

Introductory
Lessons in
ENGLISH
GRAMMAR



By Wm. Henry Parker

PHILADELPHIA
ELDREDGE & BROTMER

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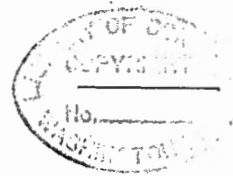
Analysis of the English Sentence.

BY

✓
WM. HENRY PARKER,

PRINCIPAL OF THE RINGGOLD GRAMMAR SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA. AUTHOR OF
A GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

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10991²



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PHILADELPHIA:
ELDREDGE & BROTHER.
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P35

OFFICE OF THE CONTROLLERS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
FIRST DISTRICT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

At a meeting of the Controllers of Public Schools, First District of Pennsylvania, held at the Controllers' Chamber, on Tuesday, May 8, 1866, the following Resolution was adopted:—

Resolved, That Parker's Grammar of the English Language be introduced to be used in the Schools of this District.

From the Minutes.

H. W. HALLIWELL, *Secretary*.

Philadelphia, May 9, 1866.

SERIES OF GRAMMARS

BY

WM. HENRY PARKER.

PARKER'S INTRODUCTORY LESSONS in the Grammar of the English Language. Arranged in simple style, and showing reasons for the classification of elements, words, etc., before giving the definitions. 119 pages.

PARKER'S GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, based upon an Analysis of the English Sentence. The plan and arrangement are philosophical, it contains a concise system of Analysis, tabular synopses of forms and uses, excellent models for parsing and correcting, and rules for the place of elements and words.

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1866, by

WM. HENRY PARKER,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

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M.S.C. Apr. 12, 1910.

PREFACE.

In the author's larger Grammar, the science is considered in all its parts, but the matter is necessarily very much condensed, so as to be included within the limits of a text-book for the use of schools.

This condensation is especially noticeable in the Analysis of Sentences, on which Syntax and etymological classification are founded. The portion of the book, therefore, may seem hard for beginners, and for those who have not had the benefit of instruction in Analysis, and who have been taught in what may be called the *empirical* method, in contrast with the scientific or philosophical method.

A more elementary book, omitting difficult constructions and all special rules, is needed for beginners, who can, after obtaining a general idea of the science, take up the larger and more comprehensive work more advantageously than they could if they had not studied the introductory lessons.

It is not intended that this work should be considered as containing the whole science of Grammar in condensed form. The subject is too extensive for a small book to contain even a sketch of *all* its parts.

Only the more important parts of Grammar, as usually taught in schools, are here considered, leaving for the larger work the consideration of Orthoepy, Orthography, Punctuation, and Prosody. Some portions of these divisions of Grammar are studied by pupils, from Spelling-books and Readers, before books on Grammar are put into their hands.

As a philosophical method of instruction requires giving the reasons for the separation of sentences, parts of sentences, and words into classes, before giving the definitions of these classes, and as teaching a collection of arbitrary definitions and rules, without first showing the motives and causes for making them, leads to senseless and burdensome tasks for the mere memory of the pupil, without any appeal to his reasoning faculties, much of the matter in this book has been prepared for reading and discussion by the teacher and pupils, and for introducing definitions and rules which should be committed to memory.

This introductory matter is not full enough to make the subjects clear to the comprehension of all pupils, and it is not expected by the author that any class of beginners will be able to fully understand many of the definitions, with the small amount of explanation that can be given in a text-book.

No book, however extended, can supply the place of the living teacher, and give to each pupil the precise explanation that he, and perhaps he only of the class, may need.

It would, however, be a great error to burden the memory of the pupil with the explanatory and introductory remarks and teachings of the book, or with those of his instructor.

For this reason the matter to be committed to memory and recited, has been printed so as to be readily distinguished.

To Teachers.

The lessons to be memorized and recited should include only the numbered paragraphs printed in large type.

These will be found to be the same, word for word, in the larger Grammar.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

In most cases, children learn to talk by the time they are two or three years old, and a child of three years of age can tell a great deal of what happens before him, and can relate what he does, easily and often correctly.

From the time that a child begins to learn to talk, he takes lessons in the right use of speech, and he learns from his parents and from other children, not only words, but the way of joining them to make sentences.

Many men and women often use words which do not express their meaning, and more often still, they use wrong forms of words, or join words that do not suit each other, and thus make incorrect sentences.

Of course, children learning from them learn their errors and imitate them, instead of speaking properly.

A child learning from those who speak correctly, does not always succeed in his attempts, but he sometimes makes errors; he should then be told of the error, and told how to speak his meaning in the right manner.

Very young children often, in their play, tell each other of these errors, and thus give and receive instruction.

In time, as they grow older, these children learn to read; when they can read easily, they may begin to read books which give them information about speaking correctly, as well as those on other subjects.

After learning to read, people learn to write; as soon as they can write words, they should begin writing their own words, and their own thoughts, so as to be able to write letters, or any thing that they may wish to keep, either to read again or to use in a written form.

Of course, reading and writing should be learned as soon as a child is old enough, or he will not have the use and benefit of these branches of knowledge, which may be called the keys to all other branches, during the time when the mind is most fit for learning, and is most impressible.

When a person speaks or writes his own words, he should be able to give his exact meaning in the right way, so that others may know what he means, without mistake.

To do so, he must know, not only the *words* to be used, but how to use them, and how to arrange them and put them together, and also what forms many of the words are to have.

There are books which teach these things: some only show what letters are used to form words; some show this, and give the meanings of the words; and some teach every thing else that must be known by persons, to enable them to speak and write correctly. These books are spelling-books, dictionaries, and grammars.

Whenever a person speaks or writes, he uses what is called *language*.

1. **Language** is the expression of thought by any series of *sounds* or *letters* formed into words.

2. Language is either **spoken** or **written**.

3. **To speak** is to express thoughts by words uttered by the mouth.

4. **To write** is to represent sounds or ideas by letters or characters, by means of a pen, pencil, or similar instrument.

5. **To read** is to peruse any thing written or printed, so as to understand it.

6. **To read audibly** requires the utterance of words that are written, with their proper sounds.

7. **Speaking** conveys ideas or thoughts by addressing the **ear**.

If man were without this faculty, language would not have existed.

8. **Writing** conveys ideas or thoughts by addressing the **eye**.

Men spoke, long before writing was invented.

9. **Reading** is the reception, by means of the **eye**, of the ideas or thoughts written.

10. **Reading aloud** conveys the ideas or thoughts read, like speaking, by addressing the **ear**.

