FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

SIMON KERL, A.M.,

AUTHOR OF "AN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH GRAMMAR," "A COMMON-SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR," AND "A COMPREHENSIVE ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

NEW YORK:
IVISON, PHINNEY, BLAKEMAN, & CO.
CHICAGO: S. C. GRIGGS & CO
1869.
FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

By SIMON KERL, A.M.,

AUTHOR OF "AN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH GRAMMAR," "A COMMON-SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR," AND "A COMPREHENSIVE ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

NEW YORK:
IVISON, PHINNEY, BLAKEMAN, & CO.
CHICAGO: S. C. GRIFFS & CO.
1869.
KERL'S SERIES OF GRAMMARS.

KERL'S First Lessons in English Grammar.—Designed as an introduction to the Common-School Grammar. The plan, definitions, observations, and exercises, are in the simplest style, and suited to the capacity of children.

KERL'S Common-School Grammar.—A simple, thorough, and practical grammar of the English language. Great care has been taken to make it, if possible, the best treatise of its kind now before the public. The parts relating to Idioms, Analysis, and False Syntax, will be found particularly valuable.

KERL'S Comprehensive Grammar.—A very original work, that breaks up the old stereotyped style of English grammars, and re-arranges matter more nearly in accordance with the genius of the language. The articles on Versification, Punctuation, and Capital Letters, throw new light on these subjects; and in False Syntax, and the Analysis of Sentences, the exercises are fresh, pithy, and exhaustive. The work is of great practical utility to every speaker, writer, or teacher, as a book of reference.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1866, by Kerl in the Clerk's Office of the District Court for the Southern District of New York.

Scribe Unknown
Jan 15, 1950

PREFACE.

The following treatise is an attempt to put the science of grammar upon a more simple, natural, and practical basis. That the schools of our country are generally restless under the present systems of grammar, and that the results obtained from the study of this science are not generally satisfactory, may be taken as conclusive evidence that the time has come for some radical change in this department of education.

It is rather remarkable at how early an age children learn to speak their mother-tongue; and this fact proves that they are also able to understand the great and obvious principles of language early,—certainly before their minds are overrun with those errors of expression which seem to spring up, in every community, as naturally and inevitably as weeds.

To see what is true or right, in the niceties of grammar, is often a puzzling matter even to persons of mature and cultivated judgment; and it is unreasonable to suppose that young children can master the subtleties, or that they will take pleasure in what must appear to them enigmatical and useless.

It is therefore probably best to teach them as much practical grammar as possible, but with just as little of the science as will suffice for this purpose. Let them learn to avoid, as soon as they can, all the common errors of language; and when they are older, and have time to study further, they can learn more of the science in one year than many of them now learn in two or three years. The common mode of teaching grammar seems to us rather an inverted one. Children are worried for years in the abstractions of analysis and parsing, from which they often acquire a loathing and permanent dislike to grammar itself; yet, after all, when they quit school, most of them know, in regard to language, but little of that for which especially they were sent to school,—namely, to speak and write their mother-tongue with propriety.

We have divided our subject into three principal parts: definitions, inflections, and constructions. The first part comprises a bundle of about one hundred definitions,—all the important ones needed in the study of grammar. In making these definitions, we endeavored to embody in them truth, brevity, simplicity, and uniformity. In the second part we have given about all the inflections of our language; because these things are not only needed, but they require simply memory, and can be learned in early life just as well as afterwards. The third part comprises nearly the whole circuit of syntax, with pithy exercises to teach the pupil how to avoid all the common errors. The remaining matter is subordinate, and gives roundness and finish to the whole subject. A more minute analysis of the contents is given on the next page.
SYNOPSIS.

PART I. - DEFINITIONS.
1. The few great ideas which lie at the basis of grammar, and from which the science unfolds itself.
2. Definitions of the parts of speech.
3. Definitions of the properties of the parts of speech.
4. Definitions of the classes into which the parts of speech are divided.
(Given after the properties, because somewhat dependent on them.)
5. A circuit of exercises, to give the pupil a clear and practical knowledge of the preceding principles, and to show him the general construction of sentences.

PART II. - INFLECTIONS.
1. How gender is expressed.
2. How number is expressed.
3. How case is expressed.
4. Declension of nouns and pronouns.
5. List of irregular verbs.
6. Conjugation of verbs.
7. How the degrees of comparison are expressed.
8. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, classified, and illustrated by examples. (Some of these words are substitutes for inflections.)

PART III. - CONSTRUCTIONS.
1. The rules of syntax, with examples to show correct construction and incorrect construction in contrast. 2. Parsing. 3. Analysis. 4. The remaining kinds of error.

APPENDIX.
1. Letters, syllables, and words.
2. Rules for spelling.
3. Derivation.
5. Italics.
6. Punctuation.

REMARKS.
1 denotes separation. = is placed between equivalent expressions.
A number placed over a word shows which Rule of Syntax should be applied to it.
What is to be committed to memory by the pupil, is printed in large type, or is distinguished by being numbered with heavy black figures.
The few technical or difficult words which we have been obliged to use, the teacher should explain.

FIRST LESSONS' IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.
DEFINITIONS.

THOUGHT AND ITS EXPRESSION.
1. We think, or have thoughts.
2. We express our thoughts by means of words.
3. Words are either spoken or written.
4. The expressing of our thoughts by means of words, is called language, or speech.
5. Language consists of many thousands of words; but they can all be divided into nine classes, called Parts of Speech.
6. The Parts of Speech are Nouns, Pronouns, Articles, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.
7. To these nine classes of words belong eight chief properties; Gender, Person, Number, Case, Voice, Mood, Tense, and Comparison.

1
These classes of words, and their properties, are based mainly on the following ten things or ideas: Objects, Actions, Qualities, Sex, Number, Relation, Manner, Time, Place, and Degree.

The teacher can not spend an hour better with his class than in explaining the preceding paragraph, and thence the remainder of the section.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

NOUNS.

When we look around us, we naturally first notice objects. The words John, Mary, tree, house, street, man, horse, apple, flower, rose, chair, desk, book, are, all of them, words that denote objects, and such words are called nouns.

8. A Noun is a name.

Ex. — "Now bright tho sun upon St. Lawrence smiles, Her million lilies, and her thousand isles."

What animals are on farms? What things can boys eat? What things do children play with? What objects did you see this morning, on your way to school? Who are your classmates? What would you call the words you have mentioned?

You can generally tell whether a word is a noun or not, by considering whether it denotes something that you can see, hear, taste, smell, or feel, or think of as being a person or thing.

Tell me which are the nouns in the following sentences:

Lions and ostriches are found in Africa.
John and Joseph drove the horses to the pasture.
Pinks and roses are blooming in the garden.
Apples, peaches, and melons, are brought to market.

* Considered here chiefly in regard to Person and Case.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

PRONOUNS.

When objects are near to us, or are already known by having been mentioned, we do not always use their names, but certain little words in stead of the names. If I say, "William promised Mary that William would lend Mary William's grammar, that Mary might study the grammar," you can easily see that the sentence is clumsy and disagreeable, because I have so often repeated the words William, Mary, and grammar. But if I say, "William promised Mary that he would lend her his grammar, that she might study it," you notice that the sentence is much more simple and agreeable, because I have used the little words he, she, and it, for the nouns William, Mary, and grammar, in stead of repeating these nouns. Pronoun means for a noun; and pronouns are so called because they are used for nouns, or in stead of nouns.

9. A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

Ex. — "My mother! when I learned that thou wast dead,
Say, wast thou conscious of the tears I shed?"

The most common pronouns are I, me, myself, mine, me, we, our, ourselves, ours, us, you, your, yourself, yours; ye, thou, thy, thyself, thine, thee, he, him, himself, she, her, herself, his, it, itself, its, they, their, theirs, them, themselves, who, whose, whom, which, what, and that. The easiest way in which you can generally distinguish a pronoun from a noun, is to consider whether the word denotes an object, without being itself the name of the object. "I saw you." Here I denotes me, without being my name; and you denotes the person spoken to, without being his name.

Put suitable pronouns for the words in italic letters:—

John has learned John's lesson. Mary has torn Mary's...
book. The apple lay under the apple’s tree. The apples lay under the apples’ tree. Thomas has come home, and Thomas is well. Lucy is pretty, and Lucy knows it. The gun was brought, but the gun was out of order. Laura was disobedient, and therefore Laura’s teacher punished Laura. Julia will buy you a basket, if Julia can buy the basket cheap.

**ARTICLES.**

Most objects exist in classes; and when we use merely the ordinary name of something, we generally mean the class or object at large or indefinitely; as, tree, apples, water. To show that we mean only one object of a kind, and no particular one, or that we mean some particular object or objects, we generally place the word a or an, or the, before the name; as, a tree, the tree, the trees. If I say, “Give me a book, an apple,” you understand that any book or apple will answer my purpose; but if I say, “Give me the book, the books,” you understand that I want some particular book or books. These words, a or an, and the, which are very often used before nouns, and which generally show how we select the objects of which we are speaking, are called articles.

10. An Article is the word the, a, or an, placed before a noun to limit its meaning.

Ex. — “A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year.”

*Place a before each of the following nouns; then the:*


*Place an before each of the following nouns; then the:*

- Ax, eagle, Indian, ox, owl, arbor, hour, undertaker.

**VERBS.**

We cannot think of an object, without thinking something of it. Therefore every thought or saying implies at least two things: something of which we think or speak, and something that we think or say of it; the former is called the subject, and the latter the predicate. “Rivers flow,” here rivers is the subject, and flow is the predicate. “Deep rivers flow smoothly;” here deep rivers is the subject, and flow smoothly is the predicate.

11. A Subject is a word or expression denoting that of which something is said.

12. A Predicate is a word or phrase denoting what is said of a subject.

13. A Proposition is a subject combined with its predicate.

Ex. — “Rome was an ocean of Rome.”

When we speak of any object, we generally tell either what it is, what it does, or what is done to it.

- 1. Flowers are beautiful. The ant is an insect.
   - 3. Fields are ploughed. The corn was ground.

The words are, is, sing, play, build, etc., by means of which we say things of the subjects, are called verbs.

14. A Verb is a word used to express the act or state of a subject.

Ex. — “His brow was sad; his eye beneath
Flashed like a falcon from its sheath.”

“The river washes away the soil;” here washes is a verb, because it tells what the river does. “The river is deep” here is is a verb, because it tells something of the river; it serves to show in what state it is. Sometimes we
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

say that the verb affirms or predicates something of its subject. This is nearly the same as to tell you that it says something of that about which we are talking. We are sometimes obliged to use hard words in books, for the sake of greater accuracy or exactness. By dressing soldiers in a way different from that in which citizens are dressed, we can easily distinguish them from citizens. So every science has generally, in its words, a dress of its own.

A proposition, and why; the subject, and why; the predicate, and why; the rock, and why; the red, and why; the red, and why.

Frogs leap. Ducks swim. The wind whistles. The thunder rolls. The lightning flashes. Clouds were moving. He recited his lesson. The door crested. The snake crept into the grass. Out flew the partridge.

Put a suitable subject to each of the following predicates:

1. Is happy, knows nothing; am sick; art released; grew rapidly; was neglected; were neglected; went away; spoke sensibly; replied; stepped forth; retreated; should obey their parents; was a great man.

2. Say something of each of the following objects, by telling what they are:
   - Street, grass, hay, ice, stars, mountains, room, table.
   - Say something of each of the following objects, by telling what they do:
   - Horse, farmers, trees, servant, bogs, tailor, scholar.
   - Say something of each of the following objects, by telling what is done to it:
   - Lesson, bonnet, bridge, yard, window, John, newspaper.

ADJECTIVES.

We notice every day that objects are not all alike, even when of the same general kind. Some roses, for instance, are red; some are white; and some are yellow. An apple may be large or small; red, green, or yellow; hard or mealy; sweet or juicy. Sometimes we notice several things of interest in the same object. A river, for instance, may be deep, broad, clear, and swift. The value of objects, or the regard we have for them, depends not a little on their qualities; and hence it is necessary for us to have words that will show the qualities of objects, or describe objects. These words are called adjectives. Sometimes we use words that do not express the qualities of objects, but that still serve to show what objects are meant. Such words are this, that, each, every, either, first, second, one, two, three, etc. These words are also called adjectives. The word adjective means throwing to, adding to, or joining to; an adjective generally modifies the idea of an object, by joining to it that of some quality.

15. An Adjective is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

Ex. — "Sweet was the sound, when off, at evening's close,
   Up yonder hill the village murmurs rose."

"A good pupil will be industrious." Good, and industrious are adjectives, because they describe the pupil; that is, they describe the object meant by the word pupil.

"This tree bore five bushels of apples." This is an adjective, because it makes the indefinite word tree mean a particular one; and five is an adjective, because it makes the indefinite word bushels mean a particular number.

Tell which are the adjectives, and why:

Warm weather; dark clouds; shady lawns; tall trees.

Put suitable adjectives to each of the following nouns, and tell what each of the objects is, by using the same adjective:

Man, boy, workman, star, rose, river, book, day, crow.

The river is strong.
ADVERBS.

Not only are objects different, but their actions are also different, even when of the same general kind. People do not all walk alike, nor talk alike, nor write alike. Hence we often use such words as well, badly, fast, slowly, gracefully, awkwardly, hastily, etc., to describe actions, or to distinguish them from one another. These words are called adverbs, because they are generally added to verbs. Sometimes we distinguish actions by telling simply where or when they are done; as, "It rained everywhere;" "It rained seldom."

We not only use words to describe objects and their actions, but we often use words to show in what degrees, objects or actions have their qualities; as, very good; tolerably fast; most rapidly; most badly. And these words, which express degree, and are joined to adjectives and adverbs, are also called adverbs.

16. An Adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Ex. — "How tunefully through woods and meadows flow
The brooks, now free from winter's ice and snow!"

"John studies diligently;" here diligently is an adverb, because it shows the mode of doing that act which is meant by the word studies.

"This apple is very good;" here very is an adverb, because it shows in what degree the apple is good. "The cars run uncommonly fast;" here uncommonly is an adverb, because it shows in what degree the cars run fast.

The adverb, and why:

To speak fluently. To return soon. To flow smoothly.
The young forget quickly, but they feel keenly.

PREPOSITIONS.

By looking around us, we can easily see that the great mass of objects composing this world, is held together in a thousand different ways. "Houses are on the ground; cellars are under houses; and trees grow around houses." "Boats run up and down rivers, and rivers flow between hills."

To describe objects and all their actions and states, we have not a sufficient number of words made especially for this purpose, or we should have to use these words disagreeably often. Hence we often describe objects, actions, or their qualities, by showing simply how they are related to other objects; or we make our thoughts pictures of parts of the world, by showing in these pictures how the corresponding things are linked together. Such linking words, that express relation, are the words on, under, around, up, down, and between, as used above, and such words are called prepositions, because they are generally placed before the nouns and pronouns with which they make descriptive phrases. Preposition comes from pre, before, and position, placing; the word therefore means placing before.

17. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation between a following noun or pronoun and some other word.

Ex. — "And the sheen or their spears was like stars on the sea,
When the blue waves roll nightly on deep Galilee."

18. An Adjectival, or Prepositional Phrase, is a preposition with the word or words required after it to complete the sense.

Ex. — "The snows of Siberia." "Red apples hung on the tree."

An adjunct has generally the meaning of an adjective or an adverb.
The roses by my window are in full bloom. By is a preposition, because it shows the relation between roses and window, or the phrase by my window shows what roses are meant; and in is a preposition, because it shows the relation between are and bloom, or the phrase in bloom shows in what condition the roses are or exist.

The conjunction, and between what it shows the relation:

- A path through the woods. A pound of meat. The bridge over the river. A rule against whispering. To go to school. To return from school. To ride in a car. To set on the table. To creep under a hedge. Desirous of fame. Drawn by horses. Kind to playmates.

**CONJUNCTIONS.**

We frequently use certain little words simply to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, and to show the dependence of the parts thus connected. When you hear such words as and, but, because, you at once know that something more is to come, and that it bears a certain relation to what has been said. If I say, "John writes and cylinders;" "John split his ink on the desk and on the floor;" "John writes every day, and I generally look at his writing;" you can see that the word and adds something more to what has been said, or joins two words, two phrases, or two propositions together; and since conjunction means joining together, this word, and others like it, have been called conjunctions.

19. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

- "I do not, Lord, wish to appear more boisterous, rich, or gay;"
- "But make me wiser every year, and better every day;"
- "He rides, if he is sick." "He rides, though he is sick." "He rides, because he is sick." Here if, though, and because are conjunctions, because each connects two clauses.

**PARTS OF SPEECH.**

The conjunction, and what it connects:

- Roses and pinks. Good but dear. In peace and in war. The buds of spring or the fruits of autumn. He studies in the morning, and rides in the evening.

**INTERJECTIONS.**

When we see, hear, or in any other way notice things, our feelings often suddenly excited, and we utter, almost unconsciously, certain little words that show these emotions. Words of this kind are such as O, oh, ah, pish, tut, uh, pshaw, etc., which you have doubtless often heard. They generally express surprise, wonder, joy, grief, anger, or attempt. Interjection means throwing between; and since these words are loosely thrown between other words in speaking, they have been called interjections.

20. An Interjection is a word that expresses an emotion, and is not connected in construction with any other word.

- "Oh thou beyond what verse or speech can tell."
- "My guide, my friend, my best-beloved, farewell!"
- "Day broke; but then, oh! what a scene was that battlefield!"
- Oh is an interjection; because it expresses the sudden emotion of the speaker, and the remaining words of the sentence can make sense without it.

**PROPERTY OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.**

**GENDER.**

When I say John, I mean a male; when I say Mary, I mean a female; when I say child, I can mean either a male or a female; and when I say knife, I mean neither a male nor a female. Hence some nouns are the names of males,
12

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

some are the names of females; some are the names of either males or females; and some are the names of neither males nor females. From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of nouns and pronouns which is called gender.

21. Gender is that property of nouns and pronouns which distinguishes objects in regard to sex.

22. There are four genders; the masculine, the feminine, the common, and the neuter.

23. Masculine. A noun or pronoun is of the masculine gender, when it denotes a male. Man.

24. Feminine. A noun or pronoun is of the feminine gender, when it denotes a female. Woman.

25. Common. A noun or pronoun is of the common gender, when it denotes either a male or a female. Person.

26. Neuter. A noun or pronoun is of the neuter gender, when it denotes neither a male nor a female. House.

The nouns man, boy, and king, are of the masculine gender, because they denote males; the nouns woman, girl, and cow, are of the feminine gender, because they denote females; the nouns parent, cousin, and bird, are of the common gender, because they can be applied to either males or females; and the nouns house, tree, and chair, are of the neuter gender, because they are the names of neither males nor females.

27. An inanimate object is sometimes regarded as a person, and it then assumes a suitable sex. Such an object is said to be personified.

"And Hope enchanting smiled, and waved her golden hair." Here Hope is said to be feminine by personification.

28. Person is that property of words which shows whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

29. There are three persons; the first, the second, and the third.

30. First. A noun or pronoun is of the first person, when it denotes the speaker. "I saw you."

31. Second. A noun or pronoun is of the second person, when it denotes the person spoken to. "You saw me."

32. Third. A noun or pronoun is of the third person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of. "He saw it."

"I Paul have written it;" here I and Paul are of the first person, because they denote the person speaking. In the sentence, "Thomas, your horse has run away," Thomas, and your are of the second person, because they denote the person spoken to; while the word horse is of the third person, because it denotes the object spoken of.

When an inanimate object is addressed, it is regarded
as a person; as, "But thou, O Hope, with eyes so fair."

The nouns and pronouns, and why; the person, and why:

I, you, he, she, we, my, myself, yourself, herself, them.

Thus art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world we see.

Change into the other persons:

John writes. The girls study. Henry, you may play.

NUMBER.

There are not only many kinds of objects in the world, but generally many objects of each kind. In speaking, we often wish to show that we mean but one object of a kind, or else more than one; and we use words accordingly. From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property which is called number.

33. Number is that property of words which shows whether one object is meant, or more than one.

34. There are two numbers; the singular and the plural.

35. Singular. A noun or pronoun is of the singular number, when it denotes but one object. Books.

36. Plural. A noun or pronoun is of the plural number, when it denotes more objects than one. Books.

The nouns Albert, tree, and girl, are of the singular number, because each denotes but one object; the nouns boys, trees, and girls, are of the plural number, because each denotes more objects than one.

The number, and why:

Rose, roses, partridge, partridges, goose, geese, tooth, teeth, boy, boys, I, we, me, us, he, they, she, them.

PROPERTY OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

CASE.

When we speak of an object, we either say that it is something, that it does something, or that something is done to it; as, "The dove is white;" "The dove coos;" "The dove was caught." This relation of an object to what is said of it, is called case. When something is done, the act often affects some object; as, "The dove eats corn." This relation of the act to what is acted upon, is also called case. Almost every object in the world belongs to some other object, or is a part of some other; as, "Mary's dove;" "The dove's feathers."

All these relations of objects produce, in the expression of our thoughts, those relations between words which are called cases.

37. Case is that property of nouns and pronouns which shows how they are used in the construction of sentences.

38. There are three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

39. Nominative. A noun or pronoun is in the nominative case, when it is the subject of a predicate-verb. "I ran." Who ran? "James fell." Who fell?

40. Possessive. A noun or pronoun is in the possessive case, when it denotes possession. "My hat."

41. Objective. A noun or pronoun is in the objective case, when it is the object of a transitive verb or a preposition. "You sent me to him."

A transitive verb is a verb that implies an act done by one person or thing to another; as, strike. The object of a transitive verb or a preposition is the noun or pronoun which completes its relation; as, "He struck me with his hand." Struck whom with what?

A predicate-verb is a verb that makes a predicate, or the chief part of a predicate.
“John shot some squirrels in my father’s field.” Here the word John is said to be in the nominative case, because it denotes the doer of something, or the person of whom something is said or predicated; the words squirrels and field are in the objective case, because squirrels shows what he shot, and field shows in what; and the word father’s is in the possessive case, because it denotes the owner.

42. Same Case. A noun or pronoun is generally in the same case as another, when it denotes the same person or thing.

Ex. — “I myself went.” “Smith the banker is our neighbor.”

The nouns and pronouns, and why: the case, and why: —

Jesus wept. Farmers plough. Iron rusts. He works. John found Mary’s book. Lucy’s lamb nips the grass. Albert wrote his name on his book. We love them.

I thank you. A flock of blackbirds is on the tree.

Johnson the lawyer is a brother of Johnson the doctor.

A more detailed consideration of the subject of case is deferred to the Rules of Syntax.

**VOICE.**

When an act is done by one person or thing to another, we can state the fact in two ways — either by telling what the doer does, or by telling what is done to the person or thing acted upon; as, “Merchants sold goods;” “Goods are sold by merchants.” From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of verbs which is called voice.

43. Voice is that property of transitive verbs which shows whether the subject does, or receives, the act.

44. There are two voices; the active and the passive.

45. Active. A verb is in the active voice, when it represents its subject as acting. “I struck.”

46. Passive. A verb is in the passive voice, when it represents its subject as acted upon. “I was struck.”

If I say, “The servant scoured the floor,” scoured is said to be in the active voice, because it represents the subject, servant, as acting upon the floor; but if I say, “The floor was scoured by the servant,” was scoured is said to be in the passive voice, because it represents the subject, floor, as acted upon.

The teacher should explain transitive.

The verbs, and why: the voice, and why: —

I called. I was called. He caught. He was caught.

I see. I am seen. He should send. He should be sent.

Snow protects plants. Plants are protected by snow.

The sun is melting the snow. The snow is melted by the sun. A servant brought the horse. The horse was brought by a servant.

