77.
- Parse, to, meaning, 106.
- parsing, order, example of:  
 abbreviated, 108, 109; adjectives, 110—abbrev. form, 111; adverbs (order only), 112.  
 conjunctions (order, not example of), 113.  
 infinitives, 116.  
 nouns, 107; abbrev., 108.  
 participles, 114; prepositions (order only), 113; pronouns, 109.  
 verbs, 111-112.
- participle, def., 27; recitation on def., 94.
- participles: direct, and indirect object, 32 (b); disting. from adjectives, 93, 95 (¶); from infinitives, 95 (¶ 1).  
 exercises, 94.  
 forms, 68; formation of perf. part., 69.  
 imperfect, 68 (a, b).  
 in phrases, 117-20.  
 parsing, order, example of, 114-15.
- parts, principal, of verbs, 69 (a).
- past-perfect-tense phrase, 64.
- past tense: meaning, 60; format of, 60-1; irregular, 60, (lists) 126-31.
- perfect participle, 68; formation of, 69.
- personal pronouns, 49.
- persons: def., 50; of pronouns, 50; of verbs, 59 (a, b).
- phrase, def., 34-5.
- phrases: exercises, 101-3, 103-5; fut.-perf.-tense phr., 65; fut.-tense phr., 63; present-perfect-tense phr., 64; past-perf.-tense phr., 64; of comparison, 58; verb phrases, discussed, 117-20.

- plan, 7-8.
- pluperfect-tense phrase, 64.
- plural number, see (index) under numbers.
- plurals, irregular, lists, 123-4.
- positive form, 57.
- possessive case, def., 43; see also (index) under cases.
- possessive nouns in apposition, 47 (c, 2d).
- predicate: def., 15; bare, and complete, 15 (c); exercises, 81; in def. of verb, 21; with two or more subjects, 31 (b).
- preposition: def., 25; object of, 25 (c); remarks on definit., 92.
- prepositions: compared with conjunctions, 26 (d); parsing, order, 113; "rule," 113-14.
- present participle, 68 (a, b).
- present-perfect-tense phrase, 64.
- principal: parts of verbs, 69 (a); propositions, 29 (a).
- pronominal adjectives, 56.
- pronoun, def., 19.
- pronouns: cases, genders, numbers, persons, 50-1.  
 conjunctive, interrog., relative, personal, 49.  
 impersonal, 32 (d).  
 parsing, order, example of, 109.  
 properties (remarks), 108.  
 rules, see (index) under rules.
- proper nouns, 37.
- proposition: def., 17; chapter on definition, 14-17; compared with sentence, 31 (e); exercises on the def., 83-4.
- propositions: analysis of, order, 99; chapter on kinds, 29-35; connected by conjunctions, 26 (a, b, c, d), 67.  
 clauses, see (index) clauses.  
 compound, complex, simple, 30.  
 declarative, imperative, interrogative, principal, subordinate, 29.  
 dependent, independent, 29, 30.  
 exercises, 101-2-3-4-5; recitation on disting'g, propositions, 100.  
 uses, as clauses, 33-4.
- Quality: in def. of attribute, 16; degrees of (comparison), 56.
- Recitations: attribute, 83 (a); copula, 83 (b); subject, 80-1.  
 analysis: of proposition, 100; verb phrases, 117.  
 definition: of noun, 85; pronoun, 86; limit, to, 88; participle, 94; infinitive, 98.

- recitations—*continued*.  
 in parsing: nouns, 107—abbrev., 108; pronouns, 109; adjectives,  
 110—abbrev., 111; verbs, 112; participles, 115; infinitives, 116.  
 regular: plurals, 38; perf. participles, 69; verbs, 60.  
 related words, 11 (a, c).  
 relation: of words, def., 12 (e); .II—12; state of, 11 (d); disting.  
 from case, 46; words in different relations, 12 (a, b).  
 relations, as basis of classification, 27 (par. 19), 91 (c), 92 (¶), 93,  
 95 (18 a, 1).  
 independent of grammatical relations, 28.  
 relative pronouns, 49.  
 restrict, see (index) under limit.  
 rhetoric, 77.  
 root infinitive, 70.  
 rule, meaning, 113, 114 (¶)  
 rules: adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, (?), 113—14.  
 construction: nouns:  
 subject, attribute, object of verb, 45.  
 object of preposition, part., infin., 46 (a).  
 possessive, apposition, 47.  
 four rules, 48.  
 grammatically independent, 48.  
 construction: pronouns:  
 subj., attrib., obj. of verb, prep., part., inf., 53.  
 possessive, apposition, 54.  
 agreement with antecedent, 55.  
 construction: verbs: agree't with subj., 61 (b, 2d); in 3d  
 person, singular, 63 (b).
- Sentence, mean. of, 31 (e).  
**sheep**, not a number, 38.  
 sign of infinitive, **to**, 96 (III).  
 simple proposition, 30 (a).  
 singular number, see (index) under numbers.  
 spelling, not basis of classification, 18 (remark), 24 (d).  
 subject: def., 14; agreement, 61 (b, 2d), 63 (b); bare, complete, 15;  
 of action, 22 (c); composed of several words, 14 (¶), 31 (b);  
 disting. from logical subject, 78 (3, a); exercises, recitation,  
 79—80; impersonal, 32 (d); as noun, 18 (b); as infinitive, 95 (a);  
 used to designate bare subject, 15 (e).  
 subjective relation, 46 (remark).  
 subordinate: proposition, 29 (a); conjunctions, 67.

- substance, disting. from *word*, 14 (a).  
 substantive: clauses, 33 (a); nature of infinitive, 27 (a, 2d).  
 suggestions, to the teacher, 73—6.  
 superlative form, 57.
- Teacher to: hints, see (index) under hints; general suggestions,  
 73—6.  
 tense: present, past, 60; phrases, see (index) under phrases.  
 tenses: meaning, 60 (a); of verbs, 60 (b).  
**there**, expletive, 32 (e).  
**to**, sign of infinitive, 96 (III).  
 “to be,” forms, 62.  
 transitive verbs, 23 (f).
- Understood, meaning of, 17.
- Verb: def., 21; direct and indirect object of, 32, b; not group of  
 words, 21 (remark); remark on definition, 90.  
 verbs: exercises (remark), 90 (¶); irregular, meaning, 60 (90 a),  
 lists, 126—31; number, persons, 59; phrases, see (index) under  
 phrases; parsing, order, example, 111—12; tenses, 60—3; rule,  
 agree't, see (index) under rules.  
 verbal nature of participles, infinitives, 27.
- Words: disting. from substance, 14 (a); from group of words,  
 21 (remark); as name of itself, 19 (e), 40 (par. 46).  
 words: basis of classification, 27 (par. 19); classes of def., 18—28;  
 combined, 11 (b); compound, 28; different forms, 12; in differ-  
 ent relations, 12; on the parsing of, 106; related, 11 (b); spell-  
 ing not basis of classification, 18 (remark).