11. The rules and principles by which language is regulated, form the **science** of GRAMMAR.

12. As an **art**, Grammar is concerned with the right use and application of such rules, in either speech or writing.

13. Language is composed, for the most part, of **letters, syllables, words, and sentences**.

14. *Letters* are the least parts of *written* language; *syllables*, of *spoken* language; *words*, of language conveying ideas; and *sentences*, of language conveying complete sense.

15. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the correct use of the English Language, and its analysis, with a view to its correct use.

16. **Analysis** is the separation of a thing into its parts, for the purpose of examining those parts and their relations, so as to understand better the whole thing.

17. **Synthesis** is the putting together of parts, so as to make a whole.

ANALYSIS.

WE converse or discourse upon certain matters, or we write essays, compositions, letters or communications, books, &c. All these manners of using language may be termed *Discourse*.

The above paragraph may be separated into three sentences; each of which has a complete meaning, and tells something. The first and the second are connected by the word *or*.

The three sentences are, when separated,

"We converse or discourse upon certain matters."

"We write essays, compositions, letters or communications, books, &c."

"All these manners of using language may be termed *Discourse*."

In each sentence an idea or a thought is *put forth* to be considered. The word *proposition* means *what is put forth*.

18. **Discourse** is composed of *propositions*.

In every proposition there must be something to speak of or to write about; and there must be something said or written about it.

19. A **proposition** is a *subject* combined with its *predicate*.

EXAMPLES.—*Men breathe; I live.*

20. The **subject** is that of which something is said, or told.

EXAMPLES.—*Men ——. I ——.*

21. The **predicate** is that which is said, or told, of the subject.

EXAMPLES.—*— breathe. — live.*

The subject and the predicate each are one or more **words**.

EXERCISE 1.

Select the subject in each of the following sentences or propositions.

Birds fly. Fishes swim. Lions roar. The wind blows. The leaves rustle. The sun shines. Birds are singing. Cattle are feeding. Flags wave. Men shout. The boys run. Children are playing. The streams are frozen. Visitors have come. He should have returned. She will remain. They will have recited. Africa is a peninsula. Victoria is the British Queen. John is a poet. Socrates was a philosopher. Hogarth was a painter. Henry might have been an engineer. He is not a foreigner. He has become a citizen. She is named Eliza. Mary is sick. The flower is beautiful. It is sweet-scented. The words have become obsolete. They are very affectionate. He has money. Joseph struck his brother. They are running a race. He may not have observed it.

In many propositions, words are joined to the subject to show more plainly of what thing something is told. In learning to point out the subjects of propositions, these added words may be disregarded.

The wise God makes the sun shine. Some good men live there. The poor child was cold. My pretty little bird sings beautifully. Frank's little brother cried. The old man's granddaughter had died. One cross old goose ran toward them. Seven little white pigs went past. How sweet the new-mown hay smells! A sharp-looking bustling little man said so. In a distant field stood a large chestnut tree.

EXERCISE 2.

Select the predicate in each of the following propositions.

The predicate often tells an act or condition of a person or a thing, or of a number.

Birds fly. Fishes swim. The wind blows. The leaves rustle. The sun shines. Birds are singing. The boys run. Children are playing. Visitors have come. He should have returned.

She will remain. They will have recited. Many will be disappointed. All cannot be satisfied.

In many propositions words are added to the predicate to show how, why, or where, what is told by the predicate is or is done. In pointing out the predicates these words may be disregarded.

The predicate often tells what a person or a thing is, was, will be, or may be.

Africa is a peninsula. Victoria is the British Queen. John is a poet. Hogarth was a painter. Henry might have been an engineer. He is not a foreigner. He has become a citizen. She is named Eliza. Mary is a sensible little girl. Raisins are dried grapes. Lucy is a good, kind girl. Little Dick was a gay, merry fellow. This is called mowing. That man was made a captain. He has been elected secretary.

The predicate often tells what kind of a person or a thing some one is, was, will be, or may be.

The flower is beautiful. It is sweet-scented. They are very affectionate. The sky is dull. He is young. Jane is eight years old. The brook is small there. The flowers smell sweet. They will keep fresh. Pussy looked very wise. It is strange. She had been very naughty. They all felt gratified.

The predicate often tells what a person or a thing does to some one or some thing, or it has words used with it in like manner.

Joseph *struck* his brother. I love you. His father plays the violin. This woman has a basket. Charles has broken the pitcher. The little girl holds a book. They are running a race. He has money. He may not have observed it. Boys should never throw stones. To play school amuses children. India-rubber makes a very light and smooth ball.

Here is a dog. There is your book. Where have you been? So I saw him first. It was a cold, winter day. Ice was on the pond. The trees were loaded with snow. It was growing dark. Tom sat on a little stool by the side of the fire. He could see to read. He read a story of winter. Trees grow on the bank of the stream.

The pupil must learn to distinguish between propositions, and collections of words which are not propositions, not having subject and predicate.

EXERCISE 3.

Point out the propositions in the following collections of words, and point out the subject and the predicate of each proposition.

For the first time. You may go, my boy. A dark-eyed, pretty little girl. Was very angry then. He can skate very well. It eats. Does not seem to be afraid. If you wish. She is reading aloud. It is noon. Toward the north. Will sting. Work. Any brothers and sisters. In the world. Thinking so. Henry then said nothing. Something must be done. Little white lily. A dear little girl, with blue eyes, curly hair, and merry ways. Your parents. Will soon be able to read. Half as much. Trees and churches and houses. About fifteen feet high. Sloped gently down. An affectionate, good-hearted, honorable man. In a minute. You were right. He must never know. She listened. That letter is for me. Stood looking at him. A row of fine houses. Five months and eight days. Wished it very much. Getting on horseback. Then another discovery. I rather liked it. Cannot remember any more. O my dear friend. There! So soon? Is he angry? Fourteen or fifteen thousand miles. A little after dark. I do not. This may not be true. But not so tall. In a cold prison house, in a damp cell, with no books but an English grammar and a Shakspeare.

SENTENCES.

22. **Discourse** is usually divided into *paragraphs*.

23. A **paragraph** contains one or more *sentences*.

24. A **sentence** is a thought expressed in words.

Sometimes a sentence is short, telling but one thing of one subject, without many words to limit or explain its meaning;

sometimes it has many words used to change, limit, or explain its meaning.

Sometimes a sentence tells something different about each of several things; and sometimes a proposition is used as part of another proposition, or with another to change, limit, or explain its meaning.

25. A sentence is *simple, compound, or complex*.

26. A **simple sentence** contains but *one* proposition.

EXAMPLE.—*Man is mortal.*

27. A **compound sentence** contains *two or more* propositions, of which each might be used alone.

EXAMPLE.—*You may go, but I will remain.*

28. A **complex sentence** contains a proposition, *modified* by one or more other propositions.

EXAMPLE.—*He will read, if you desire it.*

The modifying propositions cannot be used alone, to express a complete meaning.