**MOOD.**

Many actions really take place; but many are only in the mind, or people bear certain relations to them. If I say, “I write,” I express something as a matter of fact; “I may or can write,” I express not what is matter of fact, yet may become such, or I simply declare my relation to the act; “If I were writing,” I express a mere supposition; “Write,” I request it to be done; “To write,” “Writing,” I simply speak of the act. These different modes of expressing the verb, grammarians call moods; or, from this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of verbs which is called mood.

47. Mood is the manner in which the act or state is expressed with reference to its subject.

An act or state may be referred to its subject as something real; or as something merely supposed; or as something modified by a relation; or as something commanded; or as something subordinate, or merely assumed and not predicated.
48. There are four moods; the indicative, the subjunctive, the potential, and the imperative.

49. Indicative. A verb in the indicative mood expresses an actual occurrence or fact.
   Ex. — "I went." "It snows." "God created the world."

50. This mood can be used interrogatively.
   Ex. — "Is there no hope?" the sick man said.

51. Subjunctive. A verb in the subjunctive mood may express,—
   1. Something as future and uncertain.
   Ex. — "If he be at home, I shall speak to him."
   2. A mere wish or supposition.
   Ex. — "If he were at home, I would speak to him." But he is not.
   "Had he been at home, I would have spoken to him."
   3. A mere conclusion, conception, or consequence.
   Ex. — "If it were done when it is done, then 'twere well
   it were done quickly." — Shakespeare.

52. Potential. A verb in the potential mood may express,—
   1. Power. "I can go." "I could go."
   2. Possibility. "It may rain." "It might rain."
   3. Liberty or permission. "You may go."
   4. Inclination. "I would go."
   5. Duty. "I should go."

53. This mood can be used interrogatively.
   Ex. — "Can Flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death?"

The words which express the potential mood are may, can, must, might, could, would, and should.

54. Imperative. A verb in the imperative mood may express,—
   2. Entreaty. "Forgive our trespasses."
   3. Exhortation. "Learn what is useful."
   4. Permission. "Go in peace."
   
   We command inferiors, entreat superiors, exhort equals, and permit in compliance with the wishes of others.

There are two other forms of the verb — the Infinitive and the Participle, which do not predicate the act or state of a subject. Most grammarians call the infinitive the infinitive mood; some call the participle the participial mood. Both forms may be considered a mood; but it seems to us that they are sufficiently distinguished by being called the Infinitive and the Participle.

"I study;" here study is in the indicative mood, because it expresses something as really taking place. "If I study;" "If I were studying;" here study and were studying are in the subjunctive mood, because the former expresses only what may take place hereafter, and the latter a mere supposition. "I can study;" here can study is in the potential mood, because it expresses only my ability in regard to studying. "Study;" here study is in the imperative mood, because it is given as a command to the person spoken to. "To study," "Studying;" here the actions are spoken of abstractly, that is, without referring them to any particular person or thing.

For exercises under Mood and Tense, see pp. 43, 44. The circuit of sentences which follows this entire body of definitions, and which shows the general construction of the English language, should be much used by the teacher, in order to give the pupils a living knowledge of the subject.
TENSE.

We can not separate our actions from time. Besides, the time of an act, or whether the act is completed or not, is often a matter of great importance to us. Time may naturally be divided into three great divisions, — present, past, and future; and in each of these periods we may speak of an act as simply taking place, or as completed. Thus: "I write," "I have written;" "I wrote," "I shall write," "I shall have written." These different ways of using verbs to distinguish time, are called tenses.

55. Tense is that property of verbs which shows the distinctions of time.

56. There are six tenses: the present, the present-perfect; the past, the past-perfect; the future, and the future-perfect.

57. Present. A verb in the present tense denotes a present act or state. "I see."

58. Present-perfect. A verb in the present-perfect tense represents something as completed in present time. "I have seen."

59. Past. A verb in the past tense denotes simply a past act or state. "I saw."

60. Past-perfect. A verb in the past-perfect tense represents something as completed in past time. "I had seen."

61. Future. A verb in the future tense denotes simply a future act or state. "I shall see."

62. Future-perfect. A verb in the future-perfect tense represents something as completed in future time. "I shall have seen."

The following sentences illustrate the six tenses: "The tree blossoms," "The tree has blossomed;" "The tree will blossom," "The tree will have blossomed." The following are the chief irregularities in the use of the tenses.

63. The tenses of the subjunctive mood move forward in time.

INDICATIVE: "I am here now." "I was there then."

SUBJUNCTIVE: "If I be here to-morrow." "If I were there now." *

64. The tenses of the potential mood, when used subjunctively, move forward in time.

Ex. — "I should think you might risk it;" i.e., now or hereafter.

65. Sometimes when, till, as soon as, or a similar term, carries the present or the present-perfect tense into future time,

Ex. — "When he comes, I will send him to you."

"When he has finished the work, I will pay him."

The teacher should explain the foregoing paragraphs more fully.

FORMS OF THE TENSES.

66. The Forms of a Tense are the different ways in which it can be expressed.

Ex. — "He strikes, does strike, is striking, is struck, striketh."

In all these different ways the verb strike can be expressed in the present tense of the indicative mood.

67. There are five forms; the common, the emphatic, the passive, the progressive, and the ancient, or the solemn style.

68. The Common Form is the verb expressed in the most simple and ordinary manner.

Ex. — "Time files." "He went home."
69. The Emphatic Form denotes emphasis, expressed by do or did as a part of the verb.
   Ex. — “I did say so.” “Really, it does move.”

70. The Passive Form is that which is generally used to express the passive voice; and it is made by combining the verb be, or some variation of it, with the perfect participle.
   Ex. — To be, to be seen, has been, has been broken.

Perfect participles are such words as planted, taught, driven.

71. The Progressive Form is that which expresses continuance of the act or state; and it is made by combining the verb be, or some variation of it, with the present participle.

Active: To do, to be doing. “They are dancing.”
Passive: “The book is being read.”

Present participles are such words as planting, teaching, driving.

72. The Ancient Form is an old common form that is still used in the solemn style.
   It has the ending t, st, or est, for the second person singular; th or eth, in stead of s or es, for the third person singular; and generally uses thou or ye in stead of you.

   “For every one that asketh, receiveth.” — Ib.
   “Ye are the salt of the earth.” — Ib.

Most verbs or predicates can be used, besides, in the following different ways:

1. Affirmatively. “He is at home.”
2. Negatively. “He is not at home.”
3. Interrogatively. “Is he at home?”
4. Interrogatively and negatively. “Is he not at home?”

The teacher should explain the foregoing section more fully.

PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS.

73. The Person and Number of a verb are its form to suit the person and number of its subject.

Ex. — “I am.” “Thou art.” “He is.” “They are.”
   “I write.” “Thou writest.” “He writeth.” “They write.”

It is customary to make am, art, is, and are, thus different because the subjects are different in person and number; and each verb thus tends to show what its subject must be.

A verb is of the first person, when it predicates an act or state of the speaker.
A verb is of the second person, when it predicates an act or state of the person spoken to.
A verb is of the third person, when it predicates an act or state of the person or thing spoken of.

A verb is of the singular number, when it predicates an act or state of but one person or thing.

A verb is of the plural number, when it predicates an act or state of more than one person or thing.

Verbs thus have, like nouns and pronouns, three persons and two numbers.

The teacher should explain the foregoing section more fully.

COMPARISON.

Objects not only have qualities, but they often differ in their qualities, especially in degree; and not a little of our regard for objects depends on whether they have more or less of the qualities which we like or dislike. I may prefer, for instance, one apple to another because it is larger or better than the other. Actions also differ, and not infrequently in degree. “John may study diligently, but Mary may study more diligently.”

When we thus compare qualities, actions, and their cir-
cumstances, we usually make but three chief distinctions. We may speak of the quality itself; of a higher or a lower degree of it; or of the highest or the lowest degree; as, wise, wiser, wisest; wise, less wise, least wise. From this distinction in the use of qualifying words, we get that property of adjectives and adverbs which is called comparison.

74. Comparison is that property of adjectives and adverbs which expresses quality in different degrees.

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

76. Positive. An adjective or an adverb is in the positive degree, when it expresses simply the quality; as, wise, wisely.

77. Comparative. An adjective or an adverb is in the comparative degree, when it expresses the quality in a higher or a lower degree, or when it implies a comparison between two; as, wiser, less wise.

78. Superlative. An adjective or an adverb is in the superlative degree, when it expresses the quality in the highest or the lowest degree, or when it implies that more than two persons or things are compared; as, wisest, least wise.

"Jane is tall;" "Alice is taller;" "Louisa is the tallest;"
"Jane writes carefully;" "Alice writes less carefully;"
"Louisa writes least carefully;"

PHRASE, CLAUSE, AND SENTENCE:

79. A Phrase is two or more words rightly put together, without making a proposition. "To be alone." "On a shady knoll."

CLASSES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH:

80. A Clause is a proposition that makes but a part of a sentence. "If you will go."

81. A Sentence is a thought expressed by a proposition, or a union of propositions, followed by a full pause.

Ex. — "The morning was pure and sunny, the fields were white with daisies, and the hawthorn was covered with its fragrant blossoms." — Irving.

The whole of the foregoing expression is a sentence; the parts separated by the comma are clauses; and the expression, with its fragrant blossoms, for instance, is a clause.

The phrases, clauses, and sentences, and why:

Far away. The dark storm approaches. John's slate. Many small pieces. John's slate is broken into many small pieces. The rising sun. The sun is rising. A large red apple. Give me a large red apple. To write a letter. I wish to write a letter. The rain is pouring down heavily, and the river is rapidly rising.

CLASSES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH:

82. Nouns are divided into two chief classes; proper and common.

83. A Proper Noun is a name that distinguishes a particular one from the rest of a class.

Ex. — James, Mary, Boston, Maryland, September.

James is a proper noun, because it is a name that distinguishes a particular boy from others.

84. A Common Noun is a name that is common to all of the same kind or class.

Ex. — Boy, girl, city, state, month, river.

Boy is a common noun, because it is a name that is common, or can be applied to every one of a certain class of persons.
Under common nouns are included collective nouns and participial nouns.

88. A Collective Noun is a common noun that denotes, in the singular form, more than one object of the same kind.

Ex. — Family, army, swarm, multitude, congregation, class.

The word family generally means a group of related persons.

86. A Participial Noun is a participle used as a noun.

Ex. — "By the sending of those books, you will oblige me." Sending tells what thing it is that would oblige me, and the word has therefore the meaning of a noun.

A noun, and why: proper, common, collective, or participial, and why: —

Girl, Susan, book, Bible, country, Europe, day, Monday, bird, blackbird, river, Hudson, island, Cuba, tribe, chain, flock, people, playing, mountains, Andes, electioneering.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

87. Pronouns are divided into four classes: personal, relative, interrogative, and adjective.

88. A Personal Pronoun is one of those pronouns which distinguish the grammatical persons.

Ex. — "I saw you and him." I denotes the speaker; you, the person spoken to; and him, the person spoken of.

89. A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that stands in close relation to an antecedent, and joins to it a descriptive clause.

Ex. — "Too low they build, who build beneath the stars."

"The breeze which runs along the hills in music."

Who relates to they; and its clause describes the persons denoted by they.

Which means the breeze; and its clause describes the breeze.

90. The Antecedent of a pronoun is the word, phrase, or clause, which it represents.

Ex. — "James lost his book." James is the antecedent of his "He who is well, undervalues health." He is the antecedent of who. "I wished to call him back, but it was impossible." The phrase to call him back is the antecedent of it. "She is pretty, and she knows it." The clause, she is pretty, is the antecedent of it.

91. An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used to ask a question.

Ex. — "Who is he?" "Which is he?" "What is he?"

92. An Adjective Pronoun is a common specifying adjective used as a pronoun.

Ex. — "Some were for this, and some for that."

"The new ones [houses] are larger."

That is, some persons were for this thing, and some persons were for that thing. Common specifying adjectives are such as this, that, such, etc.

1. Distributive: Each, either, neither.
2. Demonstrative: This, these, that, those, former, latter.
3. Indefinite: One, other, any, some, such, all, none.
4. Reciprocal: Each other, one another.

93. A Compound Personal Pronoun is a word consisting, in the singular number, of my, thy, your, him, her, or it, compounded with self; in the plural, of our, your, or them, compounded with selves.

Ex. — Myself, yourself, yourselves; him, herself, ourself, yourselves; your, yourselves; them, themselves.

94. A Compound Relative Pronoun is who, which, or what, with ever or soever annexed to it.

Ex. — Who, whosoever, whosoever; which, whichever, whichever, whatsoever.
KINDS OF ARTICLES.

95. There are two ARTICLES; The, the definite, and A or An, the indefinite.

96. The Definite Article shows that some particular object or class is meant.

Ex. — The horse, the horses; the Connecticut; the green meadows.

97. The Indefinite Article shows that no particular one of a class is meant.

Ex. — A bird, a mouse, an apple; an idle boy.

An article, and why; whether definite or indefinite, and why: —

The roses in the garden. The rose is a beautiful flower.

A fish from the river. A daughter of a duke.

The foregoing classes of adjectives include, as a part of their number, participial adjectives, numeral adjectives, and pronominal adjectives.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

98. ADJECTIVES are divided into two chief classes; descriptive and definite.

99. A Descriptive Adjective describes or qualifies.

Ex. — A rapid river; a beautiful garden; a warm day.

Rapid shows what kind of river is meant.

100. A Definitive Adjective merely specifies or limits.

Ex. — This peach; some peaches; all peaches; four peaches. This shows merely what peach is meant, without expressing any quality of the peach.

Four shows how many the indefinite plural, peaches, is intended to mean; or it limits the meaning of the noun peaches.

The foregoing classes of adjectives include, as a part of their number, participial adjectives, numeral adjectives, and pronominal adjectives.

101. A Participial Adjective is a participle used as a descriptive adjective.

Ex. — A rippling and murmuring rivulet. "Broken windows."

102. A Numeral Adjective is a definitive adjective that expresses number.

Ex. — Five men; thirty horses; the second man.

1. A cardinal numeral tells how many; as, one, two.

2. An ordinal numeral tells which one; as, first, second.

3. A multiplicative numeral tells how many fold; as, double.

4. An indefinite numeral expresses number indefinitely; as, few.

103. A Pronominal Adjective is one of those adjectives which resemble pronouns, and are sometimes used as pronouns.

These adjectives are divided into three classes: —

1. Distributive, which relate to objects taken separately.

Ex. — Each, every, either, neither, many a.

2. Demonstrative, which point out objects definitely.

This, these, that, those, yon, yonder, same, former, latter.

3. Indefinite, which relate to objects indefinitely.

Any, other, another, one, both, all, some, each, several, etc.

An adjective, and why; of what kind, and why: —

Yonder tree bore five bushels of these large red apples.

This river is broad, deep, clear, and swift.

The rising sun, the setting sun, and the star-powdered galaxy.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

104. VERBS are divided, according to their form, into regular and irregular.

105. A Regular Verb is a verb that takes the end-
ing ed, to form its past tense and its perfect participle.

Ex. — Present, plant; past, planted; perfect participle, planted.
Play, play ed, play ed; try, tri ed, tri ed; rob, rob bed, rob bed.

While studying this section, review the Rules for Spelling, pp. 255 and 166.

106. An Irregular Verb is a verb that does not take the ending ed, to form its past tense and its perfect participle.

Ex. — Sweep, swept, sweep; see, saw, seen; cut, cut, cut.

107. The Principal Parts of a verb are the present tense, the past tense, the present participle, and the perfect participle.

These are called the Principal Parts, because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs all the other parts of the verb can be formed.

108. The Present Tense is the simplest form of the verb; as, go.

109. The Past Tense is the simplest form that expresses a past fact; as, went.

110. The Present Participle is that form which ends always with ing; as, going. It is therefore so well known that it hardly needs mentioning.

111. The Perfect Participle is that form which makes sense with the word having before it; as, gone, (having gone).

The present tense and the past tense which we have just mentioned, are the present indicative or affirmative and the past indicative. For the sake of brevity, they are generally called simply the present and the past; and the past is sometimes called the will verb.

FINITE AND NOT FINITE.

112. Verbs are divided, according to their relation to subjects, into finite and not finite.

113. A Finite Verb is a verb that predicates the act or state of its subject.

Ex. — "The plant grows." "John has arrived." "I am alone." "The plant growing." "John having come." "For me to be alone.

Observe the difference between these phrases and the preceding sentences, § 113.

115. Verbs that are not finite, may be divided into two classes; Infinitives and Participles.

116. An Infinitive is a form of the verb that generally begins with to, and that expresses the act or state without predicating it.

Ex. — To lead, to have led, to be led, to have been led.

Observe that these forms simply name the act, without asserting it of a subject.

117. A Participle is a form of the verb that expresses the act or state without predicating it, and generally resembles an adjective.

Ex. — "A long, bending with fruit, fell to the ground." "This is the fruit, bending with fruit, to be like an adjective, descriptive of the tree.

118. There are two infinitives; the present and the perfect.

119. There are two participles; the present and the perfect.

120. The Present Infinitive represents the act or state as present or future at the time referred to.

Ex. — "She seems to study." "Man never is, but always was, blest."
121. The Present Participle represents the act or state as present and continuing at the time referred to.

Ex. — "We saw the moon rising."
   "Who goes borrowing, goes sorrowing."

122. The Perfect Infinitive or Participle represents the act or state as past or ended at the time referred to.

Ex. — "The river appears to have risen."
   "A fox, caught in a trap."

123. The present infinitive begins with to; the perfect, with to have; as, to write, to have written.

124. To, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted.

1. When the infinitive is combined with an auxiliary verb.

Ex. — "I can [to] study;" i. e., I am able to study.

Auxiliary verbs are such as may, might, can, must, shall, will, etc.

2. After the active verbs bid, make, need, hear, let, see, feel, and dare.

Ex. — "I will make it [to] rise." "Let us [to] go."

125. The simple present participle ends with ing the perfect, with ed, or it is an irregular form.

Ex. — Plant, planting, planted; write, writing, written.

126. The infinitives and participles of transitive verbs have two sets of forms; the one set is active, and the other passive.

Active: To write, to have written; writing, (written) having written.

Passive: To be written, to have been written; being written, written, having been written.

127. A Compound Participle is one that consists of being, having, or having been, combined with some other participle.

Being, having, and having been, thus become auxiliary participles to other participles.

128. Being is used chiefly to express the present passive participle of transitive verbs.

"The soldier, being wounded, was carried to the hospital."

129. Having is used chiefly to express the perfect active participle of transitive verbs, or to express the participle in time that corresponds to some perfect tense.

Ex. — "Loved, having loved, "Having said this, he withdrew" — When he had said this, he withdrew. "Having learned the lesson, you may play" — Since or when you have learned the lesson, you may play.

130. Having been is used chiefly to express the perfect passive participle corresponding to the compound present passive participle.

"The soldier, having been wounded, was known by the scar."

131. Compound participles are either present or perfect.

Those which begin with being, are present; those which begin with having, are perfect.

132. A participle or an infinitive sometimes becomes so far a noun that it assumes case.

Ex. — "To live without being annoyed is pleasant."
   "Life without annoyance is pleasant."
   "What is pleasant? or without what."

Simple participles sometimes become adjectives.

GRAMMATICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES. 35

138. A Principal Verb is a verb that expresses by itself the act or state, or the chief part of it.

"She sings." "She can sing." "She may have sung."

Sing is a principal verb; can, and may have, are auxiliary verbs.

139. An Auxiliary Verb helps other verbs to express their grammatical properties.

Hence there are,—

Auxiliary verbs that express voice; as, was captured.
Auxiliary verbs that express mood; as, may capture.
Auxiliary verbs that express tense; as, had captured.
Auxiliary verbs that express emphasis; as, did capture.

All auxiliary verbs express person and number.

For an explanation of auxiliary verbs, see p. 70.

The remaining parts of speech need not be subdivided into classes here.

FUNDAMENTAL IDEAS, AND GRAMMATICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES.

OBJECTS.

1. Horse, dog, man, boys, lady, monkey, parasol —

Horse runs. The dog barks. The man works. Boys study and play. The lady lost her | parasol. The monkey had taken the lady's | parasol. I bought a barrel of flour.

Life has its | pleasures and its | troubles.

2. For me to go is impossible. (What is impossible?) He wishes to sell the farm. It is glorious to die for one's country.

3. That he will ever return. That you are not very attentive.

That he will ever return. (What is doubtful?) He says that you are not attentive to your business. Is it not a pity, that she is ill?

From the examples under this head, we can infer that a fundamental idea may bow itself in a word, a phrase, or a
clause. And from some of the examples under the following heads, it will be evident that it sometimes shows itself in the changes which it causes in the forms of words.

The sentences to the end of Part First show the general construction of the English language. A teacher of tact can make these sentences available in many different ways. We have room to show only a few of the ways in which they may be used.

The following are specimens of the manner in which the pupil may be conducted through these sentences:

Horse is a noun, because it is the name of an animal. Man is a noun, because it is the name of a person. Parasol is a noun, because it is the name of a thing. For me to go is a phrase used as a noun, because it tells what thing it is that is impossible. That he will ever return, is a clause used as a noun, because it tells what thing it is that is doubtful.

**ACTIONS.**

Roll, read, climb, fly, swim, dance, sing.

The ball rolls. The boy reads. Squirrels climb trees. Pigeons fly rapidly. Ducks swim. The girls sing and dance. The lightnings dart from cloud to cloud. The dew bends and refreshes the flowers.

**Changes in Form.** — The bell tolls. The bell is tolling. The bell has tolled. The bell had tolled. The bell will toll. The bell will have tolled. The bell may toll. The bell may have tolled. The bell should have tolled. Toll, sweet bell.

I strike. I am striking. I am struck. I was struck. I was striking. I struck. I have been striking. I have been struck. I shall strike. I shall be struck. I shall have been striking. I could strike. I could have been struck. Strike for the green graves of your sires.

Roll is a verb, because it tells what the ball does. Am struck is a verb, because it tells what is done to me.

**QUALITIES, OR ATTRIBUTES.**

1. **Words.** — A green meadow. The meadow is green. A fragrant pink. The pink is fragrant. Warm weather. The weather is warm. Blue hills. The hills are blue.

Long lessons. The lessons were long. An idle boy. The boy is idle. A bleak and frosty morning. The morning is bleak and frosty. She has black eyes, rosy cheeks, and pearly teeth. The windy summit, wild and high, rises against the distant sky. Rosy child, with forehead fair, coral lip, and shining hair.

**Changr8 in Form.** — A cold day; a colder day; the coldest day. The day was cold. The day was colder. The day was the coldest. Large fish live in deep water. Larger fish live in deeper water. The largest fish live in the deepest water. This tree has many apples. That tree has more apples. Tender tree has most apples.

2. **Phrases.** — The flowers of spring and the stars of heaven. (What flowers?) — Beauty is like the flowers of spring, but virtue is like the stars of heaven. The song of the robin was clear and tender. A bough with red berries floated on the water. The time of danger is the time for courage. It is the knell of the departed year. She has a bouquet of rare and beautiful flowers. The shady lawn between the house and the river is the most delightful part of the farm.

3. **Clauses.** — The lady who sings so well, is now in the house. (What lady?) — He who is fond of solitude, is generally fond of studying. The people who flatter you, are not your friends. The place which we have had this week, has been very refreshing. Flowers gathered every year large quantities of nuts, which grew in great abundance in the forest that surrounded our little farm. I call that mind free, which escapes the bondage of matter, which calls no man master, and which sets no bounds to its love.
Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave where our hero was buried.

Green is an adjective, because it describes the meadow. Colder is an adjective, because it describes the day; and in the comparative degree, because it implies a comparison between two, or because it describes a certain day as having a higher degree of the quality. Of spring is an adjective phrase, because it describes the flowers, or shows what flowers are meant. Who sings so well, is an adjective clause, because it describes the lady, or shows what lady is meant.

SEX.