EXERCISE 4.

State which of the following sentences are simple, which are compound, and which are complex.

He was there. I cannot believe it. What are your intentions?
Come.* Arouse. Sit down again. What are you doing?

Life is short, but art is long.

One comes, and another goes.

I did not say he struck me; I said he pushed me.

I heard him, and I saw him.

The blind see; the lame walk; the lepers are cleansed; the deaf hear; the dead are raised; and to the poor, the gospel is preached.

* In such sentences as "Come," and the two following, the subject is omitted; it is either *thou* or *you*; the subject is said to be *understood*.

Who is he, and what is he?

Stop, I command thee. No violence. Talk to him calmly.

If you will sit down by my side, I will explain my meaning.

If he should come, what would you do?

When our vices leave us, we flatter ourselves that we leave them.

As a great deal of practice is needed on every point of analysis, and as learners should be drilled on such sentences as they read and study, a few examples are taken from school-books.

If every lesson to be committed to memory were first analyzed, it would be much more clearly understood, and in addition to this, the learner would find his task easier, and would, at the same time, be gaining knowledge of the power and value of words, and gaining ability to use them.

EXERCISE 5.

State which of the following sentences are simple, which are compound, and which are complex.

Point out the subject and the predicate of each proposition, omitting all words used to limit or explain them.

From Hillard's Second Reader; page 72.

1. This little boy is playing with his foot-ball. He kicks it along the ground and into the air. Many boys can play together at this game.

2. They take sides, and each side tries to kick the ball beyond the limits of the other side; the side which does so, wins the game.

4. This game is played in the fall of the year, as it is then cool weather, and boys do not get too warm.

From Mitchell's New Primary Geography; page 30.

1. **The United States of North America** is that large country lying south of British America. It extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific.

2. It is chiefly settled by the English and their descendants;

Some sentences declare something, or tell some fact, others ask some question, others contain orders or requests, and others express feeling or emotion.— These kinds of sentences differ in the arrangement of the subject and the predicate.

36. Every proposition or sentence is *declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory*.

37. A sentence may include more than one kind of proposition.

38. A **declarative proposition** contains a declaration or assertion.

EXAMPLES.—Mary believes him. She does not believe that tale.

39. An **interrogative proposition** contains a question or interrogation.

EXAMPLES.—Does Mary believe him? Does she not believe that tale?

40. An **imperative proposition** contains a command, entreaty, permission, or exhortation.

EXAMPLES.—Mary, believe him. Do not believe that tale.

41. An **exclamatory proposition** is one uttered in such a manner as to show surprise or emotion. Its *form* is like that of a declarative or an interrogative sentence.

EXAMPLES.—Mary believes him! She does not believe his tale!

EXERCISE 7.

State which propositions in the following extract are declarative, which are interrogative, which are imperative, and which are exclamatory.

A GENTLEMAN, Mr. Chairman, speaking of Cæsar's benevolent disposition, and of the reluctance with which he entered into the civil war, observes,—“How long did he pause upon the brink of the Rubicon!”

How came he to the brink of that river?

How dared he cross it?

Shall private men respect the boundaries of private property, and shall a man pay no respect to the boundaries of his country's rights?

How dared he cross that river?

O! but he paused upon the brink.

He should have perished upon the brink ere he had crossed it!

Why did he pause?

Why does a man's heart palpitate when he is on the point of committing an unlawful deed?

Why does the very murderer, his victim sleeping before him, and his glaring eye taking the measure of the blow, strike wide of the mortal part? Because of conscience.

Point out the subject and the predicate of each of the sentences in the foregoing extract. Many of the answers are elliptical.

Select the different kinds of propositions from a page in a reading-book.

A Dialogue, or a passage of an animated style, of either prose or poetry, will be the most suitable containing the various kinds.

DIVISION OF PROPOSITIONS. SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

42. Every proposition may be divided into the *entire subject* and the *entire predicate*.

ENTIRE SUBJECT.

43. The **entire subject** names the thing or person spoken of or about, and includes all words descriptive of that thing or person.

EXAMPLES.—The third boy in the first class has recited all his lessons very well. And I, even I, Artaxerxes the king, do make a decree.

44. The same thing may be said, or told, of more than one subject.

45. The subject is **simple** when it consists of

but one word, or a set of words representing one idea.

EXAMPLES.—*John has read well. To play is pleasant.*

46. The subject is **complex** when words are joined to a simple subject to describe or affect it.

EXAMPLES.—*A little black dog bit him. To play too much wastes time.*

47. The subject is **compound** when the same thing is said, or told, of *more than one* simple or complex subject.

EXAMPLE.—*John and James have read well.*

John and James are here combined into one compound subject.

ENTIRE PREDICATE.

48. The **entire predicate** contains the word or words which say or tell something of the subject, and it includes all words which change, limit, or modify these words.

EXAMPLES.—*The third boy in the first class has recited all his lessons very well. And I, even I, Artaxerxes the king, do make a decree to all the treasurers which are beyond the river, &c.*

49. More than one thing may be told, or said, of the same subject.

50. The predicate is **simple** when but one thing is said, or told, of the subject.

EXAMPLES.—*John has read. You, who hear me, know.*

51. The predicate is **complex** when words are joined to the simple predicate to modify or affect it.

EXAMPLE.—*John has read very well.*

52. The predicate is **compound** when more than one thing is told of the same subject.

EXAMPLES.—*John has read and recited well. John and James have read well and conducted themselves properly.*

The last example is a simple sentence with a compound subject and a compound predicate.

EXERCISE 8.

Write the entire subject of each of the following propositions, or sentences; do not include any part of the predicate.

Fishes swim. Birds can fly. The wind blows. The air is cold. Clouds are forming. Mary must go home. John's brother is very young. The starry flag waves in the breeze. Man is an animal. Both rich and poor die. The surface of the earth is composed of land and water. One-fourth of twenty-eight is seven. Who is there? You cannot be allowed to enter. Who came? Who is he? May she speak to you? The Northmen visited America. I have a beautiful flower in my hand. Has the boy no books? How infinite is the power of the Creator! The ratio of $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ equals that of 2 to 1. "Where did the man live?" asked the colonel. "Yes, yes," answered John quickly, "no doubt."

EXERCISE 9.

Write the entire predicate of each sentence in Exercise 8.

Write the entire subject of each simple sentence, and of each clause of the complex and compound sentences, in Exercises 4, 5, 7, and 8.

Write the entire predicate of each simple sentence, and of each clause of the complex and compound sentences, in Exercises 4, 5, 7, and 8.

A sentence with a compound subject or a compound predicate, or both, is often equivalent to two or more sentences with simple subjects and simple predicates.

Complex subjects and predicates may be considered as mere modifications of simple ones.

Thus, "John and James have read well", is equivalent to the two sentences, "John has read well", and "James has read well".

"John has read and recited well", is equivalent to the two sentences, "John has read well", and "John has recited well".

"John and James have read well and conducted themselves properly", is equivalent to the four sentences, "John has read well",—"John has conducted himself properly",—"James has read well",—"James has conducted himself properly".

EXERCISE 10.

In the following sentences, show which subjects and which predicates are simple, and which are compound.

Write the simple sentences (with simple subjects and predicates) which are equivalent, inserting omitted words. Commence each with a capital letter, and end each with the period or other proper point. Alter the form of words when necessary.

Reputation, virtue, and happiness, depend greatly on the choice of companions.

To err is human; to forgive, divine.

The young should be diligent and industrious, and make a proper use of their time.

Diligence, industry, and proper improvement of time, are material duties of the young.

Will you go, or stay?

Is that a Grammar, or a Geography?

Doctor Blimber, Mrs. Blimber, and Miss Blimber all pressed forward to attend him to the ball.

The young gentlemen bowed and withdrew.

He was temperate in eating, drank sparingly, and usually rose an hour before dawn.

Change a passage selected from a reading-book into simple sentences, with simple subjects and predicates.

ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

We have seen that every proposition has a subject and a predicate; but unless the proposition is very short, there are other words than those which form the subject and the predicate.

The entire subject often contains many words which limit, explain, or qualify the simple subject.

The entire predicate often contains many words which limit, explain, change, or modify the simple predicate.

Sometimes the limiting or modifying words may be used *separately* with the simple subject; in other cases there are several which must be taken together to limit or modify the subject or the predicate, for, although each word has its separate use and meaning, the separate use is not to limit or modify the subject or the predicate.

Sometimes we find among several words thus used together to limit or modify, one used as a subject, and one or more used as a predicate, thus forming a proposition.

53. The parts into which sentences are divided in analysis, are called **elements**.

54. The **subject** and the **predicate** are called **principal elements**.

55. A principal element may be modified by **words, phrases, or clauses**.

56. Any word, phrase, or clause, which modifies another word, phrase, or clause, is called an **adjunct**.

57. A **word** is a number of letters written, or syllables spoken, used as the sign of some idea.

EXAMPLES.—*Is, word, number.*

Three English words consist of only one letter each; they are, *a, I, O*. Many words have but one syllable.

58. A **phrase** is a combination of words, not making a proposition, but having a distinct *use* in a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—**In the beginning.** He did it **for me**. He wished **to read**. **To play** is pleasant.

A phrase is used like a single word; it generally expresses a complex idea, which a word would not represent.

59. A **clause** is one of the two or more propositions which make a complex or a compound sentence.

An adjunct clause is a subordinate clause in a complex sentence.

EXERCISE II.

Point out the words which modify the subjects of the following sentences: then those which modify the predicates.

Point out the phrases which modify the subjects: then those which modify the predicates.

Point out the clauses which modify the subjects: those which modify the predicates.

Point out the words, phrases, and clauses, which modify other modifying words, phrases, and clauses; that is, those which modify adjuncts.

SENTENCES FOR EXAMPLES.

1. The bright sun shines.
2. The sun shines brightly on all.
3. The sun now shines brightly in a cloudless sky.
4. The summer sun shines brightly from a cloudless sky on all who are exposed to its powerful rays.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.

Words modifying subjects.

- | | | |
|----------|----------|------|
| 1. The | modifies | sun. |
| " Bright | " | sun. |
| 2. The | " | sun. |
| 3. The | " | sun. |
| 4. The | " | sun. |
| " Summer | " | sun. |

Words modifying predicates.

- | | | |
|-------------|----------|---------|
| 2. Brightly | modifies | shines. |
| 3. Now | " | shines. |
| " Brightly | " | shines. |
| 4. Brightly | " | shines. |

Phrases modifying subjects.

(None.)

Phrases modifying predicates.

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------|---------|
| 2. On all | modifies | shines. |
| 3. In a cloudless sky | " | shines. |
| 4. From a cloudless sky | " | shines. |
| " On all who are exposed to its powerful rays | " | shines. |

Words modifying adjunct words.

- | | | | |
|-------------|----------|--------------------|-----------|
| 3. A | modifies | sky, in the phrase | in sky. |
| " Cloudless | " | sky, " " " | in sky. |
| 4. A | " | sky, " " " | from sky. |
| " Cloudless | " | sky, " " " | from sky. |
| " Its | " | rays, " " " | to rays. |
| " Powerful | " | rays, " " " | to rays. |

Phrases modifying adjuncts.

4. To its powerful rays modifies are exposed (a predicate).

Clauses modifying adjuncts.

4. Who are exposed to its powerful rays modifies all.

Elephants are sometimes taught to work; for they are very strong, and they can drag heavy burdens with ease.

Their tusks are ivory. Many pretty and useful things are made of ivory.

Look at the elephant's trunk! It answers the purpose of a hand. With it he puts his food into his mouth. He lengthens and shortens it at his pleasure.

He can pick up a pin from the floor, untie knots in ropes, open and shut gates, fire off a pistol, or draw a cork from a bottle.

Elephants are grateful if they are treated kindly, and they sometimes become very strongly attached to those who have the care of them.

Analyze the previous exercises in the same manner, first pointing out the subjects and predicates.

Analyze a passage from any school-book, taking simple style at first, and proceeding gradually to poetry, &c.

PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS.

60. A **subject** may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; or more than one of them.

EXAMPLES.—*You are attentive.* *To play* is pleasant. *That he did so* is true. *My father and I* bear the same name. *That he did it and that I saw him*, are facts.

61. A **predicate** may be a *word* or a *phrase**; or more than one of them;—never a clause.

EXAMPLES.—John *studies*. He *is spoken to*. It *is I*. He *was elected President*. Mary *reads and writes*.

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS.

62. An element which modifies another is called a **subordinate element**, or an *adjunct*.

63. An **adjective element** is one which limits or describes a *subject*.

EXAMPLE.—A *good* child is beloved.

Here *a* and *good* are adjective elements.

64. An **adverbial element** is one which modifies a *predicate*, usually in time, place, or manner.

EXAMPLE.—A good child is *much* beloved *by all who know him*.

65. An **objective element** is one which limits or restrains the meaning of a *predicate* to some object.

EXAMPLE.—A good child obeys his *parents*.

66. As an objective element is composed of exactly such words as might compose a subject, it is very frequently limited or described by an adjective element.