He is a boy. She is a girl. It is a tree. I met him. You met her. We met them. He is my father. She is my mother. My uncle came on his pony. My aunt came in her carriage. His brother is a duke. His sister is a duchess. He married a Jewess. She married a Jew. He was administrator. She was administratrix. He is an actor. She is an actress. If Joseph was a hero, Josephine was a heroine. Beaus wait upon belles. The prince and the princess are now king and queen. Miss Julia Brooks is the niece, not the nephew, of Mr. Julius Brooks. Genders are white, and geese are gray. Ganders and geese are often called geese; drakes and ducks, ducks; horses and mares, horses; and heirs and heiresses, heirs. Two sons were all the male descendants, and three daughters all the female descendants, of the family. The landlord was very polite to the gentlemen and the ladies; but I assure you the landlord made them all pay for their titles the next morning.

He is a boy, is of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male, or the teacher may read the sentence, and then make inquiry in regard to the separate words. Thus: "He is a boy — what part of speech is he? and of what gender is it?" — Pupil. "He is a pronoun, because it is a word used in stead of some one's name; and it is of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male.

NUMBER.

One is. Two or more are. One was. Two or more were. One has been. Two or more have been. One reads. Two or more read. The man works. The men work. My tooth is sound. My teeth are sound. That goose is wild. Those geese are wild. The boy has lost his knife. The boys have lost their knives. The girl has recited her lesson. The girls have recited their lessons. The fox is a cunning animal. Foxes are cunning animals. The lady is modest. Ladies are modest. My foot is sore. My feet are sore. Our feet are sore. The mouse ran into its hole. The mice ran into their holes. The child sleeps. The children sleep. He bought an ox. They bought a yoke of oxen. I am busy. We are busy. Thou art. Ye are. I know myself. We know ourselves. He knows himself. They know themselves. He, she, or it, is good. They are good. The deer is a pretty creature. Deer are pretty creatures. The sheep is timid. Sheep are timid. The swine is greedy. Swine are greedy. I bought one dozen. He bought five dozen. This species of flowers is beautiful. These species of flowers are beautiful. The committee was large. The committee were not unanimous. The whole flock of partridges was caught. A multitude of people were assembled. The news is good. By this means he lost all. By these means he lost all. His lungs were diseased. Riches are seldom well spent. The embers were hot. The dregs were at the bottom. The tongues have been more useful than the sufferers. An ass is a tree; but ashes are the remains of burned wood or coal. Genii are men of genius, but genii are spirits. Dice are used for gaming, and dies are used for stamping. A monandrum denotes one thing, but memorandâ denote more. A radius is a single line, but radiâ are more. Silk is a kind of stuff,
but silks are different kinds of silk. Tea is a kind of drink, but teas are different kinds of tea. By spices we usually mean different kinds of spice. The Misses Bates are sisters to Dr. Bates; and the Messrs. Barnes are brothers to Miss Barnes. Ten spoonfuls made a cupful; and twenty cupfuls made two pitchers nearly full. My brothers-in-law live at my father-in-law's residence.

Every boy has brought his books. All the boys have brought their books. Either place is suitable. Each place is suitable. Both places are suitable. Neither place is suitable.

One is, is of the singular number, because it refers to but one object. Or thus: One is a pronoun, because it is a word used to stand of a noun; and it is singular, because it denotes but one object. Is is a verb of the singular number, because it predicates something of but one.

PERSON.

This subject belongs more properly to the next head, Relation; but it is probably best to consider it in connection with Number.

I am. Thou art. He is. We are. You are. They are. I was. Thou wast. He was. We were. You were. They were. I have been. You have been. He has been. They have been. I write. He writes. I know my lesson. He knows his lesson. You know your lesson. We know our lessons. They know their lessons. I take care of myself. You take care of yourself. We take care of ourselves. You take care of yourselves. He takes care of himself. They take care of themselves. This is mine; that is yours; and the other is his or hers. The responsibility must fall upon him, upon you, or upon me. We have deceived ourselves; you have deceived yourselves; and they have deceived themselves.

I am, is of the first person, because it refers to the speaker. Or thus: I is a pronoun of the first person, because it denotes the speaker; and am is a verb of the first person, because it predicates something of the speaker.
our desks. You have broken your slate. He has bruised his thumb. She has torn her book. They had lost their way. This is mine; that is yours; and the other is hers. Yours are better than ours. My brother's estate belongs to one person only. My brothers' estate belongs to two or more persons. My friends' request comes from one person only. My friends' request comes from two or more persons. It is our duty, not theirs, to supply the people's wants. For goodness' sake, help me out of my troubles. He resides near St. James's Place.

Tree is a noun in the nominative case, because it is the subject of fell, or because it tells what fell. Fish is a noun in the objective case, because it is the object of catches, or because it tells what the fisherman catches. Street is a noun in the objective case, because it is the object of the preposition down, or because it completes the relation of the preposition down by telling what the boy's a noun in the possessive case, because it denotes possession.

**MOOD OR MANNER.**

We shall notice manner here, only so far as it relates to the different modes of expressing the verb in regard to its subject.

**INDICATIVE MOOD.** — John is at home. The glass was broken. The servant has made a fire. I had bought a farm. You shall see him to-morrow. The miller will have ground the corn before we return.

**SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.** — If John were at home. If the glass be broken, you may throw it away. If the servant had made a fire, we should have been comfortable. If I bought the farm, I should have to sell it again. If you see him to-morrow, tell him to visit me. Had the miller ground the corn, we should have returned sooner.

**POTENTIAL MOOD.** — John may be at home. The glass may have been broken. The servant could have made a fire. I would buy the farm, if he would sell it. You must see him to-morrow. The miller should have ground the corn.

**IMPERATIVE MOOD.** — John, be at home. Peter, make a fire. Miller, grind the corn. Buy the farm. See him to-morrow, if you can. Behave yourself well. Be always kind and obliging. Do not grieve over unavoidable calamities.

**INFinitives and Participles.** — A servant came to make a fire. I ought to have bought the farm. You are too anxious to see it. The miller was requested to grind the corn. It seems to have rained last night. The lady, dressed in homespun, was the neatest. Two hundred canons, flashing and thundering continually, seemed to shake the very earth to its centre. Now the bright morning-star comes dancing from the east. The glass having been broken, we threw it away.

Akin to the forms of the verb known as moods, are the forms of the verb called voices.

John hit James. James was hit by John. He told the story. The story was told by him. The puppy tore the book. The book was torn by the puppy. The water turns the wheel. The wheel is turned by the water. The winds fan the flowers and ruffle the waters. The flowers are fanned and the waters are ruffled by the winds.

Akin to the moods are also the interrogative and the negative form of the verb.

He has read the book. Has he read the book? Has he not read the book? You have been at home. You have not been at home. Have you been at home? Have you not been at home? Life is a burden. Life is not a burden. Is life a burden? Is not life a burden?

Akin to the moods are also the forms of the tenses.

He teaches. He teacheth. He is teaching. He teacheth. He doth teach. You know him. Thou knowest.
him. You are a sinful people. Ye are a sinful people. I write. I am writing. I do write. I wrote. I was writing. I did write. Visit me. Do visit me. Are you the traitor? Art thou the traitor?

*John is at home,* is a sentence in the indicative mood, because it expresses an actual occurrence or fact; or, *were* is a verb in the indicative mood, because it expresses an actual occurrence or fact. *"If John were at home,"* is a sentence in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a mere supposition; or, *were* is a verb in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a mere supposition.

*Hit is a verb in the active voice,* because it represents the subject as acting. *Was hit* is a verb in the passive voice, because it represents the subject as acted upon.

*He has read the book,* is an affirmative sentence. *He has not read the book,* is a negative sentence. *Has he read the book?* is an interrogative sentence. *Has he not read the book?* is an interrogative and negative sentence.

*Teaches* is a verb in the common form, because it is the verb expressed in the most simple and ordinary manner.

**TIME.**

A chief idea sometimes displays itself in the changes which it causes in a certain class of words. When this occurs, the idea becomes a grammatical property. Hence *time* affords us the tenses.

Changes in Form. — PRESENT TENSE. — The rose blooms. The boy studies. The work is done. The leaves are falling. The cars do not move. The journey is expensive.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose has bloomed. The boy has studied. The work has been done. The leaves have been falling. The journey has been expensive.

PAST TENSE. — The rose bloomed. The boy studied. The work was done. The leaves were falling. The cars did not move. The journey was expensive.

**GRAMMATICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES.**

PAST-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose had bloomed. The boy had studied. The work had been done. The leaves had been falling. The journey had been expensive.

FUTURE TENSE. — The rose will bloom. The boy will study. The work will be done. The leaves will be falling. The journey will be expensive.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose will have bloomed. The boy will have studied. The work will have been done. The train will have left. The journey will have been expensive.

Time may show itself more definitely in *words, phrases, or clauses,* that are used to express it.

Words. — The paper comes weekly. Go instantly. It rains daily. Your class is now reciting. He will return late. I shall see you to-morrow. He was here yesterday. Jonquils bloom early. The oak lives long. We shall soon reach the shore. He visits us frequently. She is always cheerful.

Phrases. — He remained till morning. A great storm arose after sunset. They were treated well that night, and the next day they departed. At the break of day, our horses were saddled. He rode a hundred miles in twenty-five hours. For many a returning autumn, this Indian visited the graves of his fathers. Within twenty years from the foundation of this village, deer had become scarce.

Clauses. — He knocked at the door, before any one was awake. We shall have peace, after we have subdued the enemy. Great was the alarm in the colony, while these children were lost. We traveled through dim paths, until the day drew to its close. She smiled when I told her how I had fallen into the water.

Frequently, the changed form, the word, the phrase, and the clause, are all found in the same sentence; as, *"He came early in the morning, while we were at breakfast."*
English Grammar.

Blooms is a verb in the present tense, because it denotes a present act. Weekly is a word that shows when the paper comes. Till morning is a phrase that shows how long he remained. Before any one is awake, is a clause that shows when he knocked.

Place.

Words. — The man is here. My horse stands yonder. I went home. I have seen him somewhere. I shall go abroad. The wall fell inwards. The birds flew away. The dog came up. Beautiful mansions gleamed far and near.

Phrases. — Melons grow on vines. Tea is brought from China. The child slept in its mother's lap. I was at the same school. You reside in a pleasant part of the city. Let us take a ramble in the woods. The cascade tumbled from the rocks. The army marched round the hill. We went through swamps, thickets, and endless mud. The Indians bore them far beyond the limits of the settlement. She sat below us, at the same table.

Clauses. — We caught the minnows where the water ripples over the rocks. He remains wherever he finds good company. Thou hearest the sound of the wind; but thou canst not tell whence it cometh, and whither it goeth.

Frequently, two or more chief ideas are combined in the same sentence. A recent French novel begins thus: "In the gloomy month of November, when the English drowned and hang themselves, a disconsolate lover walked forth into the fields, and seated himself under a juniper-tree." (Time and place.)

Here is a word that shows in what place the man is. On vines is a phrase that shows in what place melons grow. From China is a phrase that shows from what place tea is brought. Where the water ripples over the rocks, is a clause that shows in what place the minnows were caught.

Logical Development of Sentences.

Degree.

The river is deep. The lake is deeper. The ocean is the deepest body of water in the world. This one is good; that one is better; but the other is the best. Want is bad; but debt may be worse. A good name is better than riches. The worst gambler won the money. Who has more enemies and fewer friends, more trouble and less pleasure, than the miser? The pink is more beautiful than the marigold, and one of the most fragrant of flowers. He sat next to me, though I was nearer to the speaker. I said an elder soldier, not a braver. The upper room is already occupied. The hindmost man was left in the utmost distress. Most men judge others more severely than themselves. The weather is somewhat colder. The weather is so cold that I need my overcoat. There was so much noise that we could hear but very little of what was said.

Deep is an adjective in the positive degree, because it expresses simply a quality of the river. Deeper is an adjective in the comparative degree, because it shows that the lake has the quality in a higher degree.

Logical Development of Sentences.

Persons are often perplexed in determining how they shall arrange the words by means of which they express their thoughts. We generally express our thoughts as we naturally think them. That of which we think or speak, is naturally first thought of; and therefore it is generally first put down. To this we add, either before or after, all the descriptive words, phrases, and clauses, that belong to it; as, "The boy," "The little boy," "The little boy from the country," "The little boy from the country, who was here yesterday." Having thus got the subject, we
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

next put down, in like manner, what is said of it; as, "wept," "wept bitterly," "wept bitterly for a long time," "wept bitterly for a long time because he could not find his father." "The little boy from the country, who was here yesterday, wept bitterly for a long time because he could not find his father." From this sentence it is obvious that we naturally first put down the subject, then the predicate, adding to each, or rather, including with each, the various qualities or secondary ideas which enter into the thought. We do not, however, always arrange our words in this way; but we sometimes put down first that which is first or most thought of, or makes the greatest impression upon us, even if it is not the object itself of which we are speaking. "The whole shelf of china fell down with such clattering and breaking as startled us all." In an occurrence of this kind, the fall is naturally the most striking part; and therefore we would probably say, "Down fell the whole shelf of china, with such clattering and breaking as startled us all." We have many different thoughts. Our thoughts are made thus different because they are made up of many different ideas. Hence we get many different sentences; but nearly all of these sentences come more or less within the following description, or their parts answer to some of the following questions: —

Which one?  
How many?  
Of what kind?  
Who?  
What?  
Does what?  
Has done to it?  
As to what?  
When?  
Where?  
How?  
Why?

Let us now develop sentences accordingly.

SUBJECT.

Simplest Form.  Who?  What?


LOGICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES.

Romans destroyed Jerusalem. Washington is called the father of our country. The Mayor did not sign the bill. Iron is the most useful metal. Wealth is not the greatest blessing. A pen may be more dangerous than a sword. Poplars grow rapidly. Beauty is a perishing flower.

Which one?

This tree is an oak. That tree is an elm. Yonder farm belongs to me. The first man was shot. The last squadron had arrived. The youngest child is a daughter. The eldest son is in the army. Albert's books are new. My neighbor's horses ran away. Your cap fits me. The river Hudson is in New York. The poet Cowper lived at Olney, in England. The steamship Arctic was wrecked at sea. David, the son of Jesse, became king of Israel. The tree dead at the top was first cut down. The apple highest on the tree is not always the best. The elm before the house must be a thousand years old. The paling around the garden cost a hundred dollars. The field below the hill is sometimes overflowed. The hills beyond the river are blue and beautiful. The house erected by the church is a parsonage. The trees planted along the river grow rapidly. The lines written by Coleridge are the most beautiful in the collection. The man who sits next to the speaker is the president. The sum which was collected last Sunday, has already been expended. The evil about which you have said so much, has been often noticed.

How many?

Seven men were wounded. A thousand soldiers make a regiment. Twenty-five carriages followed the hearse. Only one person was seen in the canoe.

Of what kind?

A terrible thunder-storm passed over the city. A beautiful lake lay in front of the house. Silvery clouds
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

fringed the horizon. Iron railing is very durable. Small and beautiful flowers hung from the rocks. A Colt's revolver was in his belt. A hunter's rifle was the only gun we had. Isabella, a valiant and noble queen, assisted Columbus. Collins, a poet of the most delicate sensibilities, died in the prime of life. A ship of the largest size was sunk by this rifled cannon. A man of good habits generally enjoys good health. Thew feathers of ducks and geese are used for beds. A person governed by his inclinations only, is apt to be fickle. A lady admired and praised for her beauty is apt to become vain. Plants reared in cellars are seldom strong. Laws to prevent such outrages should be enacted. A dinner to suit the occasion was prepared. The man who does not keep his word, should not be trusted. The trees which are of the smallest size, generally grow on high places. There arose, about this time, from the lower ranks of the people, a man named Cromwell, of incredible depth of understanding, strict integrity, and unwavering resolution, who with one hand held successfully the reins of civil authority, and with the other hurled victoriously the thunderbolts of war.

Columbus discovered America, is a sentence, because it is a thought expressed by a proposition and followed by a full pause. Columbus is the subject, because it denotes the person of whom something is said; and discovered America is the predicate, because it denotes what is said of Columbus. This tree is the subject; tree is the principal word, and the other which tree is meant. Seven men is the subject; men is the principal word, and men shows how many. A terrible thunder-storm is the subject; thunder-storm is the principal word, and terrible shows of what kind.

PREDICATE.

Is what?

Life is short. Time is precious. War is ruinous. Cotton is dear. Farmers are generally industrious. Tomatoes are wholesome. Tomatoes are red or yellow. The pineapple is sweet and juicy. The cat is a useful animal. John is an idle boy. The turkey is a native of America. The eagle is a bird of great power. The home of the brave is the home of the free. Gratitude is the memory of the heart. Hope is the blossoms of happiness.

Does what?

Lambs play. Eagles soar. Cars rumble. Bears groan and bite. My head aches. James is gathering hazel-nuts. Mary is paring apples. These islands produce spices. Caesar fought many battles. You have made an enemy of him. George gave me a piece of his apple. He told the story to his brother, and then they both laughed.

Has what done to it?

The door was shut. The stranger was bitten by the dog. The book was sent by mail. The field had been reaped. The meat will be cooked in a few hours. The treasures of the pirates were buried on an island. The cargo was landed. The bells were rung. The old house was torn down by the workmen. Our apples must be gathered next week. The book is well printed and bound. Most people are easily deceived by fair appearances.

Is short is a predicate, because it tells what life is, or it denotes what is said of life. Play is a predicate, because it tells what lambs do, or denotes what is said of lambs. Was short is a predicate, because it tells what is done to the door, or denotes what is said of the door.

When? How long? How often?

Words. — Come soon. I called afterwards. I have never seen him. He has always been in debt. Let us start early.

Phrases. — He visits us every day. I go to school in the morning. The robber was hanged before noon, about ten o'clock.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Clauses.—Remain till I return. We often deceive ourselves while we try to deceive others. When wolf eats wolf there is nothing else in the woods to eat. We used to go to bed at nine o’clock, when we lived in the country. My heart dilated with honest pride, as I recalled to mind the storm yet amiable characters of our Revolutionary fathers.

Soon is a word that shows when you are to come. Every day is a phrase that tells how often he visits us. Till I return, is a clause that tells how long you are to remain.

Where?
Words.—Stop here. I called there. Yonder comes your father. I found no amusement anywhere. He lives above.

Phrases.—He visited us at home. We went into the country. There is a railroad across the Isthmus of Darien. Have you made a fire in my room? On the banks of the Ganges we can see the ebony in bloom.

Clauses.—The enemy put their cannons where no enemy could approach them. Where honesty takes root, the blessing of God makes it a tree. Wherever there is honey, there will also find bees. As far as we went, there was nothing but desolation.

Here is an adverb that tells where you are to stop. At home is a phrase that tells where he visited us. Where no enemy could approach them, is a clause that tells where the enemy put their cannons.

How?
Words.—Move briskly. I knocked gently. The boatmen sang merrily. Did your goods sell well? The procession moved slowly and solemnly.

Phrases.—It rained in torrents. She dresses after the Spanish fashion. We keep without remorse that which we acquire without crime. Half the people in the world live at the expense of the other half. Here comes the body of Caesar, mourned by Mark Antony. She perished like a tem

der flower. And probably, “The Assyrian came down like the wolf on the fold.”

Clauses.—She behaved as every modest young lady should behave. The honest man speaks as he thinks; the flatterer, as others like to hear. As you work, so shall you thrive. The storm howled and tore as if it would uproot the forest.

Briskly is a word that shows how you are to move. Incurrent is a phrase that shows how it rained. As every modest young lady should behave, is a clause that shows how she behaved.

Why?
Words.—Therefore go. Why did you knock? Wherefore did you not write? Hence we parted.

Phrases.—She died of grief. The soldiers perished from hunger and thirst. The accident happened through carelessness. He went for pleasure. I want money to buy books. He called to see you.

Clauses.—He feels very much dejected, for he can not find employment. I sent for the doctor, because the child was very sick. Since you will have it so, I will go with you. Live virtuously, that you may be happy.

Therefore is a word that implies why you are to go. Why is a word that asks for the reason of your knocking. Of grief is a phrase that tells why she died. For he can not find employment, is a clause that tells why he feels dejected.

As to what?
Words.—She is ashamed to dance. He is afraid to go.

Phrases.—She has not the courage to speak to him. He is poor in money, but rich in knowledge. I am fond of strawberries and raspberries. I paid the bookseller for the books. He is indolent about every thing. I am able to pay him.

Clauses.—I consent that you go and see him. I feared lest I should lose it. I am convinced that honesty is the best policy. I am glad that we have peace again.
English Grammar.

To dance is a word that tells in regard to what she is ashamed. To speak to him is a phrase that tells as to what she has not courage. That you go and see him, is a clause that tells as to what I consent.

Propositions, or Simple Sentences, combined.

Our thoughts consist of propositions, either single or combined. Propositions are combined in many different senses. The following are the principal modes of combining them.

Addition.

The coffee was good, and the rolls were excellent. I was alone, and the night was dark and stormy. That boy is very studious, and he is loved by all his classmates. The rivulet rested clear as crystal in the rocky urn, and large blue violets hung over the surrounding moss.

The coffee was good, and the rolls were excellent, is a sentence that consists of two clauses connected by and, which implies addition. In a similar way dispose of all the remaining sentences.

Contrariety.

He is a small man, but he is very strong. We started early, but we came an hour too late. He is stout and healthy in appearance, yet he has always been sickly. We lost the battle, notwithstanding we did our utmost to win it. Although he is accused, yet he is innocent.

Alternation, or Choice.

I will either send you my horse, or you may hire one at your expense. Neither spend your money before you have it, nor buy what you do not need. Either he will hate the one, and love the other; or else he will hold to the one, and despise the other.

Cause.

This field will produce well, because the soil is fertile. I refused his present, for I knew he offered it from selfish motives. He is angry; therefore let him alone. As it is impossible to go, let us remain contentedly at home. Since

Questions for Review.

We can not enjoy this world long, is it not strange that most people are so very avaricious?

Sometimes a sentence consists of a combination of differently connected propositions; as, "Great men undertake great things, because they are themselves great; but fools undertake them, because they think them easy." (Cause and contrariety.)

If I were in your place, I would join the army. Would you go, if you should be invited? If there were no evil listeners, there would be no evil talkers. So if answers the purpose, it will matter little how indifferent it is.

When no connective is expressed, the connecting sense generally is that of and, for, but, if, or that is.

The woods are hushed, the waters rest. Every age has its pleasures; every situation has its charms. It is not too late: it is only nine o'clock. He who renders a service, should forget it; he who receives it, should remember it. That concerns you, does it not? Could you think of it? Could you think of it at once? Could you think of it at once?

Questions for Review.

1. How do we express our thoughts? 9
2. In what two ways are words used? 9
3. Into what classes are words divided? 9
4. Name the parts of speech? 9
5. How many and what properties belong to the parts of speech? 9
6. What are the chief things or ideas that lie at the basis of grammar? 9
7. What is a noun? 9
8. What is a pronoun? 9
9. What is an article? 9
10. What is a subject? 9
11. What is a predicate? 9
12. What is a proposition? 9
13. What is a verb? 9
14. What is an adjective? 9
15. What is an adverb? 9
16. What is an adverbial? 9
17. What is an adjective? 9
18. What is a conjunction? 9
19. What is a preposition? 9
20. What is a gender? 9
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.


QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

PART II.