* A predicate of more than one word is really a phrase, but it is found more convenient not to consider it as one. When the simple predicate, without either object or adjuncts, contains more than one word, as in "He may have been spoken of," we are accustomed to call those words a *verb*, though really containing several, and we may consider them as forming one predicate, without distinguishing between a word and a combination of words, unless some of these may be separated as modifying words, or unless the predicate is compound.

EXAMPLE.—A child should obey *his loving parents, who cherish and protect him*.

67. A **subordinate element** may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*; or more than one of them.

EXAMPLES.—*Adjective elements*.—*This* boy obeys me. The *city of London* is populous. The *water which I drank* was cool. A *red and white* flag was displayed.

Adverbial elements.—The boy obeys me *promptly*. He went *in great haste*. She will be at leisure, *when her task is finished*. He went *to and fro*. It swung *backward and forward*.

Objective elements.—He drinks *water*. They wish to *play continually*. He said *that he desired wealth*. He drinks *both tea and coffee*.

EXERCISE 12.

Point out the adjective elements in the preceding exercises; the words, phrases, and clauses modifying subjects and objects directly; and then those modifying the adjunct subjects and objects.

Point out the adverbial elements, in the same manner.

Point out the objective elements in the preceding exercises;—first the whole element, then, if it is a word modified by adjuncts, the chief word, as the simple object.

CONNECTIVES.

In compound and complex sentences, and in compound elements of sentences, there are words used to join the clauses or the simple elements.

68. A word used to join clauses or elements of a sentence is called a **connective**.

EXAMPLES.—John *and* James study. I will *if* you will. Go *when* you are ready. Come *to* me. All *who* saw, know.

Frequently a connective does not form part of a simple proposition, or an element; sometimes it is part of a phrase or a clause.

SYNTHESIS.

Synthesis, or Composition, in Grammar, is the combination of parts, or elements, to make *sentences*; and of sentences to make *discourse*; that is, descriptions, addresses, letters, poems, &c.

EXERCISE 13.

Form propositions by adding to each of the following words one word making sense as a predicate; thus,—Man thinks.

Man, boys, dogs, flowers, light, grass, wheat, water, coal, fire, lambs, wolves, cats, lions, snakes, birds, &c. John, Mary, Victoria, &c.

Each word to which a predicate is added becomes the subject of that predicate.

Form propositions by adding to each of the following words is or are, and another word making sense with it as a predicate; thus,—Man is mortal;—The sun is shining.

Man, the sun, the wind, pictures, paper, tools, sugar, vinegar, knowledge, the grass, truth, ice, snow, falsehood, learning, books, &c.

EXERCISE 14.

Form propositions by putting before each of the following words one word making sense as a subject; thus,—Fishes swim.

Swim, walk, run, gallop, read, talk, sing, exist, look, hear, remember, forget, saw, began, improves, burns, shine, grow, &c. hearest, writest, composest, &c.

Each word has become a predicate when joined with a subject.

Form propositions by putting before each of the following words or phrases, a word with or without a or the prefixed; thus,—The moon has risen.

Has risen, talked, will arrive, may have gone, would have been astonished, were received, glittered, remember, vanish, change,

are cleft, was admitted, will be closed, have passed, are being received, must fly, was ebbing, will terminate, &c.

Was laughed at, have set off, would come in, may go off, &c.

Is sick, became happy, grew strong, were industrious, might be untenanted, would be idle, might have been ignorant, &c.

Is a carpenter, are quadrupeds, am a man, art a girl, became a woman, was named John, was elected Governor, are men, may be Russians, are Philadelphians, &c.

EXERCISE 15.

Form propositions, or sentences, by adding or prefixing adjective elements to the subjects of the sentences formed from the words given in Exercise 13.

EXERCISE 16.

Form sentences by combining adverbial elements with the predicates of the sentences formed from the words given in Exercise 14.

EXERCISE 17.

Form sentences by combining with the following words or phrases, other words making sense as subjects; and limit each predicate by a simple objective element; as, Cows eat grass.

Eat, drink, run, walk, trot, see, read, sing, hear, remember, has heard, will strike, may observe, would have passed, must like, is reaping, has been sowing, was cutting, would have been eating, should not have eaten, has formed, have been writing, &c.

Pupils should be habituated, as early as possible, to writing, both their own ideas, under the direction of the teacher as to matter and manner,—and exercises connected with their various lessons, for the sake of acquiring habits of precision, and as a direct aid to the memory. Composition should keep pace with Grammar, and rules learned should be applied in practice.

In this elementary work, Orthoepy and Orthography are not included. The beginner will find enough to occupy him on these points in his lessons in the Spelling-book and Reader.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

Some words are used as *names* of the persons or the things of which we speak or write; other words tell what *kind* of things those are whose names are given; others again tell of the *doing* of some action; and others tell *how*, or *why*, or *where* the action was done. There are also other uses to which words are put.

Some words can be used in only one of these ways, and others can be used sometimes in one way, and sometimes in another.

Some words are built up of parts, and we can learn the meaning of these parts separately, and so know better the right word for any particular meaning. Thus,—The stream is *rapid*. It runs *rapidly*.

Some words are changed in their form according to the particular way in which they are used, and must have one form for a single person or thing, and another form for more than one; other words have different forms for other differences.

Sometimes words have such forms that we know the meaning of the sentence if the words are differently arranged, and the meaning is the same through the different arrangements.

Sometimes changing the arrangement of the words changes the meaning of the sentence entirely. For example, to say—The bird eat the cat—is not the same as to say—The cat eat the bird.

69. **Etymology** relates to the different kinds of words, and to their origin, affinities, and inflections.

70. **Syntax** relates to the manner in which words are combined so as to express thought in grammatically accurate sentences.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

71. Words are divided, according to their **use**, into classes, called **Parts of Speech**.

72. There are nine Parts of Speech; namely, the *Noun*, the *Pronoun*, the *Article*, the *Adjective*, the *Verb*, the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Exclamation*.

We never can speak of a thing unless we give it a name, or unless we use a set of words which will serve as a name.

Every person or thing that exists, has or may have a name of some kind; when new things are found, invented, or discovered new names or old ones newly applied, are given to them.

Many things which never have existed, and many particular kinds of ideas or thoughts, have also had names given to them.

These words are called *nouns*, from the French word *nom*, which is from the Latin word *nomen*, each meaning a name.

73. A **Noun** is a word used as a *name*.

Any word used as a name, is a *noun*.

Persons speaking seldom name themselves or the ones to whom they speak, but certain short words are regularly used instead of the names.

It would be tiresome to hear any name repeated very often, and we have short words to use instead of names, so as to avoid the repetition of them, when repeating is not needed to make the sense clear.

These words are called *pronouns*; pronoun means *for a noun*; it is derived from the Latin word *pronomen*, a word used for a name.

74. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a *noun*.