INFLECTIONS.*

110. There are three methods of distinguishing the two sexes.

1. By different words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>maid</td>
<td>Lad</td>
<td>lass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beau</td>
<td>belle</td>
<td>Lord</td>
<td>lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>girl</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>sister</td>
<td>Man</td>
<td>woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>Mister</td>
<td>mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl</td>
<td>countess</td>
<td>Mr.</td>
<td>Mrs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>miss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gander</td>
<td>goose</td>
<td>Nephew</td>
<td>niece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hart</td>
<td>roe</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>daughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>she</td>
<td>Ram</td>
<td>owe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td>mare</td>
<td>Buck</td>
<td>aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>wife</td>
<td>Uncle</td>
<td>aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>queen</td>
<td>Wizard</td>
<td>witch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* We have hesitated as to whether we should adopt this word or the phrase "Tabular Matter." By inflections we here mean all the changes or variations of words to express grammatical properties; though the word is not generally used with so comprehensive a meaning. To those inflections we have added some lists of words that do not imply inflection, but that could not well be placed elsewhere, and that still require special attention in considering the syntax of our language.

2. By different endings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abbot</td>
<td>abbess</td>
<td>Lion</td>
<td>lioness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>actress</td>
<td>Negro</td>
<td>negress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator, administratrix</td>
<td>Patron</td>
<td>Peer</td>
<td>peeress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baron</td>
<td>baronesse</td>
<td>Bridegroom, bride</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom, bride</td>
<td>Benefactor, benefactress</td>
<td>Priest, priestess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>chantress</td>
<td>Prophet, prophetess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conductor</td>
<td>conductress</td>
<td>Protector, protectress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>countess</td>
<td>Prince, princess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deacon</td>
<td>deaconess</td>
<td>Shepherd, shepherdess</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don</td>
<td>dona</td>
<td>Son, daughter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke</td>
<td>duchess</td>
<td>Songster, songstress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emperor</td>
<td>empress</td>
<td>Sultan, sultana</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executor</td>
<td>executrix</td>
<td>Sultaness, sultanes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giant</td>
<td>giantess</td>
<td>Teifor, tufere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governor</td>
<td>governess</td>
<td>Testator, testatrix</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God</td>
<td>goddess</td>
<td>Tiger, tigress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heir</td>
<td>heir</td>
<td>Tutor, tutoress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hero</td>
<td>heréine</td>
<td>Widower, widow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Host</td>
<td>hostess</td>
<td>Henry, Henrietta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunter</td>
<td>huntress</td>
<td>Louis, Louis's</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor, instructress</td>
<td>Inventor, inventor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jew</td>
<td>Jewess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. By using a distinguishing word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He-goat</td>
<td>she-goat</td>
<td>Male descendants, female descendants</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mon-servant, maid-servant</td>
<td>Mr. Reynolds, Mrs. Reynolds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buck-rabbit</td>
<td>doe-rabbit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
60

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

NUMBER.

141. Most nouns are made plural by adding s to the singular.
Sofa, sofas. Ball, balls. Car, cars.
Rod, rods. Drum, drums. Window, windows.
Cliff, cliffs. Polo, polos. Monarch, monarchs.

142. Nouns that end with s, x, z, sh, or soft ch, are made plural by adding es to the singular.
Glass, glasses. Box, boxes. Dish, dishes.
Loss, losses. Topaz, topazes. Church, churches.

143. Nouns that end with s, x, or y, preceded each by a consonant, are made plural by adding es to the singular.

To ascertain what is meant by vowels and consonants, see p. 154.

To s, preceded by a vowel, s only is added.
Ex. -- Cuckoo, cuckoos.

To o, preceded by a consonant, es is added.
Ex. -- Motto, mottoes.

Halo, halos; memento, memorions; quarto, quartos; tyro, tryos, and zero, zeroes, are some of the exceptions.

144. Proper nouns and foreign nouns take simply s; or es, when s will not coalesce in sound.

145. The following nouns change the ending into es:
Calf, calves. Leaf, leaves. Wolf, wolves.
Eel, eels. Self, selves. Wharf, wharves.
Half, halves. Sheaf, sheaves.
Knife, knives. Shell, shells. Staff, staves.

Leaf, leaves. Thief, thieves.

146. For forming the plural of some words, no general rule can be given; and they are therefore said to be irregular.
Man, men. Mouse, mice.
Woman, women. Louse, lice.
Ox, oxen. I, we.
Foot, feet. Thou, ye.
Goose, geese. He, they.
Tooth, teeth. She, they.

147. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, but with a difference of meaning.
Brother, brothers (of the same family); brethren (of the same society).
Die, dies (stamps for coining); dice (small cubes for gaming).
Fish, fishes (individuals); fish (quantity or kind).
Genius, geniuses (men of genius); genius (spirits).
Index, indices (tables of contents); indices (algebraic signs).
Penny, pennies (pieces of money); pence (how much in value).
148. Most compound words are expressed in the plural number, by making plural only that part of the word which is described by the rest.

Ox-cart, ox-carts. Court-martial, courts-martial.
Wagon-load, wagon-loads. Ald-de-camp, alders-de-camp.

149. When the title Mr., Miss, or Dr., is used with a name, the whole term is made plural by making plural the title only.

Mr. Harper, Messrs. Harper. Miss Brown, the Misses Brown.
Dr. Lee, Drs. Lee. Misses Jane and Julia Brown.

150. Many foreign nouns, adopted into the English language, retain their foreign plurals. Some have also regular English plurals.

1. The ending *a* is changed to *a* or *ata*, sometimes to *ala*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arena</td>
<td>arenas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>larva</td>
<td>larvae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minerva</td>
<td>minervas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formula</td>
<td>formulae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertebra</td>
<td>vertebrae</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The ending *us* is changed to *i*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alumnus</td>
<td>alumni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focus</td>
<td>foces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hippopotamus</td>
<td>hippopotami</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nucleus</td>
<td>nucleis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius</td>
<td>radiis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. The ending *um* or *on* is changed to *a*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>animalum</td>
<td>animala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aquarium</td>
<td>aquaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>area'num</td>
<td>areana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>automaton</td>
<td>automata</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criterion</td>
<td>criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effluvium</td>
<td>effluvia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encomium</td>
<td>encomia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erratum</td>
<td>errata</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. The ending *es* is changed to *es*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>axis</td>
<td>axes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anth'esis</td>
<td>antitheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basis</td>
<td>bases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crisis</td>
<td>crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ellipsis</td>
<td>ellipses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypot'hesis</td>
<td>hypottheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>datum</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effluvium</td>
<td>effluvia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encomium</td>
<td>encomia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stratum</td>
<td>strata</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Final *z* is changed to *es*, and *zs* to *ses*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>append'ix</td>
<td>appendices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apex</td>
<td>apaxes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertex</td>
<td>vertices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ap'ioza</td>
<td>apioza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vortex</td>
<td>vortex</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

6. Words that are less regular.

Bandit, { bandits, Genus, genera.
beau, beaux. Monsieur, Messieurs.
cherub, cherubim. Stamen, stam'ina.

151. Letters, figures, and other characters, are made plural by adding 's (apostrophe and s).
Ex. — "The a's and u's in the first line." "By s's and i's.

152. Most nouns that denote substance, science, quality, or condition, can be used in the singular number only.
Bread Hay Pride Goodness Peace
Gold Music Patience Darkness Fever

153. Such words are sometimes made plural, when different kinds are meant, or things that have the substance or quality.
Ex. — "Teas and sicks are brought from China."
"I had but a few coppers left;" i. e., cents.
"The heights around the city;" i. e., the high places.

154. Some nouns, denoting generally objects that consist of two or many parts, are nearly always plural.
Aborig'ines Bowels Head-quarters Riches Tidings
Annals Cattle Hose Spectacles Teens
Ashes Clothes Lungs Stairs Thanks
Billiards Dregs Goods Snuffers Tongues
Bitters Eaves Pinchers Suds Victuals

155. Some nouns are used, without change of form, in either number.
Deer Head Dozen Means Wages
Sheep (cattle) Series News Bellows
Swine Sail Species Arms Gallows
Vermin (ship) Apparatus Odds Summons
Grouse Pair Corps Amends Politics

Note seems to be now used in the singular number only; wages is generally plural; and poor and doves have also lost plural form.

156. A collective noun is singular, when we regard the entire collection as one thing.
"The army was large." Not each man of it was large.

157. A collective noun is plural, when it has the plural form, or when we refer to the individuals composing the collection.
"The armies were large."
"The multitude pursue pleasure."
That is, each one of the multitude pursues pleasure.

CASE.

158. The nominative and the objective case of nouns are alike.
"John kicked the horse." "The horse kicked John."

159. The nominative and the objective case of pronouns are generally different.
I, me; he, him. "I met him." "He met me."
She, her; we, us. "She met us." "We met her."
Who, whom. "Who came?" "Whom did you see?"

160. The possessive case of nouns is formed by annexing to the name of the owner an apostrophe, or comma above the line, and then the letter s.
One, ther,

• •

•

127

127x142

light

my hat, and that is
alent to the simple possessive pronoun and a noun; as, "This is
my hat, and that is yours," i. e., your hat.

It sometimes denotes merely the state or condition of things, or a
point of time. "It rains." "It is 12 o'clock." "It was moon-
light on the Persian Sea."

It sometimes introduces a sentence, and is explained by a fol-
lowing word, phrase, or clause. "It was he." "It is mean to take
advantage of another's distress." What is mean? "It is per-
fectly plain that a straight line is the shortest distance from one
point to another." What is plain?

161. The apostrophe only is added to plural nouns
that end with s.

Boys, boy's. Soldiers, soldiers'. Teachers, teachers'.

Girls, girls'. Horses, horses'. Pupils, 'pupils'.

Conscience and goodness also have only the apostrophe; as,
"For conscience' sake;" "For goodness' sake."

Write the following nouns in the possessive case:

Earth, nature, morning, life, river, city, James.
Mountains, ladies, gentlemen, rivers, ocean, churches.

PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

162. The chief personal pronouns are I, thou or
you, he, she, and it.

Thou is used in the solemn style.
You is used in the familiar style.
The teacher should explain what is meant.

We denotes the speaker, with others included.

Ours, yours, hers, and sometimes mine and mine, are each equiva-
 lent to the simple possessive pronoun and a noun; as, "This is
my hat, and that is yours," i. e., your hat.

It sometimes denotes merely the state or condition of things, or a
point of time. "It rains." "It is 12 o'clock." "It was moon-
light on the Persian Sea."

It sometimes introduces a sentence, and is explained by a fol-
lowing word, phrase, or clause. "It was he." "It is mean to take
advantage of another's distress." What is mean? "It is per-
fectly plain that a straight line is the shortest distance from one
point to another." What is plain?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

163. The chief relative pronouns are, —

Who; applied to persons.
Which; applied to things, and to animals inferior to man.
What; used for thing which or things which.

That; sometimes preferred to who or which.

As; which is a relative pronoun when it follows such, many, or
same.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

164. The interrogative pronouns are, —

Who; which asks for the name of a person.
Which; applied to either persons or things in asking for a par-
ticular one of two or more.

What; which asks for the kind of thing, or for the character or
occupation.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

165. The adjective pronouns may be divided into,—

1. Distributive, which relate to objects taken singly.
Ex. — Each, either, neither.

2. Demonstrative, which point out objects definitely.
Ex. — This, these, that, those, same, former, latter.

3. Indefinite, which relate to objects indefinitely.
Ex. — One, other, any, some, each, several, all, both.

4. Reciprocal, which imply mutual relation.
Ex. — Each other, one another.

DECLENSION.

166. To Decline a noun or pronoun is to show, in
some regular way, what forms it has to express its
grammatical properties.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

NOUNS.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.


Boy, boy's, boy; boys, boys', boys.
Man, man's, man; men, men's, men.
Lady, lady's, lady; ladies, ladies', ladies.
Fox, fox's, fox; foxes, foxes', foxes.
Smith, Smith's, Smith; Smiths, Smiths', Smiths.
John, John's, John.

PRONOUNS.

One, one's, one; ones, ones', ones.
Other, other's, other; others, others', others.
None, none; none, none; none.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

Singular. Plural.

Nominateive. I, we.
Possessive. my or mine, our or ours.
Objective. me; us.

SECOND PERSON.

Singular.

Nominateive. Thou or you, ye or you.
Possessive. thy or thine, your or yours.
Objective. thee or you; you.

THIRD PERSON.

Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.


Nom. he, they, she, they, their, theirs.
Poss. his, their, or, his, or, their.
Obj. him, them, her, them.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Singular.

1st Person. Myself; ourselves.
2nd Person. Thyself or yourself; yourselves.
3rd Person. Himself, herself, itself; themselves.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.


Who, whose, whom. (ever or -soever.)
Which, (whose,) which.

Sing. or Plural.

What, (whose,) that.
As, as.

What is the objective corresponding to—
— they? — who?

What is the nominative corresponding to—
— them? — themselves? — herself? — it? — which?

Form the compound pronoun:—
My, our, thy, your, him, her, it, them, who, which, what.

Of what gender, person, number, and case is each of the following pronouns?
Him, his, its, he, them, it. I, you, thy, their, she, thou, me,
your, us, they, my, thine, thine, yours, hers, others, theirs,
we, thee, our, ours, ye, myself, themselves, ourselves.
IRREGULAR VERBS.
The Two Past Forms Different.

Arise, arose, arisen.
Awake, awoke, awaked.
Be or am, was, been.
Bear bore, born.
Bet, beat, beaten.
Become, became, become.
Befall, befell, befallen.
Begin, began, begun.
Bid, bid, bidden.
Bite, bit, bitten.
Blow, blew, blown.
Break, broke, broken.
Chide, chid, chidden.
Choose, chose, chosen.
Cleave cleaved, cleaved.
Come, came, come.

THE PUPIL MAY ALSO MENTION THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE JUST BEFORE HE MENTIONS THE PERFECT.


Hide, hid, hidden.
Hold, held, held.
Know, knew, known.
Ladi, lad, laden.
Lie (remain), lay, lain.
Mow, mowed, mown.
Rent, rent, rented.
Ride, rode, ridden.
Ring, rang, rung.
Rise, rose, risen.
Rive, rivet, riven.
Run, ran, run.
Saw, sawed, sawn.
See, saw, seen.
Seethe, seethed, seethed.
Shake, shook, shaken.
Shear, sheared, shorn.
Show, showed, shown.
Shrink, shrunk, shrunk.
Slay, slew, slain.
Slide slid, slid.
Smite smote, smitten.
The Two Past or the three Forms Allik.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Past, or Pret. Perf. Participles</th>
<th>Present Past, or Pret. Perf. Participles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide, abode, abode.</td>
<td>Deal, dealt, dealt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behold, beheld, beheld.</td>
<td>Dig, dug, dug.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay, delay, delay.</td>
<td>Dwell, dwelt, dwelt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bend, bent, bent.</td>
<td>Dream, dreamed, dreamed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bereave, bereft, bereft.</td>
<td>Feed, fed, fed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech, besought, besought.</td>
<td>Feel, felt, felt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bet, bet, bet.</td>
<td>Fight, fought, fought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betide, betide, betide.</td>
<td>Find, found, found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind, bound, bound.</td>
<td>Fled, fled, fled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bleed, bled, bled.</td>
<td>Fling, flung, flung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bless, blessed, blessed.</td>
<td>Gild, gilded, gilded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breed, bred, bred.</td>
<td>Gird, girt, girt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring, brought, brought.</td>
<td>Grind, ground, ground.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build, built, built.</td>
<td>Hang, hung, hung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burn, burnt, burnt.</td>
<td>Have, had, had.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burst, burst, burst.</td>
<td>Hear, heard, heard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy, bought, bought.</td>
<td>Hit, hit, hit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast, cast, cast.</td>
<td>Hurt, hurt, hurt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch, caught, caught.</td>
<td>Keep, kept, kept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cling, clung, clung.</td>
<td>Knell, knelt, knelt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothe, clad, clad.</td>
<td>Lay, laid, laid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost, cost, cost.</td>
<td>Lead, led, led.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creep, crept, crept.</td>
<td>Lean, leaned, leaned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut, cut, cut.</td>
<td>Leave, left, left.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a.) Hang, hanged, hanged; to suspend by the neck with intent to kill. but
the distinction is not always observed.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Past, or Pret. Perf. Participles</th>
<th>Present Past, or Pret. Perf. Participles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Let, let, let.</td>
<td>Sleep, slept, slept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light, lighted, lighted.</td>
<td>Sing, sung, sung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lot, lit, lit.</td>
<td>Sink, sunk, sunk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose, lost, lost.</td>
<td>Slit, slit, slit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make, made, made.</td>
<td>Smell, smelt, smelt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean, meant, meant.</td>
<td>Speed, sped, sped.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet, met, met.</td>
<td>Spell, spelt, spelt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass, passed, passed.</td>
<td>Spend, spent, spent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pen, penned, penned.</td>
<td>Spill, spill, spill.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poet, poet, poet.</td>
<td>Spoil, spoilt, spoilt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put, put, put.</td>
<td>Spread, spread, spread.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quit, quit, quit.</td>
<td>Stay, stayed, stayed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rap, rapt, rapt.</td>
<td>String, strung, strung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read, read, read.</td>
<td>Stave, stave, stave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rid, rid, rid.</td>
<td>Stand, stood, stood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Say, said, said.</td>
<td>Stick, stuck, stuck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek, sought, sought.</td>
<td>Sting, stung, stung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sell, sold, sold.</td>
<td>Sweat, sweated, sweated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send, sent, sent.</td>
<td>Sweep, swept, swept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set, set, set.</td>
<td>Swing, swung, swung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shed, shed, shed.</td>
<td>Teach, taught, taught.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show, showed, showed.</td>
<td>Tell, told, told.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoe, shod, shod.</td>
<td>Think, thought, thought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoot, shot, shot.</td>
<td>Thrust, thrust, thrust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shred, shred, shred.</td>
<td>Wake, woke, woke.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shut, shut, shut.</td>
<td>Weep, wept, wept.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a.) Past is used as an adjective or as a noun. (b.) Rap, rapt, rapt; to
sense with raptores. (c.) Stay, stayed, stayed; to cause to stay. (d.) Stringed
instruments.
CONJUGATION.

168. The Conjugation of a verb is the proper combination and arrangement of its parts, in their full order.

"In their full order," — that is, in all the persons and numbers of each mood, tense, etc. Conjugation embraces all the persons and numbers; synopsis, only one person and number.

169. A Synopsis of a verb is only an outline of it, which shows its parts in a single person and number, through the moods and tenses.

Synopsis of write, with I, through the indicative mood:

Present, I write. Present-Perfect, I have written.
Past, I wrote. Past-Perfect, I had written.
Future, I shall write. Future-Perfect, I shall have written.

170. The irregular verb BE is conjugated thus:

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Perfect Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Be or am</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>being</td>
<td>been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Person</td>
<td>I am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Person</td>
<td>You are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Person</td>
<td>He, she, or it is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Tense.**

1. I was, 1. We were,
2. You were, 2. You were,
3. He was, 3. They were,
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Present-Perfect Tense.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
1. I have been, 1. We have been,
2. You have been, 2. You have been,
3. He has been; 3. They have been.

Past-Perfect Tense.
1. I had been, 1. We had been,
2. You had been, 2. You had been,
3. He had been; 3. They had been.

Future Tense.
Simple futurity; foretelling.
1. I shall be, 1. We shall be,
2. You will be, 2. You will be,
3. He will be; 3. They will be.

Promise, threat, or determination.
1. I will be, 1. We will be,
2. You shall be, 2. You shall be,
3. He shall be; 3. They shall be.

Future-Perfect Tense.
Simple futurity; foretelling.
1. I shall have been, 1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been, 2. You will have been,
3. He will have been; 3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.
1. If I be, 1. If we be,
2. If you be, 2. If you be,
3. If he be; 3. If they be.

CONJUGATION.

Past Tense.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
1. If I were, 1. If we were, Were I,
2. If you were, Were you, Were you,
3. If he were; or, Were he; 3. If they were; or, Were they.

Past-Perfect Tense.
1. Had I be
2. Had you be
3. Had he be;
4. Had we be
5. Had you be
6. Had they be.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.
1. I may be, 1. We may be,
2. You may be, 2. You may be,
3. He may be; 3. They may be.

In the same way conjugate can be and must be.

Present-Perfect Tense.
1. I may have been, 1. We may have been,
2. You may have been, 2. You may have been,
3. He may have been; 3. They may have been.

In the same way conjugate must have been and Can I have been.

Past Tense.
1. I might be, 1. We might be,
2. You might be, 2. You might be,
3. He might be; 3. They might be.

In the same way conjugate could be, would be, and should be.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Singular.                     Plural.
1. I might have been,         1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,       2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;        3. They might have been.

In the same way conjugate could have been, would have been, and
should have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

2. Be thou; or, Do thou be.  2. Be ye; or, Do ye be.

INFINITIVES. — To be.        To have been.
PARTICIPLES. — Being.        Having been.

Synopsis of the verb be, with thou.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou art.
Present-Perfect Tense, Thou hast been.
Past Tense, Thou wert, or wert.
Past-Perfect Tense, Thou hadst been.
Future Tense, Thou shalt or wilt be.
Future-Perfect Tense, Thou shalt or wilt have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, If thou be.
Past Tense, If thou wert; or, Wert thou.
Past-Perfect Tense, If thou hadst been; or, Hadst thou been.

*If thou wert,* and *If thou had been,* are sometimes used by good writers.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must be.
Present-Perfect Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must have been.
Past Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
Past-Perfect Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Be thou; or, Do thou be.

171. The regular verb *ROW* is conjugated thus:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Row, rowed, rowing, rowed.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Singular. Plural.
1. I row,       1. We row,
2. You row,     2. You row,
3. He rows; 3. They row.

LET the verbs love, rule, permit, carry, strike, and see, be now con-
gugated in the same way by other members of the class. So, in each fol-
lowing case.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Do, combined with the present infinitive,*

1. I do row,
2. You do row,
3. He does row;

* The infinitive, in combining with auxiliary verbs, drops the sign o.
### ENGLISH GRAMMAR

#### Past Tense

**Singular**
1. I rowed, 1. We rowed,
2. You rowed, 2. You rowed,
3. He rowed; 3. They rowed.

**Plural**
1. We rowed,
2. You rowed,
3. They rowed.

**Emphatic Form**
Did, combined with the present infinitive.
1. I did row, 1. We did row,
2. You did row, 2. You did row,
3. He did row; 3. They did row.

**Present-Perfect Tense**
Have, combined with the perfect participle.
1. I have rowed, 1. We have rowed,
2. You have rowed, 2. You have rowed,
3. He has rowed; 3. They have rowed.

*In the solemn style, hath, roauthorized, and doth row, are used for has, rows, and did row.*

**Past-Perfect Tense**
Had, combined with the perfect participle.
1. I had rowed, 1. We had rowed,
2. You had rowed, 2. You had rowed,
3. He had rowed; 3. They had rowed.

**Future Tense**
Shall or will, combined with the present infinitive.
Simple futurity; foretelling.
1. I shall row, 1. We shall row,
2. You will row, 2. You will row,
3. He will row; 3. They will row.

**Emphatic Form**
1. If I row,
2. If you row,
3. If he row;

#### Future-Perfect Tense
Shall or will, combined with the perfect infinitive.
Simple futurity; foretelling.
1. If I shall row,
2. If you shall row,
3. If he shall row;

**Subjunctive Mood**
The tenses of the subjunctive mood are formed like those of the indicative.

**Present Tense**
1. If I row,
2. If you row,
3. If he row;

**Emphatic Form**
1. If I did row,
2. If you did row,
3. If he did row;

**Past Tense**
1. If I rowed,
2. If you rowed,
3. If he rowed.

**Emphatic Form**
1. If I did row,
Past-Perfect Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I had rowed,</td>
<td>1. If we had rowed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If you had rowed,</td>
<td>2. If you had rowed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If he had rowed;</td>
<td>3. If they had rowed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Or thus: —


POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

May, can, or must, combined with the present infinitive.

1. I may row, 1. We may row, 2. You may row, 2. You may row, 3. He may row; 3. They may row.

Present-Perfect Tense.

May, can, or must, combined with the perfect infinitive.

1. I may have rowed, 1. We may have rowed, 2. You may have rowed, 2. You may have rowed, 3. He may have rowed; 3. They may have rowed.