Certain words used frequently instead of nouns are *pronouns*.

There are words which are used with names to limit or describe them; that is, to show what ones are meant, or to show how many are spoken of, or what kind of persons or things they, whose names are given, are.

Two words used to limit nouns (one of them having two different forms), have particular uses, and they are therefore classed separately.

These two words are called *articles*, from the Latin word *articulus*, a little joint. The others are called *adjectives*, from the Latin word *adjectus*, added to or annexed.

75. An **Article** is the word *the*, or the word *an* or *a*, used before a noun to limit its signification.

The, or *an* or *a*, used before a noun to limit its signification, is an *article*.

76. An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a *noun* or a *pronoun*.

Any word used to describe or limit a *noun* or a *pronoun*, is an *adjective*.

Some words are used especially to form predicates, and to say or tell something of some subject; they also take forms which cannot be used for forming predicates, but have the general meaning of the forms which can be used in predicates. Names and these predicate words form the most important classes of words. The predicate words are called *verbs*, from the Latin word *verbum*, a word.

77. A **Verb** is a word used to *say*, *tell*, or *assert*.

Any word used to say, tell, or assert, so that it may form a predicate, is a *verb*.

Some words are used to show the manner of doing a thing, or the time or the place of doing it; or to show the degree of a quality, or to change or modify the meaning of propositions, or adjunct words or phrases.

These words are called *adverbs*; adverb means *to a verb*, or, *joined to a verb*; it is derived from the Latin word *adverbium*.

78. An **Adverb** is a word used to modify a *verb*, an *adjective*, another *adverb*, or a *limiting phrase*.

Any word used to modify a *verb*, an *adjective*, another *adverb*, a *limiting phrase*, or a *proposition*, is an *adverb*.

There is a kind of connective words used to join a noun or a pronoun to some other word, and to form a phrase which is an adjunct of such word.

These words are called *prepositions*, from the Latin word *præpositio*, which has also the form *præpositionis*, what is put or set before.

79. A **Preposition** is a word used before a *noun* or a *pronoun* to show its relation to another word.

Any word used before a *noun* or a *pronoun* to show its relation to another word, or to form with it a phrase equivalent to some part of speech, is a *preposition*.

Some words are used to connect clauses; or to connect words, when, to avoid repeating so many words, only the dissimilar parts of one or more additional clauses nearly like the first, are used.

Such words are called *conjunctions*, from the Latin word *conjunctio*, or *conjunctionis*, a joining together.

80. A **Conjunction** is a word used to *connect words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*.

A word used merely to connect words, phrases, or clauses, is a *conjunction*.

Some words are used merely as cries caused by emotion, or as calls not forming any part of a proposition.

Such words are called *exclamations*, from the Latin word *exclamatio*, or *exclamationis*, an outcry.

81. An **Exclamation** is a word used merely to express feeling or emotion, or to attract notice.

Any word used merely to express feeling or emotion, or to attract notice, is an *exclamation*.

In classing words, the main question is,—How is the word used?

In the sentence "*Softly* is an adverb," the word "*softly*" is used as a name,—the name of the word considered or spoken of,—it is therefore a noun.

EXERCISE 18.

Write a list of the nouns in the following passage.

Write separate lists of the pronouns, articles, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and exclamations.

Harold was crowned King of England on the very day of the maudlin Confessor's funeral. He had good need to be quick about it.* When the news reached Norman William, hunting* in his park at Rouen, he dropped his bow, returned to his palace, called his nobles to council, and presently sent ambassadors to Harold, calling* on him to keep* his oath and resign* the crown. Harold would do no such thing. The barons of France leagued together round Duke William for the invasion of England. Duke William promised freely to distribute* English wealth and English lands among them.

Select the nouns, &c., from passages of this book, or any other.

* A form of the verb.

VERBS.

Before treating of the parts of speech in the given order, a partial analysis of the verb will be given to simplify the syntax of other words.

82. A verb is the asserting word in a sentence, and there is no sentence without a verb in its predicate. No combination of words without a verb, can form a sentence; but there is sometimes an ellipsis of the verb.

83. A verb may be used with or without limitation.

84. Any verb may be limited to a *subject*.

85. Many verbs may be limited by *objects*; that is, they may have both subjects and objects.

86. A verb limited to a *subject*, is a **finite verb**.

"John plays." This assertion is made of John alone; all others are excluded.

87. A *finite verb* is the chief part of a **predicate**.

Finite means limited; it is derived from the Latin word *finis*, a bound, border, or limit.

Infinitive means not limited, not finite; it is derived from the same Latin word, *finis*.

88. A verb not limited to a *subject* is an **infinitive verb**, and does not form a predicate.

EXAMPLES.—*To play, playing, having been played.*

Some infinitives are called participles.

89. A verb limited by an *object*, is a **transitive verb**.

EXAMPLE.—*John plays ball.*

The playing is limited to "*ball*"; all other plays are excluded.

Transitive means passing over to another; it is derived from the Latin word *transitio*, a going from one to another; in the simple or active form of a transitive verb (finite), we go from the *subject* to the *object*.

Intransitive means not transitive, not going over to another; it is also derived from *transitio*. In an intransitive verb, we do not pass or go to any object.

90. A verb *not* limited by an *object*, is an **intransitive verb**.

EXAMPLES.—*To play; John plays.*

The playing is not limited to *ball*, the *piano*, a *trick*, *truant*, *chess*, or any one or more of the objects which, with the different proper meanings of the verb "*play*", might be allowable.

91. A verb joining two words meaning the same person or the same thing, is *intransitive*, unless one of the words is a compound of "*self*".

Synopsis of the manners of using Verbs, with examples.

Finite and Transitive.		<i>Subject + Verb + Object.</i>		
		John plays	ball.	Ball <i>is played.</i> (by John.)
		He writes	a page.	A page <i>is written.</i> (by him.)
		He writes	English.	English <i>is written.</i> (by him.)
Subject and Object are different.		John is playing	ball.	Ball <i>is played.</i> (by John.)
		He is writing	a page.	A page <i>is being written.</i> (by him.)
		Dress becomes	her.	
Subject and Object are the same.		She loves	herself.	Self <i>is loved</i> by her.
		Men deceive	themselves.	

Finite and Intransitive.		<i>Subject + Verb.</i> ———	
		John lives.	
		John plays.	
		He writes	(well).
<i>He and man are one.</i>		He became	a man.
<i>He and hero are one.</i>		He is	a hero.

		<i>Verb + Object.</i>		<i>Phrases, not propositions.</i>	
Infinitive and Transitive.	}	To play	ball.	For ball <i>to be played</i>	
		To have written	a page.	For a page <i>to have been written</i>	
Infinitive and Intransitive.	}	Playing	ball.	Ball <i>being played</i>	
		Having written	a page.	A page <i>having been written</i>	
		Loving	self.	Self <i>being loved</i>	

		<i>Verb.</i> ———	
Infinitive and Intransitive.	}	Living.	
		To play.	
Infinitive and Intransitive.	}	Playing.	
		To have written.	
		Having written.	
		Existing.	

On the right of the transitive examples, are placed examples of the *passive voice*, sometimes called the passive verb.

92. A transitive verb may be used in two forms; thus,

"John *saw* the picture";—and

"The picture *was seen* by John", or "The picture *was seen*."

In the first form, the word representing the **agent** (or *doer*), is the *subject of the proposition*.

This form is called the **active voice**.

EXAMPLE.—*John saw the picture.*

The word *active* is derived from the Latin verb *ago, actum*, to do, to execute.

In the second form, the **object** (or limitation) of the verb in the active voice, is made the *subject of the proposition*. The word representing the agent (or doer), forms part of a phrase which may be omitted.

This form is called the **passive voice**.

EXAMPLE.—The picture was seen *by John*; or,
The picture was seen.

The word *passive* is derived from the Latin verb *patior, passus*, to receive or bear, to suffer or be acted upon.

93. The **active voice** asserts of the *agent*, or *doer* of the action expressed by the verb.

94. The **passive voice** asserts of the *patient*, or *receiver* of the action expressed by the verb.

95. In the *active voice* the *subject* is *active*; it acts.

96. In the *passive voice* the *subject* is *passive*; it does not act.

97. Either voice is *infinitive*, when it is without a subject.

98. The *active voice* always has an *objective element* limiting it.

99. The *passive voice*, like an intransitive verb, has *not* an *objective element* limiting it.

100. Intransitive verbs have no voice, not having the two forms which are distinguished as the two voices.

NOUNS.

101. A **Noun** is a *word* used as a *name*.

Any *word* used as a *name*, is a *noun*.

The pupil must learn to distinguish between an *object* and its *name*. He may speak the word "*horse*", or may write "*horse*" upon his slate, or a blackboard; but he cannot ride the written or spoken *word*, nor can he speak or write the actually living animal. He may ride the *animal*, and may speak or write its *name*.

Writing "*book*" a thousand times would not furnish one with a library, or with a stock for sale. The *real object* is not a noun,—its *name* is.

We name not only persons, and things that are perceived by the senses, but also *ideas* and *qualities*. A name for any thing that can be thought of or spoken of, is a noun.

EXERCISE 19.

Select all the nouns on *this* page; on any page of a reading-book.

Every person has a name meant to distinguish him from all other persons; and every town and country, and every known river and sea has a name meant to distinguish it from all others.

There are many things of which there are large numbers alike, and of which no one is so important as to need a distinguishing name; thus there are many articles called *chairs* in a house, many called *doors*, and there are many things having the name of *trees*, out of the house.

We may point out a particular one by using other words with the name given to every one.

All persons and things which have distinguishing names, have also names belonging to every one of the same sort; so there are many *men*, many *towns* and *countries*, and many *ivers* and *seas*.

102. Nouns are divided into two classes; *proper* and *common*.

103. A **proper noun** is a special name, given to one being or thing, or to one collection.

EXAMPLES.—Adam, Philadelphia, the Delaware, the White Mountains, the West Indies.

A proper noun always has an initial capital; and if complex, all the principal words have initial capitals.

104. A **common noun** is a general name, given to every one of a class of beings or things.

EXAMPLES.—Man, city, river, trees, mountains, archipelago.

A common noun when joined with a proper noun as a single name, forms with it a proper noun.

EXAMPLE.—Mountain,—the *Allegheny Mountains*.

Initial capitals are required in this case.

EXERCISE 20.

State which of the following nouns are proper, and which are common.

Write a list of the proper nouns, using capitals correctly, and separating them by commas.

Write a list of the common nouns, in the same manner.

Europe, boy, Frenchman, city, river, Joseph, tree, book, house, Euphemia, slate, woman, parents, Philadelphia, Atlantic, the Gulf of Mexico. Bottle, Bread, list, oregon, United states, money, Calves, Isle of Man, north Carolina, cup, Map, Soldier, benjamin franklin, poet, Maple, lowell, Letter-carrier, goodness, General, Army, Andes mountains, River schuylkill, germans, easter, palm sunday, oak, Museum, Doctor, physicians, glue, Charles, wheat, regiment, King, Honor, hexagon, Porte-monnaie, parisian, englishmen, Photograph.

Write lists from a page in a geography, a reading-book, &c.

105. **Personal nouns** represent human beings;—**non-personal nouns** represent inferior animals or inanimate objects, qualities, ideas, &c.

106. A **compound noun** is one of any kind, composed of two or more words *joined*, and forming but one name.

EXAMPLES.—Penman, flat-iron; none-so-pretty, (a plant); aide-de-camp, (an officer).

107. A **complex noun** is one composed of two or more words not joined, but forming only one name.

EXAMPLES.—John Adams. Murad the Unlucky. The Sea of Japan.

ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS, OR ACCIDENCE.

108. Nouns have the attributes of *Gender*, *Number*, *Person*, and *Case*.

GENDER.

If we should say "Tell the girl that it must recite his lesson", we would use words that would not suit one another.

Change "it" to *she*, and change "his" to *her*, and the words will suit one another.

The sentence will then be "Tell the girl that she must recite her lesson".

She and *her* may mean the same person that girl means; but *it* and *his* cannot mean the same.

109. **Gender** is a distinction of Nouns and Pronouns in regard to *sex*.

Pronouns have gender because they represent nouns.

110. There are two *sexes*; the **male** and the **female**. Sex applies to *animals*; inanimate objects have no sex.

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

Animals have sex; their *names* have gender.

112. The **masculine** gender denotes *males*.

EXAMPLES.—Man, horse, prince, drake.

113. The **feminine** gender denotes *females*.

EXAMPLES.—Woman, mare, princess, duck.

114. The **neuter** gender denotes things which are *without sex*.

EXAMPLES.—House, death, tree, fear, fright.

The three genders form classes, to one of which every noun may be assigned.

The gender of some nouns is uncertain, unless shown by the context, or accompanying words; as, *parent, pupil, bird*.

One's *parents* must include a *male* and a *female*.

Sex is distinguished in three ways: by using different words,—by the use of a suffix,—and by prefixing a word showing sex.

I.

SEX DISTINGUISHED BY USING DIFFERENT WORDS.