In the same way conjugate must have rowed.

Past Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive.

1. I might row, 1. We might row, 2. You might row, 2. You might row, 3. He might row; 3. They might row.

In the same way conjugate could row, would row, and should row.
POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense*, Thou mayst, canst, or must row.

*Present-Perfect Tense*, Thou mayst, canst, or must have rowed.

*Past Tense*, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst row.

*Past-Perfect Tense*, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have rowed.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense*, Row thou; or, Do thou row.

In like manner give the synopsis of the verb *love*; with *thou* through all the moods; — with *he*; — with *they*.

In like manner give the synopsis of the verb *see*; with *I*; — with *he*; — with *they*.

THE PASSIVE FORM AND THE PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB ROW.

The passive or the progressive form of any tense consists of the corresponding tense of the verb *be*, combined with the simple perfect or present participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive</th>
<th>Progressive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am</td>
<td>rowed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are</td>
<td>rowed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He is</td>
<td>rowed;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. We are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. They are</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pupil should first conjugate the verb *be*, through both numbers; then the passive verb, and then the verb in the progressive form.
Promise, threat, or determination.

**Singular.**

1. I will be rowed, rowing,
2. You shall be rowed, rowing,
3. He shall be rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. We will be rowed, rowing,
2. You shall be rowed, rowing,
3. They shall be rowed, rowing.

**Simple futurity; for telling.**

**Singular.**

1. I shall have been rowed, rowing,
2. You will have been rowed, rowing,
3. He will have been rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. We shall have been rowed, rowing,
2. You will have been rowed, rowing,
3. They will have been rowed, rowing.

**SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**

**Singular.**

1. If I be rowed, rowing,
2. If you be rowed, rowing,
3. If he be rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. If we be rowed, rowing,
2. If you be rowed, rowing,
3. If they be rowed, rowing.

**Past Tense.**

**Singular.**

1. If I were rowed, rowing,
2. If you were rowed, rowing,
3. If he were rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. If we were rowed, rowing,
2. If you were rowed, rowing,
3. If they were rowed, rowing.

**Future-Perfect Tense.**

**Singular.**

1. Were I rowed, rowing,
2. Were you rowed, rowing,
3. Were he rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. Were we rowed, rowing,
2. Were you rowed, rowing,
3. Were they rowed, rowing.

**Past-Perfect Tense.**

**Singular.**

1. If I had been rowed, rowing,
2. If you had been rowed, rowing,
3. If he had been rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. If we had been rowed, rowing,
2. If you had been rowed, rowing,
3. If they had been rowed, rowing.

**Singular.**

1. Had I been rowed, rowing,
2. Had you been rowed, rowing,
3. Had he been rowed, rowing;

**Plural.**

1. Had we been rowed, rowing,
2. Had you been rowed, rowing,
3. Had they been rowed, rowing.
# POTENTIAL MOOD.

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Past-Perfect Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I may be</td>
<td>rowed, rowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You may be</td>
<td>rowed, rowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He may be</td>
<td>rowed; rowing;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present-Perfect Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. We may be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You may be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. They may be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In like manner conjugate can be and must be.

**Singular.**

| I might have been   | rowed; rowing   |
| 2. You might have been | rowed; rowing   |
| 3. He might have been | rowed; rowing   |

**Plural.**

| I might have been   | rowed; rowing   |
| 2. You might have been | rowed; rowing   |
| 3. They might have been | rowed; rowing   |

In like manner conjugate could have been, would have been, and should have been.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Be thou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Be ye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Be thou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Be ye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## INFINITIVES.

To be rowed. rowing.

To have been rowed. rowing.

## PARTICIPLES.

Being rowed. rowing.

Rowed. rowing.

Having been rowed. rowing.

The synopsis with thou is similar to the synopsis given on p. 78.

How many and what tenses has the subjunctive mood? — the potential? — the imperative?

What infinitives are there? — what participles?

In what mood and tense do you find do? — did! — done? — had? — shall or will? — that or will have? — may, can, or must? — may, can, or must have? — might, could, would, or should? — might, could, would, or should have?

Tell of what mood and tense, then conjugate throughout the tenses, beginning with the first person singular: —

I study. He suffered. We have lost. If we were. Were I
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

90

invited. Had I been invited. If I be not invited. They
shall have written. I say. We read. It may pass. You
should have come. We may have been robbed. I was
speaking. It is rising. Had you been studying. Do you
hope? Did she smile? If I do fail. If thou rely. Thou
art. Art thou? He forgiveth. He must have happened.

Predicate each of the following verbs correctly of thou; then of we, one
of they:

Am, was, have been, would have been, are deceived, had
been, do say, did maintain, gave, touched, cast, amass,
recommend, be discouraged, shall have been, will pardon,
may have been rejoicing, was elected, should have been
elected.

Give, in the order of the Conjugation, the infinitives, then the participles;
first in the active voice, and then in the passive if the verb can have the
passive voice:—

Move, rise, spring, degrade, drown, call, overwhelm, bleed.

COMPARISON.

172. To express degrees below the positive, we use less and least.

Positive, good; comparative, less good; superlative, least good.

Beautiful, less beautiful, least beautiful.
Worthy, less worthy, least worthy.
So, less so, least so.

173. To express degrees above the positive, words of one syllable are compared by annexing er for the comparative degree, and est for the superlative.

Positive, hard; comparative, harder; superlative, hardest.

Great, greater, greatest. Gay, gayest.
Small, smaller, smallest. Dry, drier, driest.
Wis, wiser, wisest. Sad, sadder, saddest.

While studying this section, the pupil should review the Rules for Spelling; p. 165

174. Words of two syllables that end with y or le, or have the accent on the second syllable, are also compared by annexing er and est.

Lively, lovelier, loveliest. Able, ablest, ablest.
Happy, happier, happiest. Polite, politer, politest.
Noble, nobler, noblest. Remote, remotest, remotest.

175. Other words of two syllables, all words of
more syllables, and sometimes words of one syllable,
are compared by more and most.

Faithful, more faithful, most faithful.
Active, more active, most active.
Industrious, more industrious, most industrious.
Diligently, more diligently, most diligently.

"The more nice and elegant parts." — Johnson.
"Homer's eyes were the most quick and piercing I ever saw." Swift.

176. Some of the most common adjectives and adverbs are not compared according to the foregoing rules, and are therefore said to be irregular.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ill</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evil</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>foremost</td>
<td>foremost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many</td>
<td>furthest</td>
<td>farthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>nearer</td>
<td>nearest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near</td>
<td>later</td>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>older</td>
<td>oldest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Up) upper, uppermost.
(In) inner, innermost.
(Out) outer, outermost.
(Uner) unter, untermost.
(Next) next.
(Later) latest.
(Older) eldest.
Elder and eldest are applied to persons only; older and oldest, to persons or things. Later and latest refer to time; latter and last, generally to order in place.

**Irregular Adverbs.**

Well, better, best. Little, less, least.

Badly or ill, worse, worst. Far, farther, farthest.

Much, more, most. Forth, further, farthest.

177. A word cannot be compared with propriety, when it denotes something that cannot exist in different degrees.

Ex. — Equal, level, square, naked, straight, here, now, one, two, dead, empty, four-footed.

178. Adverbs are compared like adjectives, except that they are more frequently compared by more and most, and that a smaller number can be compared.

Soon, sooner, soonest.

Early, earlier, earliest.

Wisely, more wisely, most wisely.

Wiseiy, less wisely, least wisely.

179. When a part of a compound or derived word is changed in form, it is generally changed in the same way as if it stood alone.

Boatman, boatmen. Good-looking, better-looking, best-looking.

Sailor, seamen. Long-legged, longer-legged, longest-legged.

Landlord, landlady. Overtake, overtook, overtaken.

Man-servant, men-servants. Undergo, underwent, undergone.

**Adverbs.**

180. Adverbs may be divided into various classes.

1. **Adverbs of Manner**; which show how, and generally end with ly.

2. **Adverbs of Place**; which show where, whence, or whither, or denote position or direction.

3. **Adverbs of Time**, present, past, or future: which show when, how long, or how often.

4. **Adverbs of Degree, Extent, or Quantity**; which generally show how far or how much.

5. **Modal Adverbs**; which show how the statement is made or regarded.

6. **Conjunctive Adverbs**; which modify and connect.

1. **Adverbs of Manner.**

How, well, fast, somehow, wisely.

So, ill, adrift, apart, foolishly.

Thus, else, headlong, together, sweetly.

As, like, otherwise, slowly, lovingly.

2. **Adverbs of Place.**

Here, hither, hence, yonder, away.

There, thither, thence, up, afar.

Where, whither, whence, down, ahead.

3. **Adverbs of Time.**

Now, ever, seldom, soon, to-day.

When, never, always, early, yesterday.

Then, often, forever, lately, to-morrow.

Adverbs of Number: Once, twice, etc. These denote time.

Adverbs of Order: First, secondly, thirdly, etc. These denote either time or place.

4. **Adverbs of Degree, Extent, or Quantity.**

Much, little, so, enough, partly.

More, less, too, just, chiefly.

Most, least, as, even, generally.

Very, quite, how, fully, somewhat.

Adverbs of Addition, Exclusion, or Emphasis. — Too, besides, only, also, even, especially, not.
5. Modal Adverbs.

Of Affirmation.—Yes, yea, ay, verily, surely, certainly, for, sooth, indeed, doubtless, truly, verily.

Of Negation.—No, not, no, nowise, noway.

Of Doubt.—Perhaps, probably, perchance, may-be.

Of Cause or Means.—Why, therefore, wherefore, hereby, whereby, wherewith, accordingly, hence, thence, consequentely.

Of Position.—There. "There was no one there."

There, when thus used, simply helps to position the words by enabling them to take a more emphatic arrangement.


When, while, as, before, till, whereby, where, why, how, after, since, wherever.

181. A Conjunctive Adverb is an adverb that usually connects two clauses, by relating to a word in one and forming a part of the other.

Ex.—"The seed grew up where it fell."

The seed grew up from the place on which it fell.

Where is thus resolved into two phrases that attach themselves respectively to each of the clauses; or it modifies both the verbs grew and fell by joining its clause to the former, to denote the place.


In general, at least, as yet, to and fro, long ago, in vain, at present, by and by, ever and anon, no more.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

A. "We went a fishing."

About. "To play about the house."

Above. "The stars above us."

Across. "A tree lying across the road."

After. "To start after dinner."

Against. "We rowed against the stream."

Along. "The cloud is glided along the border."

Amid, amidst. "The rogues escaped amidst the confusion."

Among, amongst. "Flowers perish among weeds."

Around, round. "Captain Cook sailed round the world."

As. "She lives at home."

As. "The sun sets at six o'clock."

Before. "The tree before the house."

To rise before day."

Behind. "The squirrel hid behind the tree."

Below. "The James River is very crooked below Richmond."

Beneath. "The chasm beneath us."

Beside, besides. "A large sycamore grew beside the river."

Between. "The river flows between two hills."

Betwixt. "He remained abroad during the war."

During. "He remained abroad during the war."

Ere. "He came ere noon."

Except, excepting. "All except him were set free."

For. "To sell for money."

From. "A branch from the tree."

In. "A pond in a meadow."

Into. "To step into a carriage, and then ride in it."

Notwithstanding. "He succeeded, notwithstanding the opposition."

Of. "The house of a friend."

On. "The picture on the wall."

Over. "The bridge over the river."

Past. "They drove past the house."

Respecting. "Respecting his conduct, there is but one opinion."

Since. "He has not been here since last Christmas."

Till, until. "He will remain here till next Christmas."

To, unto. "To go to the river."

Towards. "He came towards me."

Through. "To travel through woods and swamps."

Throughout. "There was sorrow throughout the country."

Under. "The earth under our feet."

Underneath. "Underneath this tall hearse the hero lies."

Underneath. "Underneath this tall hearse the hero lies."

Upper. "The sun was up."

Upon. "Upon the hill."

Upon. "Upon the hill."

Upon. "The hill was upon."
LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Learn the List, and show what terms are connected by each conjunction.

The teacher should explain the words, and the meaning generally.

And; co-ordinate. 
As; causal; subordinate. 
As: comparative; subordinate. 
Because; causal; subordinate. 
But; adversative; co-ordinate. 
Except; restrictive; subordinate. 
For; causal; subordinate, sometimes co-ordinate. 
Furthermore; copulative; co-ordinate. 
If; conditional; subordinate. 
Lest; cautionary or causal; subordinate. 
Notwithstanding; adversative and co-ordinate, or concessive and subordinate.

Notwithstanding, in the sense of "still, however," is co-ordinate; in the sense of "even if," subordinate.

Moreover; copulative; co-ordinate. It sometimes begins a paragraph.
Nor; disjunctive; co-ordinate. He said nothing more nor did I.
Or; disjunctive; co-ordinate. We must educate, or we must perish.
Provided; conditional; subordinate. 
Since; causal; subordinate. Since you have come, I will go.
Still; adversative; co-ordinate. He has often failed, still he strives.
Than; comparative; subordinate. 
That; final; subordinate. He studies, that he may learn.
That; demonstrative; subordinate. We know that the war is a calamity.

LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Then; illogical; co-ordinate. 
The cotton is yours; then defend it.
Though, although; sometimes what though; concessive; subordinate. 
"Though he owns but little, he owns nothing."
Unless; conditional; subordinate. 
"Unless you study, you must fail."
Whether; indeterminate; subordinate. 
"Ask whether he is at home."
Whereas; causal; subordinate. 
"Whereas it doth appear, etc."
Whereas; adversative; co-ordinate. 
"Such is party-spirit; whereas patriotism seeks only the good of the country."
Yet; adversative; co-ordinate. 
"All-dread death, yet few are pious."

The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are and, or, nor, and but.
The principal subordinate conjunctions are that, than, as, if, and because.

The left or first column of meanings will serve for quizzing; and the right or second, for analysis.

Co-ordinate conjunctions connect the parts of compound phrases or sentences; subordinate conjunctions connect the parts of complex phrases or sentences.

Two clauses, connected by a "co-ordinate" conjunction, make a compound sentence; and two clauses, connected by a subordinate conjunction, make a complex sentence.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS OR CONNECTIVES.

Both — and. "It is both mine and yours."
Either — or. "It is either mine or yours."
Neither — nor. "It is neither mine nor yours."
Whether — or. "I know not whether it is mine or yours."
Though, although — yet, nevertheless. "Though deep, yet clear."
If — then. "If you have no confidence, then do not venture."
As — as. equality. Time is as precious as gold.
As — so; equality. "As the one dies, so dies the other."
So — as; consequence. "It is so plain as to require no explanation."
So — that; consequence. "The road was so muddy that we returned."
Not only — but also. "He is not only bold, but he is also cautious."
Other, else, and comparatives — than. "No other than he."

183. A Corresponding Conjunction, or Correlative Connective, is one of a separated pair that connect the same parts.
LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

1. Of Earnestness in Address. — Oh!
3. Of Scorn or Pity. — Oh! alas! ah! alack!
4. Of Joy, Exultation, or Approval. — Ah! ah! oh! hey-huzzah! hurrah! bravo!
5. Of Contempt or Aversion. — Pshaw! — pish! tut! fie! poh!
6. Of Attention or Calling. — Ho! lo! heigh-ho! hullo! wh!
8. Of Interrogating. — Eh! hem, or h'm?
10. Of Laughter. — Ha, ha, ha! he, he, he!
11. Of Saluting or Parting. — Welcome! hail! adieu!

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

1. How many methods, in language, of distinguishing the sexes?
2. What is the first method? Always gives examples.
3. What is the second method?
4. What is the third method?
5. How are most nouns made plural?
6. To what nouns is the ending a added?
7. How are proper nouns made plural?
8. Give the plural of beef, leaf, half, boy, knife, and wolf; and tell us what is said of such words.
9. Give the plural of sum, child, bread, and swine; and tell us what is said of such words.
10. Give the plurals of brother, die, fish, genus, and peace; and tell us what is said of such words.
11. How are most compound words made plural?
12. How is a name that begins with the title Mr., Miss, or Dr., made plural?
13. What is said of the plural of foreign nouns?
14. What is said of the ending a?
15. Of the ending a?
16. Of the ending am or on?
17. Of the ending is?
18. Of the ending e or re?
19. What is the plural of fondly, bestialized, cherub, seraph, genus, and Mr.?
20. How are letters and figures made plural?
21. What nouns are generally used in the singular number only?
22. When may such words be used in the plural number?
23. Mention some nouns that are generally used in the plural number only.
24. Some that have the same form for either number.
25. When is a collective noun singular?
PART III.
CONSTRUCTIONS.

184. A Rule, in grammar, is generally a brief statement that teaches the proper use of words.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.—NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

John studies. I study. They study.

EXPLANATION.—Since John does the studying, there is plainly a relation between John and studies. Observe also that we cannot use objective forms, and say, "He studies? " There study? "; but we must use the nominative I and they. Hence the Rule.

Correct.
Albert is writing.
A cloud is passing over us.
The dog caught the robber.
Misers hoard money.
Money is hoarded by misers.
Care and grief injure health.
I am writing. He is writing.
She sings and plays well.
We have less than you [have].
Be [you] careful.
Come ye in peace here?
The man [who] is industrious, can earn what he needs.

Incorrect.
William and me* have learned the lesson.
Him and me are in the same class.
Were you and her at the party?
You did fully as well as me.
He is taller than me, but I am as tall as her.
Wom., would you suppose, stands head in our class?
Who made the fire? — John and me [made it].
Who swept the room? — Us girls.

* A NOUN or PRONOUN must be in the nominative case, according to Rule I. (Repeat it.)

RULE II.—INDEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

Rules and exercises.

Talent is full of thoughts; but genius, full of thought.
We sorrow not in them; but we rejoice in them.
Art thou that traitor angel? Have no hope.
Art thou he who first broke peace in Heaven? Some discussion arose in regard to whom should be sent.

Surely the teacher, if at all competent, can show the pupils how to go through the exercises in a clear and sensible way; and we shall therefore not encumber the following exercises with any more formulas.

The examples on the left should be parsed at some future time. To go simply through the syntax is sufficient for the present.

RULE III.—NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used independently or absolutely, must be in the nominative case.

Mary, your lives are in bloom. The rain having ceased, we departed.

EXPLANATION.—Mary is simply addressed, and something else is said; or the sentence would make sense without the word Mary, which is therefore said to be used independently of the rest of the sentence.

The noun rain is so used with a participle that it does not relate to any other word; and it is therefore said to be used absolutely, with the participle.

Correct.
Independent, by direct address.
Flora, it is nine o'clock.

Incorrect.
Me being sick, the business was neglected.

Independent, by exclamation.
Alas, poor Yorick! They refusing to comply, I withdrew.

Incorrect.
Him who had led them to battle was being killed, they retreated.

Absolute, with a participle.
Her being the only daughter, no expense had been spared in her education.

Incorrect.
There is no doubt of its being him.

Absolute, with an infinitive.
To become a scholar requires exertion.

(Better: "There is no doubt that it is he.") I have no wish to be him.
RULE III. — Possessives.

A Noun or Pronoun that limits the meaning of another by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case.

John's horse is in our pasture.

EXPLANATION. — Since John owns the horse, there is plainly a relation between John and horse; and it is also evident that not any horse is meant, but only the one which belongs to John. A similar remark is applicable to our and pastures. Hence the Rule.

Correct.

I will use John's book, and you may use Mary's.

Do you use Webster or Worcester's Dictionary?

Brown, Smith, and Jones's wife, usually went shopping together.

We insist on them staying with us.

His father was opposed to him going to California.

A participle that follows a noun or pronoun, becomes a participial noun, when the participle is the chief word in sense.

RULE IV. — Objectives.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb, must be in the objective case.

I shot a deer. We caught them.

EXPLANATION. — Since I shot the deer, there is a relation between my shooting and the deer, or between the words shot and deer. In the second example, there is as plainly a relation between caught and deer; and notice also that the objective case, there, and not the nominative form, they, will make good sense after caught. Hence the Rule.

Rule IV is also applied to infinitives and participles.

RULE V. — Objectives.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the object of a preposition, must be in the objective case.

The money was sent by me to him.

Correct.

A tree, full of cherries, stood before the house.

Who did you come with?

Wrong. Who did you send for?

Correct. A tree, full of cherries, stood before the house.

Come, go with me.

Who is that boy speaking to?

Correct. The money was sent by me to him.

I gave a melon for three pears and five peaches.

This is between you and I.

Correct. I gave a melon for three pears and five peaches.

Of whom did you buy it?

Who is that boy speaking to?

Correct. I gave a melon for three pears and five peaches.

I bought it of James.

This is between you and I.

Correct. I gave a melon for three pears and five peaches.

Give [50] him the knife.

I do not know who she went with. Who is it for?

Correct. I gave a melon for three pears and five peaches.

By reading in good books, you will improve.

By reading in good books, you will improve.

RULE VI. — Objectives.

A Noun or Pronoun that limits the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is sometimes used in the objective case without a preposition expressed.
RULES AND EXERCISES.

Mr. A., the true one, was here.
Mount Holyoke was in sight.
Thou, thou, art the man.
O Absalom, Absalom!
He strutts a dandy.
He was made captain.
They made him captain.
It was I. - Ye stars.
Who is he? (He is who?)
Who say ye that I am.
Whom do you take me to be?
It is easy to spend money.
It is plain that he must resist.

The morn is up again, the dewy morn.
With breath all incense, and with cheeks all bloom.

RULE VIII. - Two Cases.

The pronoun what, when it comprises a simple relative and its antecedent, has a double construction in regard to case.

I remember what was said.

What is, being here used for thing which or things which, is the object of remember, and also the subject of was said. Rule VIII is given merely as a convenience, for this rule can be dispensed with, by applying two other Rules.

Note 1. - A Compound Relative, or a similar expression, may furnish two cases, when its form allows them.

Whoever sins, must suffer. Take whichever horse you like.

Note 2. - What is used as the nominative to sins, and also as the nominative to must suffer.

Correct.
I will employ whomsoever you can not give you what you ask.

Correct.
Whatever comes from the heart, goes to the heart.
When the form of the relative does not allow the two cases required, it must take the form needed for its own clause, and an antecedent must be supplied in parsing; as, "Give it to [any person] who (soever) needs it." "To whomever needs it," would be incorrect.

RULE IX. — Pronouns.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, in gender, person, and number.

Mary has lost her bonnet.

EXPLANATION. — Her must be of the same gender, person, and number as Mary; for if it were different in any of these respects, it is evident that it could not denote Mary.

When the antecedent is a noun of the third person and singular number, so that it becomes necessary to choose either a masculine or a feminine pronoun, the masculine is preferred.

To ascertain what makes a singular or a plural antecedent, see what is said under Verbs, Rule XI.

Correct.
The boy and his mother.
The girl and her father.
The tree and its fruit.
The children and their books.
The people and their rulers.
The mob and its leader.
Theirs who came first.
Pupils, obey your teacher.
John and James know their lessons.
Neither John nor James knows his lesson.
Every heart best knows its own sorrow.
You are very sick, and I am sorry for it.
Behold the Morn in amber clouds arise;
See, with her rosy hands she paints the skies.
Wave your tops, ye pines.

Incorrect.
Every person has their faults.
Nobody will ever entrust themselves to that boat again.
She took out the ashes, and gave it to a servant.
If you have any victuals left, we will help you eat it.
Now, if any person ever pretends to have seen a ghost, let my little readers tell them the story of the pillow and the lame goose.
When a bird is caught in a trap, they of course try to get out.
One or the other of us must relinquish their claim.
Coffee and sugar are brought from the West Indies, and large quantities of it are consumed annually.

RULE X. — Articles, Adjectives, and Participles.

An Article, an Adjective, or a Participle, belongs to the noun or pronoun to which it relates.

The girl brought a large rose just refreshed by a shower.

EXPLANATION. — The, what? a what? What kind of rose? Observe that both large and refreshed describe the rose.

Articles.
A lily.
The garden.
An hour.
The guests.
An eagle's nest.
The people's rights.

Adjectives.
These apples.
Two apples.
Large red apples.
He is studious.
Cedar groves.

Participles.
Leaves falling gently.
Gates wrenched asunder.
Havinginned, I returned.
Being seen, he ran.
She went away singing.

Note II. — An Adjective that implies number, must agree in this respect with the substantive to which it relates.

This kind of melons. A wall two feet thick.

EXPLANATION. — Observe that this and kind are both singular, and therefore they agree in number. A similar remark is applicable to two and feet.

For the sake of greater definiteness, this Note, which is applicable to the adjectives this, these, that, these, two, three, four, etc., may be used in parsing; though the Rule can also be used in place of it, and it will be generally better to use the Rule.

Substantives is a general word, denoting either a noun or a pronoun.

Correct.
Ten feet long.
Nine cords of wood.
Three rods in width.
The first or second page.
The first and the second page.
The first and second pages.
We have been intimate friends these ten years.
It is, however, proper to say, "A ten-foot pole," "A five-cent savings-bank," etc.

Incorrect.
You have been playing this two hours.
How do you like these kind of chairs?
I never could endure those kind of people.
These sort of things are, very provoking.
He bought four cords of wood, and three tons of hay.
The inlet was two miles wide.
Learn the sixth and seventh page, and review the fourth and the fifth pages.
To Believe
The rose
The verb which will
A Finite Verb must agree with its subject, in person and number.

RULE XI. — Finite Verbs.

A Finite Verb must agree with its subject, in person and number.

John studies. I study. I am. He is. They are.

Explanation: — Since John does the studying, there is obviously a relation between John and studying. Observe also that we can not say, when speaking properly, "John stud.,", "I do", etc., but we must use with each subject that form of the verb which will agree with it in person and number according to the Conjugation, pp. 76 to 79.

Correct.
The rose is blooming.
The roses are blooming.
You were not at home.
Thou sittest in vain.
Believe (thou) and obey.
He that seeketh finds it.
There were two or three of us.
To write ten lines a day is sufficient.
That liars are not believed even when they tell the truth, is a just part of their punishment.

Incorrect.
I always learn my lessons before I go to school.
Circumstances alter cases.
The molasses are excellent.
Five dimes is half a dollar.
Six is too many to ride in the canoe at once.
There is five cords of wood in the pile.
Six months' interest are due.
Was you there?
I called at your house, but you was not at home.

RULES AND EXERCISES.

The agreement of the verb with its subject, and the agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent, make the chief syntax of the English language; let us therefore consider:

1. The person of the subject or antecedent.
2. The number of the subject or antecedent.
3. The terms relating to the subject or antecedent, which do not affect the form of the verb or pronoun.

1. PERSON.

185. When two or more nominatives or antecedents, differing in person, are taken together, or are connected merely by and, the verb or pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third.

"You and I," or "You, he, and I" = We, "You and he" = You.
"James and I have recited our lessons."

186. When two or more nominatives, differing in person, are taken separately, or connected by or or nor, the verb prefers the nominative next to it.

Ex. — "You or I am to blame"; better, either you or I am to blame, or I am. "Thou or thy friends are to make reparations."

Incorrect.
He or you is the cause of my trouble.
Is I or he to blame for it? Neither he nor you was mentioned.
On that occasion, neither he nor I were consulted.

2. SINGULAR SUBJECT OR ANTECEDENT.

187. The following subjects or antecedents are singular: —

1. A singular noun or pronoun denoting a single object.
Ex. — The fire burns. John is at home.
2. A singular collective noun denoting a group of objects as one thing.
Ex. — His family is large, yet he supported.
Incorrect.
There is a gang of deer.
Generation after generation pass away.
The army of Xerxes were conquered by the Greeks.
A committee were appointed to examine the accounts.
The Society hold their meetings on Fridays.
The fleet were seen sailing up the channel.

3. A plural noun denoting but one thing.
Ex. — The "Pleasures of Hope" was written by Campbell.
Young's "Night Thoughts" is a gloomy but instructive poem.

4. Two or more nouns joined by and, yet denoting but one person or thing.
Ex. — Yonder lives a great scholar and statesman.
Why is dust and ashes man? proud?
Golding's "Edwin and Angelina" is a beautiful poem.
To turn and flee was now impossible. — Irving.

5. A singular substantive, or a phrase of two or more, modified by each, every, either, neither, many a, or no.
Correct.
Every house was decorated.
Every tree, herb, and flower, shows the wisdom of God.
No rank, no fortune, no honor, makes the guilty happy. — Blair.
Fall many a flower to blight unseen. — Gray.
Incorrect.
Everybody are disposed to help him.
Every person are hereby notified to pay their taxes.
Each strove to recover their position.
Neither one are suitable to my purpose.
Everybody is fighting, and have been for several days. — Newspaper

RULES AND EXERCISES.

Every tall tree and every steeple were blown down.
Every leaf, every twig, and every drop of water, seem with life.
Every skiff and canoe were loaded to the water's edge.
No wife, no mother, and no child, were there to comfort him.
Many a man looks back on the days of their youth with melancholy regret.
Every twenty-four hours affords to us day and night.

6. Two or more singular substantives joined by or or nor.
Correct.
Tuesday, Wednesday, or Thursday, was the appointed day.
To forsake a friend, or to divulge his secrets, is mean.
Neither precept nor discipline is so forcible as example.
Nor eye nor listening ear an object finds. — Young.
Incorrect.
Either Thomas or George have to stay at home.
Neither Holmes, Forbes, nor Jenkins, were classmates of mine.
Riding on horseback, or rowing a skiff, are good exercise.
The violin or the banjo, played by scene merry old negro, beguiles the summer evenings.

3. Plural Subject or Antecedent.

188. The following subjects or antecedents are plural:
1. A plural substantive that denotes two or more objects, or that is plural in sense.
Ex. — The fires burn. The ashes have lost their heat.
Incorrect.
Has the horses been fed? There are two or three of us.
The victuals was cold. There is no things.
There seems to be so others included.
On each side of the river was ridges of hills.
Here is five or six barrels that you may take.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

What signifies fair words without good deeds?
There was no memoranda kept of the sales.
The book is one of the best [books] that every was written.
Such accommodations as was necessary, was provided.
He is one of the preachers that belongs to the church militant and
takes considerable interest in politics.

2. A collective noun that is singular in form, but plural in idea.

Ex. — The council were divided in their opinions.

Such a noun is plural in idea when we must think of the persons or things separately, in order to make the assertion.

Ex. — The majority are handsome, and of large stature.

That is, the individual members (Fusslers were meant) of this majority are so.

Incorrect.

The committee disagrees.
The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure.
In France, the peasantry goes barefoot, while the middle sort makes use of wooden shoes.
The public is respectfully invited.
The higher class looks with scorn on those below them.
All the world is spectators of your conduct.
At least half the members was present.
Five pair was sold. Fifty head was drowned.

Pair and head, when thus plural in sense without being plural in form, resemble collective nouns.

3. Two or more substantives connected by and, and denoting different persons or things.

Correct.

John, James, and William, [= the boys] are studying.
You, he, and I, [= we] are allowed to go.

To love our enemies, to mind our own business, and to relieve the distressed, are things often praised than practised.

RULES AND EXERCISES.

Mary and her cousin was at our house last week.
Time and tide waits for no man.

Hill and dale d oubt Thy blessing.

Where is your slate and pencil?

Is your father and mother at home?

In all her movements there is grace and dignity.

Four and two is six, and one [and six] is seven.

There seems to be war and disturbance in Kansas.

This and that house belongs to him.

Enough money and time has already been expended.

4. A singular and a plural substantive, or two or more plurals, joined by or or nor.

Ex. — The king or his advisers were opposed to that course, while neither the prince nor his friends were prepared to defend it. — Hume.

The plural nominative should generally be placed next to the verb.

Incorrect.

For the sake of brevity and force, one or more words is sometimes omitted. One or more persons was concerned.

Neither beauty, wealth, nor talents, was injurious to his modesty.

4. TERMS THAT DO NOT AFFECT THE FORM OF THE VERB OR PRONOUN.

189. The following terms do not affect the form of the verb or pronoun:

1. An adjunct to the nominative.

Ex. — The long row of elms was magnificent.

Incorrect.

Every one of the witnesses (testis) to the same thing.

Each one of the vowels represent several sounds.

Neither of us have a dollar left.
Either one of the schools is good enough.
A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.
Which one of these soldiers were wounded?
The sum of twenty thousand dollars have been expended.
A hundred thousand dollars of revenue is now in the treasury.
The mother, with her daughter, have spent the summer here.
The derivation of these words are uncertain.
Nothing but expense and trouble have grown out of the business.
Each one of us have as much as we can do.

2. A term in apposition, or a predicate-nominative.

Correct.

Love, and love only, to the loan for love.
The Bible, or Holy Scriptures, is the best book.
I was eyes to the blind, and feet was I to the lame.
His meat [food] was locusts and wild honey.
The people are a many-headed beast.

Incorrect.

Lafayette Place, or Gardens, occupy several acres.
Two parallel lines is the sign of equality.
The sign of equality are [consists of] two parallel lines.
The crown of virtue are peace and honor.
My cause and theirs is one.
The few dollars which he owes me, is a matter of small consequence.
Virtue and mutual confidence is the soul of friendship.
Twelve single things, viewed as a whole, is called a dozen.
Said the burning Candle, “My use and beauty is my death.”

3. A term set off parenthetically or emphatically, and terms excepted, or depending on a verb understood.

Correct.

This man (and, indeed, all such men) deserves death.
Our statesmen, especially John Adams, have reached a good old age.
The carriage, as well as the horses, were much injured.

The Twelve Virtue.
The few dollars which he owes me.
The crown of virtue.
The Two.
The man.
His meat [food] was locusts and wild honey.
The people are a many-headed beast.

Incorrect.

Our taxes, especially the military tax, is enormous.
The house, as well as the furniture, were destroyed.
He, not less than you, deserves punishment.
He, and not I, am responsible. I, and not he, is responsible.
It is not her beauty, but her talents, that attracts attention.

RULE XII — INFINITIVES.

An Infinitive depends on the word which it limits, or which leads to its use.

He is anxious to return.
The Passion off, to hear her shell,
Thronged around her magic cell.

The definitions are so arranged as to be easily learned.

Explanation. — To return limits anxious, by showing to what he is anxious, and is therefore depends on anxious, according to Rule XIII. To hear limits shamed, by showing for what purpose, and is therefore depends on shamed, according to Rule XII. To be learned depends on, according to the last clause of Rule XII.

The infinitive depends on the word with which it makes syntax.

Note IV. — An Infinitive, a Participle, a Phrase, or a Clause, may be used as a noun in any case except the possessive.

To be without want is the prerogative of God only.
To be, with the remaining words of the phrase of which it is the chief word, if the subject of the verb is.
His being bloody was the cause of suspicion.
It is best not to have anything to do with him.
He knows when to purchase. He knows what to say.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

He knows when it is best not to purchase.
"Very good," replied the pendulum.

Next parse the separate words of the phrase as usual.

This Note can be dispensed with by applying the Rule of Syntax which is applicable to the case in which the word, phrase, or clause is used. When an infinitive or a participial sentence case, it may be treated as a noun would be in the same situation.

But sometimes the infinitive or participial is so intimately blended with other words that it seems absolutely necessary to take the whole phrase as one thing; and in such cases the Note is preferable to any of the Rules.

Note VI. — A Participle or an Infinitive is sometimes used independently, in the sense of a clause.

Generally speaking, young men are best for business.
We, generally speaking, would say, that young men are best for business.

But to proceed: it has been frequently remarked, that, etc.

But it is time to proceed, and therefore let us renew the subject thus:

Supplied words often vary the meaning, or make the sentence simpler. Hence the Note.

RULE XIII. — ADVERBS.

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

"The horse runs rapidly." Runs how?
"The horse runs very rapidly." How rapidly.
"The horse is very strong." How strong.

Note VII. — A Conjunctive Adverb joins a modifying clause or phrase to some other word.

"You speak of it as you understand it." Speak how?
"The sun had risen when we reached the mountain." How?
"Now, while it is cool, let us work." Point what?
"On it was a direction where to send it." — Swift.

Note VIII. — Sometimes an Adverb modifies a phrase or a clause; and some adverbs of addition, exclusion, emphasis, or quantity, may relate to any part of a sentence.

Dryden wrote merely for the people. — Johnson.
Not wrote merely; but merely for the people.
Just as I approached the jungle, the panther made a spring.

RULES AND EXERCISES.

Even as a miser counts his gold,
Those hours the ancient time-piece told. — Longfellow.

Even emphasizes the adverbial clause after it, and this clause modifies told.

A phrase or a clause sometimes has the meaning of an adjective or an adverb, and therefore an adverb may modify such a phrase or clause.

Note VIII. — Every philosopher can endure the toothache patiently.

Even relates to the subject of the sentence; and not related to the subject as modified by even. Some of these adverbs are a species of conjunctive adverbs, that relate to some part of a sentence, and at the same time refer it back to a similar part expressed or implied.

Note VIII. — An Adverb is sometimes used independently.

Ex. — "Yes, my lord," "No; I was not there."

RULE XIV. — PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition shows the relation of its object to some other word on which the adjunct depends.

A man of wisdom spoke. — The man spoke OF wisdom.

For explanations and illustrations, see p. 94.

RULE XV. — CONJUNCTIONS.

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

Weeds and briers grow in the field, because it is not cultivated. Here and briers to weeds; and because connects two clauses.

When a conjunction connects words or phrases, they are generally in the same construction as: "Mary, Jane, and Alice, went into the garden, and brought some large, ripe, and juicy peaches." Here the connected nouns are nominaitives to the same verb, the connected verbs or phrases have the same subject, and the connected adjectives qualify the same noun.

Note IX. — As or than sometimes joins a word or phrase to a clause, in stead of connecting two clauses.

But ever to ill our sole delight,
As being the contrary to his high will. — Milton.
Words can sometimes be supplied after the infinitive, so as to make two clauses; as, "Be so kind as to write to me" [would be kind]. But, in most instances, words cannot be thus supplied without varying or destroying the sense.

**Rule XVI. — Interjections.**

An Interjection has no grammatical connection with other words.

*Alas!* No hope remains. No hope remains.

**Explanation.** Observe that the sentence can make sense without the interjection *alas*; and that it is therefore used independently, or has no grammatical connection with the other words.

**Parsing.**

**General Formula.** — The part of speech, and why; the kind, and why; the properties, and why; the relation to other words, and according to what Rule.

**Articles.**

**Formula.** — An article, and why; definite, indefinite, and why; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule.

**Adjectives.**

**Formula.** — An adjective, and why; descriptive, non-descriptive, and why; whether compared or not, and why; the degree, and why; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule.

**Nouns.**

**Formula.** — A noun, and why; proper, common, collective, and why; gender, and why; person, and why; number, and why; declension; case, and Rule.

**Pronouns.**

**Formula.** — A pronoun, and why; personal, relative, interrogative, definite, and why; antecedent, and Rule IX; or, gender, and why; person, and why; number, and why; declension; case, and Rule.

**Verbs.**

**Finite Verbs.**

**Formula.** — A verb, and why; principal parts; regular, irregular, and why; transitive, with voice, intransitive or neuter, and why; the mood, and why; the tense, and why, with form, person, and number, to agree with its subject —, according to Rule XI.

Mention only when it is progressive, or emphatic, or passive without being passive in sense.

**Infinitives and Participles.**

**Formula.** — An infinitive, and why; its parts in each voice; present, perfect, and why; intransitive or neuter, and why; on what it depends, to what it belongs; Rule X.

1. An infinitive, used as a noun; its nature as an infinitive; its nature as a noun; Rule for nouns.

2. A participial noun; its nature as a participle; its nature as a noun; Rule for nouns.

**Adverbs.**

**Formula.** — An adverb, and why; of what kind; if it can be compared, say so, and how; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule or Note.

**Prepositions.**

**Formula.** — A preposition, and why; between what it shows the relation; Rule.

**Conjunctions.**

**Formula.** — A conjunction, and why; its peculiar nature; what it connects.
**Order of Parsing, Condensed.**

**Article:** definition; kind; disposal; Rule.

**Adjective:** definition; kind; sub-class; comparison; degree; disposal; Rule.

**Noun:** definition; kind; gender; person; number; declension; case; disposal; Rule.

**Pronoun:** definition; kind; sub-class; antecedent and Rule IX; or, gender; person; number; declension; case; disposal; Rule.

**Finite Verb:** definition; principal parts; kind in regard to form; kind in regard to objects, — with voice; mood; tense; form; synopsis; conjugation; person and number; disposal; Rule.

**Infinitive:** definition; its forms; kind in regard to time; kind in regard to objects, — with voice; disposal; Rule. 
*Infinitive, used as a Noun; its nature as an infinitive; its nature as a noun; disposal; Rule for nouns.*

**Participle:** definition; its forms; kind in regard to time; kind in regard to objects, — with voice; disposal; Rule.

*Participle Noun; its nature as a participle; its nature as a noun; disposal; Rule for nouns.*

**Participle Adjective:** its nature as a participle; its nature as an adjective; disposal; Rule for adjectives.

**Adverb:** definition; kind; comparison; degree; disposal; Rule.

*Conjunctive Adverb; as an adverb, it modifies the verb — in its own clause, by expressing — (Rule XIII); as a conjunctive adverb, it refers its clause to —, according to Note VI.*

**Preposition:** definition; relation; Rule.

**Conjunction:** definition; kind; connection; Rule.

**Interjection:** definition; kind; Rule.

---

**Parsing:**

A simple and comprehensive view of parsing may be presented to the pupil, in the following manner:

- **Proper Common**
  - Masculine
  - Feminine
  - Noun of the Collective
  - Common
  - Gender; Second
  - Possessive
  - First
  - Neuter
  - Third

**Singular Plural**
- Number; Case; Disposal, and Rule

It may be well for the teacher to apply the foregoing idea to every part of speech; and then to write the formulas upon the blackboard, so that they may be daily before the eyes of his pupils.

When a word belongs to some remote sub-class of a part of speech, it will be easiest for the pupil, in parsing, to begin with the largest class, and to descend until he gets to the class in which the word is found. Thus, tree is an adjective; definite, it specifies or limits; numeral, it expresses number; and cardinal, it tells how many.

**Exercises.**

A large tree spread its shade over us, and gently rustled in the breeze.

**Analysis.**

This is a simple declarative sentence, with a compound predicate.

The phrase, as large tree, is the subject; tree is the subject-nomina<ive, which is modified by the adjective large and the article a. The phrase, spread its shade over us, and rustled in the breeze, is the predicate; spread and rustled are the predicate-verbs, which are connected by and. Spread is modified by the adjunct over us, and the object shade which is itself modified by its; and rustled is modified by the adverb gently, and by the adjunct in the breeze.

When the subject or the predicate consists of two or more words, the teacher may allow the pupil to call it the entire subject, the entire predicate, simply to give a little more fullness or force to the expression.

The foregoing specimen of analysis is given rather in advance of the principles which we lay down under the head; but the teacher can easily explain what is meant; and it is probably best that the pupil's curiosity should be excited in regard to this subject, before he is required to study the principles as they are printed in the book. Beyond subject and predicate, the elements of Analysis can not be comprehended to any considerable extent, without a thorough knowledge of the parts of speech. Hence our arrangement of topics.
According to Rule X, an article belongs to the noun to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun; descriptive, it describes the tree; compared — positive large, comparative larger, superlative largest; in the positive degree, it expresses simply the quality; and it belongs to tree, according to Rule X. (Repeat it.)

Abridged. — Large is a descriptive adjective in the positive degree (pos. large, comp. larger, superl. largest); and it belongs to tree, according to Rule X. Large is an adjective; a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun; descriptive, it describes the tree; and in the active voice, because it represents its subject as acting; indicative mood; it expresses an actual occurrence or fact; past tense, it denotes simply a past act; (singular number — First person, I spread; 2d p. You spread; 3d p. It, or the tree, spread;) and in the third person, singular number — and in the nominative case — it denotes neither a possessive of its antecedent tree, according to Rule IX; (repeat it;) nom. it, poss. its; and in the possessive case — it limits the meaning of shade — according to Rule III.

Trees is a noun; it is a name; common, it is a name common to all objects of the same kind; neuter gender, it denotes neither a male nor a female; third person, it represents an object as spoken of; singular number, it means but one; and in the nominative case — it is the subject of the verbs spread and rustled — according to Rule I.

Abridged. — Tree is a common noun; of the neuter gender, third person, singular number; and in the nominative case — to the verbs spread and rustled — according to Rule I.

Spread is a verb, it expresses the act of a subject; principal parts — present spread, past spread, present participle spreading, perfect participle spread; irregular, it does not take the ending ed to transitive, it has an object (shade), — and in the active voice, because it represents its subject as acting; indicative mood; it expresses an actual occurrence or fact; past tense, it denotes simply a past act; (singular number — First person, I spread; 2d p. You spread; 3d p. It, or the tree, spread;) and in the third person, singular number — and in the subject tree, according to Rule XI.

Abridged. — Spread is an irreg. tr. v., in the active voice; principal parts, spread, spread, spreading, spread; indicative mood; it has an object (shade); — and in the nominative case; of the neuter gender, third person, and singular number; to agree with its antecedent tree, according to Rule IX; (repeat it;) nom. it, poss. its; and in the possessive case — it limits the meaning of shade — according to Rule III.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Nouns.
Fulton invented steamboats.
James the coachman is here.
George is a gentleman and scholar.
Johnson's cattle have eaten our grass.
Alice, bring your slate and arithmetic.
My mother being sick, I remained at home.

Infinitives and Participles.

A dutiful son is the delight of his parents.
Monday or Tuesday was the appointed day.

We were compelled to return to our camp.
We had a great curiosity to see the battle-field.
I am glad to see you. Let no one pass.
She is wiser than to believe his flattery.
The Indians fled, leaving their mules tied to the bushes.
The machinery, being oiled, runs well.
Not to love is unnatural. I insist on writing the letter.
I forgot to mention it. It is easy to find fault.
Of making many books, there is no end.

Read thy dooms in the flowers, which fade and die.
She who studies her glass, neglects her heart.
It was I that went. I am His who created me.
James reads what pleases him. What is he?
Who was Blennerhasset? Who is my neighbor?
Which is it? Who can tell what he may be?
The old bird feeds her young ones.
Others may be wiser, but none are more amiable.

Pronouns.
We caught him. He came with me.
Albert hurt himself. John, you are wanted.
Your horse trots well, but mine paces.
Say, Mine is used for my and horse. (Now parse each word.)

Your horse trots well, but mine paces.

Finite Verbs.
Birds fly. Bees collect honey. It was I.
She broke the pitcher. The pitcher was broken.
They named her Mary. She was named Mary.
Fierce was the conflict. I do object.
Tall pines are rustling. Thou art the man.
Be diligent. Were he rich, he would be lazy.

Proverbs.
The old bird feeds her young ones.
Others may be wiser, but none are more amiable.

Adverbs.
The trees are waving beautifully.
Blue and lofty mountains successively appeared.

Conjunctions.
We should improve our hearts and minds.
Death saw the floweret to the desert given.

The apples might have been eaten.
The lady may have been handsome.
Who are they? Every evil will be removed.
Martha and Mary have recited their lessons.
Eagles generally go alone, but little birds go in flocks.
If it rain to-morrow, we shall have to remain at home.
Though he is poor, yet he is honest.

Interjections.
Take, O boatman, thire thy fee.
Ah! few shall part where many meet.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.
190. Analysis, in grammar, is the resolving of a sentence into its principal and subordinate parts.
The most important principal parts are subjects and predicates.

191. Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its parts of speech, and mentioning their properties and syntax.*

THE THREE RELATIONS.
Almost the whole of what is usually called Analysis in grammar, is based simply on the three common syntax relations, generalized and extended. These are the predicate relation, the adjective relation, and the adverbial relation.

Predicate Relation.
Trees | grow.
Young trees | grow rapidly.
The young trees along the river | have grown rapidly this year.
Observe that the relation between trees and grow, in the first example, is the common syntax relation between nominative and verb. In analysis, we simply extend this relation over the entire phrase, so as to take in the whole sense. Hence, while trees remains the nominative in parsing, in analysis we make trees, young trees, and the young trees along the river, respectively the subjects. So, while grow remains the verb in parsing, in analysis we make grow, grow rapidly, have grown rapidly this year, respectively the predicates.

* The teacher should explain this word thoroughly.
194. Sometimes a sentence has, besides, an independent word or phrase.

Ex. — No, | gentlemen of the jury; this is not law.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

195. Every proposition consists of a subject and a predicate.

196. The Subject is the word, phrase, or clause, denoting that of which something is predicated.

197. The Predicate is the word or phrase denoting what is said of the subject.

Ex. — Bells tolled.

Full many a flower | is born to blush unseen.

That our life resembles a journey, | has been often observed.

198. Subject-Nominaive. Every subject must have at least one nominative, which is called the subject-nominative.

199. Predicate-Verb. Every predicate must have at least one finite verb, which is called the predicate-verb.

200. Every subject and every predicate is either simple or compound.

201. A subject is simple, when it has but one subject-nominative to the same predicate.

202. A subject is compound, when it has two or more subject-nominatives to the same predicate.

203. A predicate is simple, when it has but one verb that predicates an act or state of the subject.

204. A predicate is compound, when it has two or more verbs that predicate acts or states of the subject.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Ex. —

Roses | fade.

Roses and lilies | bloom and fade.

The subject-nominative is sometimes called the grammatical subject, and the predicate-verb the grammatical predicate; the entire subject is sometimes called the logical subject, and the entire predicate the logical predicate. The predicate-verb is, or any other neuter verb, is sometimes called the copula; and the adjective, noun, or kindred expression, which follows it, is sometimes called the attribute.

The subject-nominative and the predicate-verb are called the principal parts of the sentence; and the words or phrases which belong to them, are called modifiers.

The subject, or the entire subject, is the subject-nominative with all its modifiers.

The predicate, or the entire predicate, is the predicate-verb with all its modifiers.

205. A Modifier is a dependent word, phrase, or clause, added to another word or expression, to limit or vary the meaning.

Ex. — The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

The end of glory are modifiers; because they come to make sense when the word notes is removed, and they show what paths are meant.

A MODIFIER generally specifies, limits, explains, or describes.

206. Modifiers that belong to nouns or pronouns, are called adjective modifiers.

207. Modifiers that belong to verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, are called adverbial modifiers.

ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS.

208. A NOUN or PRONOUN may be modified, —

| By | 1 By an Article. “A servant brought the horse.” |
| 3 By a Possessive. “John’s horse.” “My slave.” |
| 4 By an Appositive. “John the soldier.” |
| 5 By a Participle. “Fields ploughed.” “Birds singing.” |
| 6 By an Infinitive. “Horses to be fed.” “A house to let.” |
210. The predicate-verb be, when it is followed by an adjective, a noun, or a kindred expression, is simply combined with it; rather than modified by it; and the latter term can generally be called an attribute of the subject.

The latter term is sometimes simply an explanatory or identifying term.

211. An adjective or an adverb may have the same kinds of modifiers as a verb, except not those modifiers which are substantive or adjectival.

212. A word may have several modifiers at the same time; and a word that modifies another, may itself be modified.

Modify we use as the most comprehensive term; but limit, describe, or explain, can also be used when more expressive.

From what has been said, we may infer that sentences are composed of the six following elements:

Two Principal Parts; Subject Nominatives and Predicate Verbs.

Two Modifiers; Adjective and Adverbial.

A Connecting Element; Conjunctions, Prepositions, Relative Pronouns, and Conjunctive Adverbs.

An Independent Element; Independent Nominatives, Interjections, and some Adverbs.

SENTENCES.

213. A clause or sentence is,—

1. **Declarative**, when it expresses a declaration.

   Ex.—John rides that wild horse.

2. **Interrogative**, when it asks a question.

   Ex.—Does John ride that wild horse?
3. Imperative, when it expresses command, entreaty, or permission.

   Ex. — John, ride that wild horse.

4. Exclamatory, when it expresses an exclamation.

   Ex. — Does John ride that wild horse?

214. Sentences are divided into three classes; simple, complex, and compound.

1. Simple Sentences.

215. A Simple Sentence is a sentence that has but one proposition.

   The subject of a simple sentence can have no clause.
   The predicate of a simple sentence can have no clause.
   The core of syntax, in all sentences, is predication.

   Soldiers fight.

   Analysis. — This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is soldiers, and the predicate is fight.

   Analyze and parse the following sentences:

   Bees were humming. Mary was chosen. We shall return.
   That fierce dog bit the stranger.

   This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is that fierce dog; the subject-nominative is dog, which is modified by the adjectives that and fierce. The predicate is bit the stranger; the predicate-verb is bit, which is modified by its object stranger, and this is modified by the article the.

   They moved slowly. Large elms adorn New Haven.
   She brought a small basket of delicious fruit.
   The mountain is covered with evergreens.
   We visited Rome, the capital of Italy.
   Our neighbor's bees have left their hive.
   The summer breeze parts the deep mazes of the forest deep.
   The old oak is loaded with a flock of singing blackbirds.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a relative pronoun, is complex.

   Ex. — The flowers which bloom early, die early.

2. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a conjunctive adverb, is complex.

   Ex. — When the sun rises, the dew glistens like gems.

3. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a subordinate conjunction, is complex.

   Ex. — I am convinced that you are right. — See p. 97.

4. A sentence that consists of two clauses, of which one is used in the sense of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, is complex.

   (This class includes all the preceding ones.)

   That he is guilty, is not evident. — Subject-nominative.
   It is not evident that he is guilty. — Appositive.
   Doubt whether he is guilty. — Objective.
   The impression is that he is not guilty. — Predicate-nominative.
"Religion is a support that will not fail." Adjective.
"Make hay while the sun shines." Adverbial.

216. A sentence that consists of two clauses, of which one is dependent on the other, is complex.
This class includes all the preceding classes.

Mary has brought a rose, which grew in the garden.
This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is, Mary has brought a rose. (Analyze this clause.) The dependent clause is, which grew in the garden; and it modifies rose, to which it is connected by the relative which. (Now analyze the clause.)

The evil which men do, lives after them.
When the sun rises, the birds sing.
All nations believe that the soul is immortal.
It is mysterious how an acorn becomes an oak.

In Part First, pp. 35-55, the teacher can find an abundance of sentences at all kinds and well classified. He should also write on the blackboard the formula for Analysis, given on p. 292 of Karl’s Common-School Grammar.

3. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

1. A sentence that consists of two clauses, connected by a co-ordinate conjunction, is compound.
Ex. — The way was long, and the wind was cold.

2. A sentence, consisting of two clauses that have no connective, is generally compound.
Ex. — Some ran into the woods; others plunged into the river.

217. A sentence that consists of two or more independent clauses, is compound.
This last definition includes the preceding ones.

218. A compound sentence may consist, —
1. Of two simple sentences.
Ex. — Life is short, and art is long.

2. Of a simple sentence and a complex or compound.
Ex. — I ventured; but I lost what I had invested.
I came, I saw; but I did not conquer.

3. Of two complex or compound sentences.
Ex. — He lived as mothers wish their sons to live;
He died as fathers wish their sons to die.
Times change, and men change;
But right prevails, and truth abides.

The world is made for happiness; but many people make themselves miserable.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two clauses. The world is made for happiness, is the first independent clause. (Analyze this clause, and the remaining one, just as you would analyze a simple sentence.)

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.
Man is the rugged lofty pine,
That frowns o'er many a wave-beat shore;
Woman's the slender, graceful vine
Whose clasping tendrils round it twine,
And deck its rough bark sweetly o'er.

Life is short, and art is long; therefore it is almost impossible to reach perfection in any thing. — Goethe.

Complex and compound sentences can be analyzed easily and thoroughly by analyzing their clauses one after another just as if all of them were simple sentences. The pupil may also state, as he takes up each clause, whether it is independent or dependent; and, independent, what word it modifies, and by what word it is joined to the main. This is probably the best mode of analysis for most pupils, especially young ones and beginners.
**FALSE SYNTAX, CONTINUED.**

All the remaining errors, in the use of language, can be reduced to the four following heads:

1. Too Many Words.
2. Too Few Words.
3. Improper Word or Expression.
4. Improper Arrangement of Words.

**1. TOO MANY WORDS.**

General Rule I. — No needless word should be used.

This here is my seat. That there is your place. That apple is better than this here one. I have got to go. You have got to stay. She is a poor widow woman. Where is William at? Their situation can hardly be conceived of. Our debts and our sins are generally greater than we think for. I was not able for to do it. Use some other similar word. My father presented me with a new knife. Women are governed by fancy instead of by reason. He died in less than two hours time. It is equally as good as the other. Mine is equally as good as yours. You hadn’t ought to do it. He hadn’t ought to go. Had I been there, I would have gone with them. His two sisters were both of them well educated. The neck connects the head and trunk together. They relate to each other mutually. He went away about the latter end of the week. The passion of envy and the passion of avarice are base. Give that what you can spare, to the poor. I have no doubt but that he will come. He then told us how that he had always been a Union man. From thence we sailed to Liverpool, by steamer. Whenever he sees me, he always inquires after my health. Whatever she found, she took it with her. If I mistake not, I think I have seen you before.

**This barbarous custom, and which prevailed everywhere, the missionaries have abolished.**

The relative is itself a connecting word, and therefore does not need an.

Her tears dropped and fell upon the face of her dying and expiring babe. A little flowing rivulet. Mr. Henry Felton, Esq.

UNDER PARAGRAPH 124. We made her to believe it.

If I bid you to study, dare you to be idle? To go I could not. You need not to have said, (Change the sentence.)

Special Rules.

1. A pronoun should not be added to its antecedent, when the antecedent alone would express the meaning better.

John he went, and Mary she went; but the rest they all staid at home. Henry Barton his book. (Rule III.) Mary Johnson her book. These loafs, if they had been sold sooner, they would have brought a better price.

2. When two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, only one of them should be used to express denial.

I will never do so no more. We did n’t find nobody at home. I don’t know nothing about your affairs; and I don’t want to know. I never said nothing about it to nobody. Death never spared no one. She will never grow no taller. I shan’t go, I don’t think. (Change the sentence.) Neither you nor nobody else can walk ten miles in one hour.

3. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided.

The office could not have been given to a more worthy man. A farmer’s life is the most happiest. She is the most loveliest one of the sisters. Nothing can be more worse. The lesser quantity I remove to the other side. The ending or, of the comparative degree, is equivalent to the word more.

After the most strictest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. Those were the least happiest years of my life.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

4. The article is commonly omitted, —
1. When a word is used merely as a title.
2. When a word is spoken of merely as a word.
3. When we refer to the kind generally, or to only a part indefinitely.
The highest officer of a State is styled a Governor.
The original signification of knave was a boy.
Reason was given to a man to control his passions.
The cypress is a curious species of a tree.
I have had a dull sort of a headache all day.
The whites of America are the descendants of the Europeans.

5. When connected descriptive words refer to the same person or thing, the article can generally be used only before the first of the words.
A white and black calf is one calf with two colors.
There is another and a better world.
My friend was married to a sensible and amiable woman.
She is not so good a cook as a washerwoman.
Fire is a better servant than a master.
I am a better arithmetician than a grammarian.
I would rather be a poor Solomon than a rich ignoramus.

6. Do not make transitive verbs intransitive, by inserting a needless preposition.
Pharaoh and his host pursued after them.
We had just entered into the house. Follow on after us.
His estate will not allow of such extravagance.
If you can wait till to-morrow, I will consider of it.
Many talented men have deserted from the party.

2. Too few words.

General Rule II. — No necessary word should be omitted.
White sheep are much more common than black.
He does not know you better than John.
Loves thou me more than these?
He did it for your and my friend's welfare.
He had fled his native land. What prevents us going?
The remark is worthy the fool that made it.
We ought not speak evil of others, unless it is necessary. § 194.
I have already done more than I ought to. I like[so live]up here.
Money is scarce, and times hard... (Verb wanting.)
He was a man had no influence. (Nominative wanting.)
She saw at once what was best to do. —

Special Rules.
1. The article the is frequently needed to show that all of a class are meant; and when connected descriptive words refer to different persons or things, an article is generally needed before each of the words.
The whites of this country.
Men who are indolent, generally complain of hard times.
A black and white calf were the only two I saw.
The white and black inhabitants amount to several thousands.
A beautiful stream flowed between the old and new mansion.
The sick and wounded were left at this place.

2. In comparison, other, else, or a similar word, must sometimes be inserted to prevent the leading term from being compared with itself.
That tree overtops all the trees in the forest.
He thinks he knows more than anybody.
Nothing is so good for a sprain as cold water.
No magazine is so well written as the Atlantic Monthly.
Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children.

Noah and his family outlived all the people who lived before the
3. Parts emphatically distinguished should be expressed with equal fullness.

Neither my house nor orchard was injured. (Supply my.)
Both the principal and interest were paid.
Not the use, but abuse, of worldly things, is sinful.
The young, as well as old, may sicken and die.
The hum of bees, and songs of birds, fell sweetly on the ear.
I would rather hear the whippoorwill than katydid.

4. A participial noun generally requires an article before it, and of after it; or else the omission of both the article and the preposition.

Keeping of one day in seven is required by the Bible.
This is a betraying the trust repos'd in him.
A wise man will avoid the showing any excellence in trifles.
A wise man will avoid showing of any excellence in trifles.
Great benefit may be derived from reading of good books.

3. IMPROPER WORD OR EXPRESSION.

General Rule III.—In the use of words, great care should be taken to select the most appropriate.

To lay; to make lie, to place. To lie; to rest in a reclining position. To set; to place. To sit; to rest. To learn; to acquire knowledge. To teach; to impart knowledge. To like; to be pleased with, to desire moderately. To love; to feel affectionate or very kind towards. To raise; to lift.

This, the nearer; that, the more distant; this, the latter; that, the former: this, something present; that, something absent.

Either or neither should be used in speaking of two only; any one, no one, or none, in speaking of more. Each other should be used in speaking of two; one another, in speaking of more. Less, size or number; fewer, number only.

Into, from outside to inside; in, inside only; at, indefinitely in or about; in, definitely within; between or between, two only; among, three or more; a taste of what is enjoyed, a taste for what we wish to enjoy, disappointed of what is not obtained, disappointed in what.

fails to answer our expectations after it is obtained; die of disease, by an instrument, compare with, for ascertaining merits, to, for illustration; attended by persons, with consequences.

Abhorrence of; accuse of; adapted to; agreeable to; aspire to; capacity for; correspond with, to; confide in; dependent on; independent of; derogation from; differ, different, from; difficulty in; diminution of; dislike to; eager in; enamored of; followed by; founded on, sometimes in; influence over; incorporate into, with, sometimes in; made of; meddle with; need of; occasion for; omitted from; prejudice against; profit by; quarrel with; resemblance to; rely on; reconcile with; swerve from.

He laid abed till breakfast. Lay down and rest.
We had laid on the ground all night. — Newspaper.
After laying awhile in this position, he raised up.
We were all setting round the fire. We set up late.
Won't you set down a little bit? I ain't going to go.
I love bread and butter. Can you learn me to write?
The business will suit any one who enjoys bad health.
I did n't go to do it. Carry the horse to water.
I have a heap to say. He is a mighty insignificant fellow.
I expect it rained yesterday. The garment was neatly worn.
He threwed the ball. I seed him. He knowed better.
Very many rivers empty into the Mississippi. — fioce
Four goes in thirty, seven times, and two over.
Corrected: Four is contained seven times in thirty, with two remainder.
It was not taken notice of. — was not noticed.
It was not made use of for this purpose.
She said our noise and romping must be put a stop to.
Such a poem is worth being committed to memory. (committing)
Whatever is worth being done, is worth being done well.
Dram-shops are now being closed on Sundays. (Omit being.)
The report is being circulated everywhere.

Never use a compound participle as a part of a finite verb, unless it is absolutely necessary to use it.

What is now being sold for a dollar, a bushel. — is selling —
The books are being printed. — The new church is being built.
I have done written the letter. I have done it. — already —
She is administrator. He married a Jew. She is a good singer.
She is a good singer; for singer is now generally applied to Birds.
Studying reading lessons is as important as studying any other.
A diphthong is where two vowels are united.
A diphthong is where two vowels are united.

Say, “A diphthong is the union of,” etc. for a diphthong is neither place nor time.
Fusion is when a solid is converted into a liquid by heat.
He drew up a petition where he represented his grievances.
Say, “-a petition in which,” etc. for where might seem to be a conjunction (verb) relating to whom.

So not let the dog come in the house. He came of a sudden.
He died with a fever. He died for thirst.
This is a very different dinner to what we had yesterday.
I have little influence with him. I live to home.
I left my book to home. His case has no resemblance to mine.
Please walk in the setting-room. His prejudice to our cause.
The soil is adapted for wheat and corn.
He was accused with having acted unfairly.
The sultry evening was followed with a storm.
I have been at France. I board in the new hotel.
The property was divided between five children.
I was disappointed in the pleasure of meeting you.

Special Rules

1. The pronoun them should not be used for the adjective those.
They boys are very lazy. Give them books.
What do you ask them peaches? Take away them things.
Let some of them boys sit on some of them other benches.
They are good packers. Them are my sentiments.

2. Adverbs should be used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs; and adjectives, to qualify nouns or pronouns.
She sews good and neat. Speak slowly and distinctly.
The work is near done. I am only tolerably well.
I never studied no grammar, but I can talk just as good as they that talk grammatical. I am exceeding busy. [way
We ought to value our privileges higher. I can write easier than Apples are more plenty than peaches. — N. Webster.
We landed safely after all our misfortunes.
Things look much more favorably this morning.
She looks beautifully in her new silk dress.

3. The comparative degree is used when two objects are compared; and the superlative, when three or more are compared.

The eldest of her two sons is going to school.
John is the oldest, but James is the largest, of the two boys.
Which is the largest number,—the minuend or the subtrahend?
Which do you like best,—tea or coffee?
Choose the least of two evils. This is the best of any other one.
China has the greatest population of any other country on earth.

4. The leading term of a comparison should not be compared with itself, nor included in that to which it does not belong.

Youth is the most important period of any in life.
These people seemed to us the most ignorant of any we had seen.
China has the greatest population of any country on earth.
That boy is the brightest of all his classmates.
That is a better-furnished room than any in the house.
That is the best-furnished room of any in the house.

5. Avoid all improper modes of expressing comparison or the plural number.

It was the curiosest thing I ever saw.
I think the rose is the most beautiful of flowers.
He is the awkwearest fellow I ever saw.
He lives in the farthest house on the street.
The valleys of California are among the most beautiful in the world.
We need two astronomers. All the Lee's were officers.—Swift.
We saw three deer in the wheat-field. Those are good mackerel.
His brother-in-laws were educated at the same school.

6. Words should not be compared, or made plural, when the sense does not allow or require it.

It is the most universal opinion. This is more preferable than that.
Virtue confers supreme dignity on man, and should be his chiefest desire.
A more perpendicular line. (A line more nearly)
It is not so universally known as you think. —so generally—
The farm is a long way from market. Make a memorandum of its:
By the same analogy, somewhere, nowhere, etc., are frequently used improperly:

Few persons are contented with their lots.
It was for our sakes that Jesus died upon the cross.
Let us go to the next house, and get our supper there.

7. A should be used before consonant sounds; and an, before vowel sounds.

As to vowels and consonants, see p. 152.
1. A word that begins with a long, eu, o, or as in one, or y followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, is regarded as beginning with a consonant sound.
2. A word that begins with u not equivalent to yu, with y equivalent to i, with silent h, or with a faintly sounded because the next syllable has the chief accent, is regarded as beginning with a vowel sound.

He had a interest in the affair. Such an one said so.
It is an useful exercise. He is a honest man.
Argus is said to have had an hundred eyes.
There was not an human being on the place.
A heroic deed it was. It is an universal complaint.

8. A or an denotes an indefinite one of several; the denotes the only one, the class, or a particular one of several.

He received only the fourth part of the estate.
Sometimes one article is improperly used for another.
An oak is a tree of great durability. That noble animal, a horse.
A lion is bold. A pink is a very common species of flower.
When a whole is put for the part, or the part for a whole, the figure is called synecdoche; as, gold for money, tea for supper.
9. The object of the active verb, and not that of the preposition, should be made the subject of the passive verb.

We were shown a sweet potato that weighed fifteen pounds.
You were paid a high compliment by the young lady.
Mr. Burke was offered a very lucrative employment.
Washington was given the command of a division. (To Washington)

10. The possessive case of a personal pronoun should never be written with an apostrophe.

These are our's. That is your's or their's.
Do not say you're, here, himself, own, or theirs, for yours, here, his, ours, or theirs.

11. The possessive case of nouns must always be written with an apostrophe.

This is the boys hat. Six months interest is due. §§ 160, 161.
A mother's tenderness and a father's care are nature's gifts for man's advantage. Men's and boys hate.
No one's ability ever went farther for others good. Page 68.

12. A compound word or a complex term takes the possessive sign but once; generally at the end, or next to the name of what is owned.

I will meet you at Smith's, the bookseller's. We used to read about Jack's the Giant-killer's wonderful exploits. These works are Cicero's, the most eloquent of men's.

13. A pair or series of nouns, implying common possession, take the possessive sign at the end, and but once.

Bond's and Allen's store is the next one above us.
Allen's, Thomson's, and Harcastle's store is opposite to ours. Peter's and Andrew's occupation was that of fishermen.

Bond's and Allen's store is one store, belonging to both men.
Bond's and Allen's store are two stores, one belonging to each man.

That one ownership allows but one possessive sign, that each distinct ownership requires a distinct possessive sign, and that the possessive sign should be placed as near as possible to the name of what is owned, are fundamental ideas that govern the syntax of the possessive case.

14. A pair or series of nouns, not implying common possession, or emphatically distinguished, take each the possessive sign.

John and William's boots fit them well. They took the surgeon as well as the physician's advice.

15. To avoid harshness or inelegance, possession is sometimes better expressed by of; and sometimes even the possessive a may be omitted.

Essex's death haunted the conscience of Queen Elizabeth. It was done for Herodias's sake, his brother Philip's wife. Such were Daniel Boone of Kentucky's adventures. He thinks his own opinions better than any one else's opinions—any one's else opinions—than those of any one else.
They cast themselves down at Jesus's feet.

When should who be used? When should which be used? See p. 67.

16. The relative that is used when the antecedent comprises both persons and things. Also after the superlative degree, after same, after the interrogative who, and sometimes after indefinite antecedents.

§ 163. Those which are rich, should assist the poor and helpless. So I gave the reins to my horse, who knew the way much better than I did. Of all the congregations whom I ever saw, this was the largest. The entire collection of persons is evidently regarded as our thing. This was certainly the largest congregation which I ever saw. The horse and rider which we saw, fell in the battle. I am the same as I was. I gave all what I had. Who ever became great, who was not ambitious? Was of these boys has lost a knife? § 164.
With the return of spring came four martins, who were evidently the same which had been bred under those eaves the previous year.

17. It is improper to mix different kinds of pronouns in the same construction.

Ere you remark another's fault,
Bid thy own conscience look within.
You have mine, and I have thine.
The poor man who can read, and that has a taste for reading, as find entertainment at home.
The man who came with us, and that was dressed in black, is the preacher. Such as yours, or which you bought. — or such as —
But what we saw last, and which pleased us most, was the farce.
Policy keeps coining truth in her mints, — such truth as it can tolerate; and every die except its own she breaks, and casts away.

18. It is generally improper to use different forms of the verb in the same construction.

Does he not behave well, and get his lessons well?
Did you not borrow it, and promise to return it soon?
To profess regard, and acting differently, discovers a base mind.
Spelling is easier than to parse or cipher.
To say he is relieved, is the same as saying he is dismissed.

19. What is forced upon the speaker, or what will simply happen to him, is better expressed by shall or should than by will or would.

Will or would generally represents the act or state as something desired or wished by the subject. — See also p. 76.

A foreigner, having fallen into the Thames, cried out, "I will be drowned, nobody shall help me."
We will have to take our coats, or we will suffer from cold.
Will I find you here when I return?
I was afraid I would lose my money.
If I wished him to come, I would have to write to him.

20. The past tense, and not the perfect participle, should be used to predicate, without an auxiliary, a past act or state.
The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used after be, have, and their variations.

I done so. They done the best they could.
He run all the way. I never seen it. He has took my hat.
The ground is froze. The horse was stole. My slate is broke.
The sun has rose. I seen him when he done it.
I might have went last Saturday, and I ought to have went.
He began well. I knew it. Mary has tore her book.
I knew he had wrote it; for it was wall writ.
The tree had fell, and its branches were broke.

21. Avoid needless passive forms, and generally the passive form of intransitive verbs.

He is possessed of great talents. We are agreed on this point.
My friend is arrived. He was already come.
What is become of him? The tumult is entirely ceased.

22. The indicative mood, in conditional clauses, expresses doubt in the regular time of the tense; the subjunctive mood expresses doubt or mere supposition, and makes the tense move forward in time.

(See pp. 19, 20, and 21.)

I wish I was at home. If it rains to-morrow, we shall not go.
He talked to me as if I was a widow.
If the book be in my library, I will send it.
If the book is found in my library, I will send it.
If the book was in my library, I would send it.
If the book were in my library, some one must have taken it.

23. The verbs of a sentence should correspond in tense, and also be consistent with the other words.

I have bought it, and now I have sold it. — See p. 20.
He that was dead, sat up, and began to speak.
2. Politeness usually requires that the speaker shall mention the addressed person first, and himself last.

I, Mary, and you, are to go next Sunday.
Mother said that I and you must stay at home.

3. Adjectives, adverbs, and adjuncts, must generally be placed as near as possible to the parts which they modify.

I bought a new pair of shoes. There is a fresh basket of eggs.
I only recited one lesson. (Only what?) He is considered generally honest. At that time I wished somebody would hang me a thousand times.

Wanted—a young man to take care of some horses, of a religious turn of mind. A lecture on the methods of teaching geography at ten o'clock. All that we hear, we should not believe. "Every man can not afford to keep a coach. "Please to sing the three first stanzas." (Apply the General Rule.) The two first fell covered with wounds. The two last classes have not recited. He is just such another man.

4. It is generally improper to place an adverb between to and the rest of the infinitive.

They were not such as to fully answer my purpose.
He had men enough to strongly garrison the fort.
We were to cautiously and quickly advance to the hill above.

5. When a part of a sentence refers to each of two or more other parts, it should be suitable to each.

It is different and superior to the old.
They might, and probably were, good.
He can and ought to give more attention to his business.
The reward has already or will hereafter be given to him.
Cedar is not so hard, but more durable, than oak.

Cedar is not as hard as oak, but more durable. Complete the construction of the first part, and leave understood that of the second.

It is different and much better than the old.
She is fairer but not so amiable, as her sister.
APPENDIX.

LETTERS.

219. Letters make syllables, syllables make words, words make sentences, and sentences express thoughts.

220. A Letter is a character that denotes one or more of the elementary sounds of language.
   Ex. - A, b, c: age, at, art; bubble; cent, cart.

221. The English language contains about forty elementary sounds, which are represented by twenty-six letters, called the alphabet.
   The letters are generally divided into the following classes:
   
   Vowels: a, e, i, o, u, y = i. Sometimes combined into:
   
   Diphthongs: ae, ai, au, ay, ee, ei, eu, oy, ou.
   
   Triphthongs: ea, ea, jean, tear, war.

   Letters.
   
   Mutes: b, p; d, t; k, g, c hard, and g hard.
   S nasal vowels: f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, z.
   Consonants:
   
   c soft, g soft, and w and y beginning a vowel sound.
   Liquids: l, m, n, r, and probably s and z.

222. A Vowel is a letter that denotes pure tone.

223. A Consonant is a letter that can not be fully uttered without the aid of a vowel sound.

ACCENT.

224. Accent is a stress of voice on a certain syllable of a word.
   Ex. - Gar-den, a-muse'; an en-trance, to en-trance.
   "An au-gust procession in the month of Au-gust."
   Accent belongs only to words of two or more syllables.

225. Words of three or more syllables generally have a chief accent, called the primary accent; and one or more inferior accents, called the secondary accent or accents.
   Ex. - Lu-mi-nar-y, an-to-ce-dent, in-com-ple-xi-ty.

226. The penult syllable of a word is the second syllable from the end; and the antepenult is the third syllable from the end.
   Penult: Con-quest, ap-tor-nay, dis-a-gree-ment.
   Antepenult: Tem-per-a, mu-ta-bil-i-ty; Jer-su-lam.
   Most words used in our language have the chief accent either on the penult or else on the antepenult.

SYLLABLES.

227. A Syllable is a letter, or a union of letters, pronounced as one unbroken sound.
   Ex. - A, on, no, stretched, a-ri-el, pro-fusion.

228. In dividing words into syllables, we should give to every syllable precisely those letters which the correct pronunciation gives to it.
   Divide into syllables:
   
   Artery, varnish, blanket, extraordinary, monkey, often, unserviceable, grafter, felony, felonious, picture, active, waiter, Boston, Diana.
WORDS.

229. A Word is a syllable, or a union of syllables, used as the sign of some idea.

Ex. — Man, horse, pink, green, strikes, down, because.

230. Words are divided, according to their number of syllables, into monosyllables, disyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables.

A monosyllable is a word of one syllable. Act.
A disyllable is a word of two syllables. Active.
A trisyllable is a word of three syllables. Activity.
A polysyllable is a word of four or more syllables. Activities.

231. Words are divided, according to their formation, into primitive, derivative, and compound.

A primitive word is not formed from another word. Breeze.
A derivative word is formed from another word. Breezy.
A compound word is composed of two or more words. Sea-Breeze.

232. Words are divided, according to their use, into nine classes, called parts of speech. — See p. 1.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

233. Spelling is the art of expressing words by their right letters, properly arranged. This art must be learned chiefly from spelling-books, dictionaries, and observation in reading.

Rule I. — Doubling.

Words of one syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel; and words of more syllables, ending in the same way, with the accent fixed on the last syllable, — double the consonant before a vowel in the derivative word.

Ex. — Sad, saddler, saddest; rebel, rebelled, rebellion; rob, robber; win, winning; top, toppled; drum, drummer; up, upper; aim, admittance; quiz, quizzed.

U, after g, is a consonant, equivalent to the consonant w.

In other cases, no doubling takes place.

Ex. — Seal, sealed; gild, gilded; hard, harder; infer, (inferred), inference; bigot, bigoted; tax, taxed. X final = two consonants, ks or gs; therefore, never doubled.

There is a difference between ripping and ridding, planning and planning, latter and better.

Good writers sometimes double l, contrary to the Rule above.
Ex. — “Traveller” — Prescott, Bryant; “caroled” — Irving.

Rule II. — Final Y.

Final Y, preceded by a consonant and followed by any letter except i, is changed into i in the derivative word.

Ex. — Fly, flies; glory, glories, glorify; glorified, glorifying, glorification; try, tried; pretty, prettier, prettiest; merry, merrily, merriment; pity, pitiful; ivy, ivied.

Exceptions: Most derivatives of sly, dry, and sky; as, dryly.

Final Y, preceded by a vowel, or followed by i, remains unchanged in the derivative word.

Ex. — Chimney, chimney; gay, gayer, gayest; crying, crier; destroy, destroyer; annoy, annoyance; joy, joyful.

Exceptions: Pay, paid; said, said; paid; said (remained) stayed (checked).

Rule III. — Final E.

Final E, when silent, is rejected before a vowel in the derivative word. But it is retained when needed
to keep c or g soft, or to preserve the identity of the word.

Ex.—Bite, biting; force, forcible; sale, salable; rogue, rogues.

Agree, agreeable; peace, peaceful; sing, singing.

There is a difference between dying and dyeing, sing and singing.

Final E is retained before a consonant in the derivative word. Sometimes it is rejected when not needed.

\[\text{Rx.} \]

- Base, baseless; definite, definitely; eye, eyelet; whole, wholesome, but wholly. Due, duly; true, truly; awe, awful; judge, judgment. (D softens the g, and renders the e unnecessary.)

- Base, baseless; definite, definitely; eye, eyelet; whole, wholesome, but wholly. Due, duly; true, truly; awe, awful; judge, judgment. (D softens the g, and renders the e unnecessary.)

- Base, baseless; definite, definitely; eye, eyelet; whole, wholesome, but wholly. Due, duly; true, truly; awe, awful; judge, judgment. (D softens the g, and renders the e unnecessary.)

Exercises.

**Rule I.**

Swimming, Witticism, Pining, Scarred, Scared, Scared.

**Rule II.**

Steam, Steaming, Pining, Scared, Scared.

**Rule III.**

Learned, Loyalty, Valuable, Gluing, Gluing.

**Miscellaneous.**

Airy, Alley, Tractable, Acknowledgment, Vying.

Starry, Reliable, Sedgy, Hoicing, Vying.

Propelled, Relying, Paroled, Truly, Truly.

Benefitted, Gayly, Patrolled, Fringing, Fringing.

**Derivation.**

234. Derivation is the forming of words from other words.

235. The elements of words, in derivation, are roots, prefixes, and suffixes.

236. A Root is the chief part of a word, or that part which receives the prefix or the suffix.

237. A Prefix is a letter or letters joined to the beginning of a word, to modify its meaning.

238. A Suffix is a letter or letters joined to the end of a word, to modify its meaning.

**Prefixes.**

- De, down.
- Re, again.
- Ex, out.
- Con, together.
- Un, not.

**Roots.**

- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.

**Suffixes.**

- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.
- Able, can be.

239. In making words from others, the parts combined are sometimes varied, for the sake of euphony, by a change, an omission, or an insertion of some letter or letters.

The last letter of the prefix must often be the same as the first letter of the root.

Ex.—Con-lect, collect; dis-far, differ; in-moderate, immoderate; co-operate, co-operate; dis-vulge, di-vulge; a-archy, anarchy; mucilageous, mucilaginous.

**Capital Letters.**

240. Small letters are preferred in all ordinary writing, except where capital letters are needed for distinction.

1. Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

2. Every direct quotation should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — Solomon says, "Pride goeth before destruction."
   W. They shouted, "victory." He answered, no.
   W. means that the sentences are wrong, and should be corrected.

3. Every line of poetry should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — "Happy the man whose early bloom
       Provides for endless years to come." — Trumbull.

4. The words I and O should always be capitals.
   Ex. — For I will not forsake thee, O, friend of my youth.
   W. He knew i was there. Such, o music! is thy power.

5. Every word denoting the Deity should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — The Almighty; the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost.
   "The hope of my spirit turns trembling to Thee." — Moore.
   W. divine providence; the eternal; the omnipotent.

6. Every proper name, or each chief word of a proper name, should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — Thomas, Susan, Monday, Boston, Amelia B. Welby.
   W. mary, george, march, saturday, kentucky, henry l. gaylor.

7. Every title, whether used alone or in connection with a proper noun, should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — Mr. Brown; Judge Holt; Alexander the Great.
   W. From capit. Jones; lord Byron; Joseph Allen, esq.

8. Every word derived from a proper name should begin with a capital, provided it has not become a common word of the language.
   Ex. — Columbia, American, Roman, Christian.
   But, damask from Damascus; daguerrotypes from Daguerre.

9. The name of an object fully personified should begin with a capital.
   Ex. — "Close to Ignorance was her daughter, Pride." — Swift.

10. The chief words of every phrase used as a heading or as a title, should begin with capitals.
    Ex. — "He called his book The Temple of Truth."

11. Any unusually important word, especially when it denotes the subject of discourse, may begin with a capital.
    Ex. — "Preserve the Union and the Constitution."

ITALIC LETTERS.

241. Italic letters, and sometimes small capitals, are used for emphasis or distinction.
   "Here I reign king, and, to enrage thee more, thy king and lord."

1. Italics are generally used to distinguish foreign words, and also common words when we speak of them merely as being words.
   Ex. — "He was secretary pro tempore."
   "Secretary is a common noun."

2. Italics are generally used to distinguish the names of boats, ships, newspapers, and magazines.
   Ex. — "The Neptune sailed yesterday."
   "This article appeared in the Atlantic Monthly."
   One line is drawn under a written word, to denote slanting of italic letters; two lines are drawn under, to denote small capitals; and three lines, to denote CAPITALS.

PUNCTUATION.

242. Punctuation treats of the points or marks used in writing and printing.
The principal marks of this kind are the following:—

The Period; which denotes the longest pause or a full stop.

The Colon; which denotes the next shorter pause.

The Semicolon; which denotes the next shorter pause.

The Comma; which denotes the shortest pause.

The Interrogation-Point; which is placed after every direct question.

The Exclamation-Point; which denotes great surprise, joy, or other excitement.

The Dash; which denotes emphasis or abruptness.

The Curves; which enclose some explanation or remark that can be omitted.

The Brackets; which enclose some correction or explanation that is generally inserted by another person.

The Quotation-Marks; which enclose words taken from another person.

The Apostrophe; which denotes possession or omission.

The Hyphen; which joins the parts of most compound words, and is placed at the end of a line when a part of a word is carried to the next line.

The Acute Accent; which marks stress of voice.

The Grave Accent; which shows a sinking of the voice, or brings out a syllable.

The Macron; which marks a long sound, as in longo.

The Breve; which marks a short sound, as in leo.

The Diacritic; which separates two vowels into two syllables.

The Caret; which is used in writing, to show where words or letters are to be inserted.

The Brace; which serves to connect parts.

The Section; which is sometimes used to mark the small divisions of a book.

The Paragraph; which shows where a new subject begins.

The Star, Dagger, and Double Dagger; which are used as marks of reference. Letters or figures are sometimes used for the same purpose.

The Hand; which directs special attention to something.

APPENDIX.

PERIOD.

243. The Period is put at the end of every phrase or sentence complete by itself, and not interrogative or exclamatory; also after abbreviations.

Ex. — John W. Ringgold, Esq., addressed the assembly.

COLON.

244. The Colon is used,—

1. As an intermediate point between the semicolon and the period.

2. After words that promise a series or statement, or something important.

That is, after a statement that ends with as follows, the following, thus, these, or other words suggestive of the same meaning; also generally after a formal address that begins a discourse or letter.

3. Before an important remark added to a sentence, especially when it sums up the sentence.

Ex. — The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
   And all that beauty, all that wealth, e'er gave,
   Await alike the inevitable hour:
   The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

SEMICOLON.

245. The Semicolon is used,—

1. To separate parts that have the comma, or parts that require a point greater than the comma and less than the colon.

Ex. — Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull.

2. To separate the parts of a loose series.

Ex. — Every thing has its time to flourish; every thing grows old; every thing passes away.
162 ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

COMMA.

246. The Comma is used,—

1. To separate the terms of a closely related series, or two such terms when the connective is omitted.

Ex. — Hedges, groves, orchards, and gardens, were in bloom.
   It was a dark, desolate region.

2. To separate contrasted terms, and terms of which a part in one might also be referred improp­
erly to the other.

Ex. — He is poor, but honest.

The troops landed, and killed a hundred Indians.

"The troops landed and killed a hundred Indians," has a different meaning.

3. To set off a word, phrase, or clause, that comes between other parts, and breaks their con­
nection.

Ex. — You will then, however, be in no better condition.

Moral culture, especially in youth, is of the greatest importance.

They set out early, and, before the dawn of day, reached the place Columbus, who was a Genoese, discovered America.

4. To set off a modifying word or phrase that is not closely connected with what it modifies, or is removed from it by inversion.

Ex. — "In a central region, midway on the continent, though somewhat nearer the Pacific than the Atlantic ocean, at an elevation of nearly seven thousand five hundred feet, lies the remark­able valley of Mexico, encircled by a colossal rampart of the hardest rocks, and forming a circumference of about sixty-seven leagues, with a sky of the deepest blue, a serene atmosphere, and a magnifi­
cent landscape." — Prescott. (Lies where? What kind of valley?) Hence, also, loose appositive words or phrases are set off; as, "Such was Tecumseh, the celebrated Indian warrior."

5. To set off words or phrases used independently or absolutely.

Ex. — This book, Mary, is yours. O, yes, sir, I do know.
   Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

6. To separate the predicate from its subject, when the subject is very long, has a clause, or consists of punctuated parts.

Ex. — That one bad example spoils many good precepts, is true.
   Neither time nor distance, neither weal nor woe, can separate us.

7. To separate clauses that are neither very closely nor very loosely connected.

Ex. — There mountains rise, and circling oceans flow.
If Homer was the greater genius, Virgil was the better artist.
We next went to London, which is the largest city in the world.

DASH.

247. The Dash is used,—

1. To show omission caused by interruption.

Ex. — "HERE LIES THE GREAT" — False marble! where?

2. To show emphasis or suppressed feeling, or to show an unexpected turn in thought or style.

Ex. — The pulse fluttered — stopped — went on — throbbed — stopped again — moved — stopped.
   This world, 'tis true, was made for Cesar — but for Titus too.

3. To set off a parenthesis, especially when emphatic, or when there are other points within it.

Ex. — He was dressed — and, indeed, so were they nearly all — in coarse homespun.

4. Before echoes, or where that is or namely is understood.

Ex. — They were governed by the worst passions, — malice and revenge.
The dash is also used after side-heads, and generally before authorities when in the same line with the end of the paragraph. (The teacher should explain what is meant.)

For exercises in punctuation, let the reading-books be used. The pupil may give rules for the points which he finds; and he may also be required to capitalize and punctuate paragraphs transcribed without capitals or points.

**SUMMARY.**

**GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.**

248. Grammar is the science which teaches how to speak and write correctly.

249. English Grammar is the science which teaches how to speak and write the English language correctly.

250. English Grammar is divided into five parts; Pronunciation, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

251. Pronunciation treats of the sounds and classification of letters, and of the sounds and stress of syllables in uttering separate words.

252. Orthography treats of the forms of letters, and teaches how to spell words correctly.

253. Etymology treats of the derivation, classes, and properties of words.

254. Syntax treats of the relations and arrangement of words in sentences.

255. Prosody treats of figures, versification, utterance, and punctuation.

The teacher should explain the foregoing section.

The pupil who wishes to obtain a more thorough and scientific knowledge of all that is taught in this book, should now study Earl’s Common-School Grammar.

**QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.**

1. Repeat Rule 1st;— 2d:— 3d:— 4th:— 5th:— 6th:— 7th:— 8th:— 9th:— 10th:— 11th:— 12th:— 13th:— 14th:— 15th:— 16th.

2. Repeat Note 1st;— 2d:— 3d:— 4th:— 5th:— 6th:— 7th:— 8th:— 9th.

3. Give the general formula for parsing.

4. Give the formula for parsing an article;— an adjective;— a noun;— a pronoun;— a finite verb;— an infinitive;— a participle;— an adverb;— a preposition;— a conjunction;— an interjection.

5. What is Analysis? . . 190

6. What is Parsing? . . 191

7. On what three chief relations of words is Analysis based?

8. What are the elements of sentences? . . 192

9. Into what six classes can these be divided? Page 191

10. Into what can all sentences be resolved? . . § 193

11. What is said of independent words or phrases? . . 194

12. Of what two parts must every clause or proposition consist? . . 195

13. What is the subject? . . 196

14. What is the predicate? . . 197

15. What is the subject-nominal? . . 198

16. What is the predicate-nominal? . . 199

17. How are subjects and predicates classified? . . 200

18. Define these classes.

19. What is a modifier? . . 201

20. Which modifiers are called adjectives? . . 201

21. Which modifiers are called adverbial? . . 206

22. Tell, so far as you can, by what a noun or pronoun may be modified. . . 206

23. By what, a verb. . . 206

24. What is said of the predicate-verb be? . . 212

25. Of modified adjectives and adverbs? . . 211

26. Of modifiers? . . 212

27. When is a clause or sentence declarative?— interrogative?— imperative?— exclamatory? . . 213

28. Into what classes are sentences divided? . . 214

29. What is a simple sentence? . . 215

30. What is a compound sentence? . . 216

31. Give the preceding definitions.

32. What is a compound sentence? . . 217

33. Give the preceding definitions.

34. Of what parts or members may compound sentences consist? . . 218

35. Into what four great classes can all the errors in the use of language be divided? . . 218

36. What is the first General Rule? . . 220

37. What is said, in the special rules, about superfluous pronouns?— two negatives?— double comparison?— too many articles?— superfluous prepositions? . . 221

38. What is the second General Rule? . . 222

39. What is said, in the special rules, about the insertion of articles?— parts emphatically distinguished?— participle nouns? . . 222

...
WORDS USED IN DIFFERENT WAYS.

Many words are used in different parts of speech; as, "A black horse;" "To black boots;" "Black is a color." The first black is an adjective; the second, a verb; and the third, a noun. A man who cultivates the earth, is usually called a farmer; but if he should engage in the business of buying and selling goods, he would become a merchant; even so the same word, according to its use or meaning, belongs sometimes to one part of speech, and sometimes to another.

All is used,—

As an adjective. "All flowers must fade."
As a noun. "Not all that glitters is gold." [up]
As a pronoun. "Wealth, pleasure, and honors, must all be given"
As an adverb. "I am all alone;" i.e., wholly.

As is used,—

As an adjective. "As cold as ice;" "degree. Skate as I skate;"
As a preposition. "As an I entered;" time.
As a conjunction. "As [since] you have come, I will go with you."
As a pronoun. "Let such or bear, take heed."

Before is used,—

As an adverb. "I came before it rained."
As a preposition. "He stood before me."
So are also used alone, after, below, etc.

But is used,—

As a conjunction. "Not may gratify, but repentance stings.
As a preposition. "Wherein all but except him had fled."
As an adverb. "Words are but leaves."

That is used,—

As an adjective. "That book belongs to me."
As a demonstrative pronoun. "My opinion or that of another."
As a conjunction. "I hope that you will come."
As a relative pronoun. "The same flag that we saw before."

What is used,—

As a relative pronoun, with two cases. "Take what I offer."
As an interrogative pronoun. "What are you?"
As a responsive pronoun, with one case. "I know what you are."
As an adjective. "What news from Geneva?"
As an interjection. "What! take my money, and my life too."

40. What is the third General Rule? 90. What is a syllable? 221
43. What is the fourth General Rule? 44. What is a letter? 219
44. What is a letter? 219
45. Into what classes are the letters divided? 46. What is a vowel? 222
47. What is a consonant? 223
48. What is accent? 224
49. What is said of primary and of secondary accent? 225
50. What is a syllable? 221
51. How are words divided into syllables? 228
52. What is a word? 229
53. How are words classified according to their syllables? 230
54. Define each class. 55. How are words classified according to their formation? 231
56. Define each class. 57. How are words classified according to their use? 232
58. Define each class. 59. What is spelling? 233
60. What is the first Rule? 61. What is the second Rule? 234
62. What is the third Rule? 63. What is derivation? 235
64. What are the elements of words in derivation? 65. What is a root? 236
66. What is a prefix? 237
67. What is a suffix? 238
68. How are small letters used? and for what are capital letters used? 239