Personal Nouns.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor,	maid.	Lad,	lass.
Beau,	belle.	Lord,	lady.
Boy,	girl.	Male,	female.
Bridegroom,	bride.	Man,	woman.
Brother,	sister.	Man,	maid, (<i>servants</i>).
Earl,	countess.	Master,	mistress.
Father,	mother.	Master,	dame. (old style).
Friar,	nun.	Master,	Miss (young person).
Grandsire,	grandam.	Mr. (^{pronounced} Mister).	Mrs. (^{pronounced} Miss).
Husband,	wife.	Messrs. (^{pronounced} Messers).	(<i>none</i>).
King,	queen.	Monk,	nun.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Nephew,	niece.	Swain,	nymph.
Papá,	mamá.	Uncle,	aunt.
Sir,	madam.	Wizard	witch.
Sloven,	slattern or slut.	Youth	damsel.
Son,	daughter.	Young man,	maiden or maid.

Also, compounds formed by prefixing to any of the above an adjective, or a noun used as an adjective.

EXAMPLES.—Grandfather, grandmother; schoolboy, schoolgirl; merman, mermaid; gentleman, gentlewoman.

Non-personal Nouns.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Boar,	sow.	Colt,	filly.
Buck,	doe.	Ram,	ewe.
Hart,	roe.	Drake,	duck.
Stag,	hind.	Gander,	goose.
Bull,	cow or heifer.	Ruff,	reeve.
Horse,	mare.	Milter,	spawner.

Also, compounds and derivatives, made from the above by a word or a syllable prefixed.

II.

SEX DISTINGUISHED BY THE USE OF A SUFFIX.

1. The feminine formed by adding **-ess** to the masculine; as, **accuser, accuseress**.
2. The feminine formed by dropping **e** before the final **r** of the masculine, and adding **-ess**; as, **arbiter, arbitress**.
3. The feminine formed by dropping **o** before the final **r** of the masculine, and adding **-ess**; as, **actor, actress**.
4. The feminine formed by dropping **-er**, and adding **-ess**; as, **murderer, murderess**.
5. The feminine formed by dropping **o** before the final **r** of the masculine, and adding **-ix**; as, **adjutor, adjutrix**.

Examples of Proper Names.

Joseph,	Josephine.	Julius	Julia, Juliet.
Augustus,	Augusta.	Louis,	Louisa.
Cornelius,	Cornelia.	John,	Jane, Joanna, &c.
George,	Georgia.	Frank, }	{ Fanny.
Henry, }	{ Henrietta.	Francis, }	{ Frances.
Harry, }	{ Harriet.	William,	Wilhelmina.

III.

SEX DISTINGUISHED BY PREFIXING A WORD SHOWING SEX.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
PERSONALS.		NON-PERSONALS.	
Man-servant,	maid-servant.	He-bear,	she-bear.
Mr. Adams,	Mrs. Adams.	He-goat,	she-goat.
	<small>a married couple.</small>	Buck-rabbit,	doe-rabbit.
Mr. Zell,	Miss Zell.	Cock-robin,	hen-robin.
	<small>unmarried.</small>	Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.
Master N.	Miss N.		
	<small>children.</small>		

Most masculines have no corresponding feminines.

EXAMPLES.—Cook, driver, hostler, sergeant.

A few feminines have no corresponding masculines.

EXAMPLES.—Brunette, hag.

The masculine is generally used if *both* sexes are included, or if no distinction is made.

EXAMPLES.—*Man* is mortal;—*A parent* should be honored;—The *actors* were applauded;—The *lion* is called the *king* of beasts.

In a *few* cases the feminine is used if *both* sexes are included, or if no distinction is made.

EXAMPLES.—They kept *hens*;—I saw a flock of *geese*;—*Ducks* are aquatic birds.

EXERCISE 21.

Give the feminines corresponding to the following masculines:

Father, cook, lion, tiger, bear, he-goat, baker, cock-sparrow, poet, sultan, brother, male-child, peacock, chanter, songster, horse, hart, uncle, nephew, widower, neighbor, friend, Mr., hero,

buck-rabbit, earl, negro, manservant, carter, conductor, engineer, acquaintance, turkey-cock, murderer, man, lord, prince, drake, &c.

Give the masculines corresponding to the following feminines:

Ewe, reeve, demoness, shelduck, witch, nun, mammá, sister, mermaid, schoolgirl, portress, filly, goose, widow, she-bear, hyena, donna, tyranness, directrix, idolatress, grandam, damsel, spectatress, oratrix, hind, &c.

NUMBER.

“Now a dollar is worth as much as a hundred cents are, and it is carried more easily than they are.”

If “dollar” were changed to *dollars*, in this sentence, it would be grammatically incorrect; for “a”, “is”, “it”, and “is carried”, all refer to *one* dollar only, and the word *dollars* means more than one.

So if *cent* were used instead of “cents”, the sentence would be incorrect; for “hundred”, “are”, “they”, and “are” (carried), cannot refer to only *one* cent.

115. **Number** is the distinction of words as expressing *unity* or *plurality*.

Unity is derived from ‘*unis*,’ of *one*; plurality, from ‘*pluris*,’ of *more*.

116. Number is considered in *nouns*, *pronouns*, *finite verbs*, and some *adjectives*.

117. There are two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*.

118. The **singular number** denotes *one* person, thing, or idea, or *one* class or collection.

119. The **plural number** denotes *more than one* person, thing, idea, or class.

Formation of the Plural of Nouns.

120. The plural of a noun is generally formed by adding **-es** or **-s** to the singular.

-Es is added to a noun ending in a *sibilant sound*,* or having but *one vowel* at the end, except *a*.

-S is added to a noun ending in *a*, or in a consonant sound *not sibilant*, or one having *more than one vowel* at the end.

The *s* in either case sounds like *s*, if it follows a subvocal or a vowel sound.

-Es, after a sibilant, forms a separate syllable.

Final *e* of the singular is dropped on adding *-es*.

Examples.

	Sound.		Sound.	
Final Sibilant Sounds.	rebus,	30 rebus-es.	cab,	21 cab s.
	miss,	" miss-es.	" of,"	23 of s.
	purse,	" purs-es.	head,	25 head s.
	ice,	" ic-es (i-ces).	oath,	26 oath s. Sound 27.
	lynx,	" lynx-es.	bag,	29 bag s.
	axe,	" ax-es.	barrel,	36 barrel s.
	phiz,	31 phiz-es.	dollar,	38 dollar s.
	rose,	" ros-es.	ham,	39 ham s.
	adze,	" adz-es.	pan,	40 pan s.
	fish,	32 fish-es.	song,	41 song s.
	douche,	" douch-es.		
	rouge,	33 rouge-es (rou-ges).	comma,	comma s.
	leech,	34 leech-es.	razee,	razee s.
	niche,	" nich-es.	beau,	beau s.
	watch,	" watch-es.	folio,	folio s.
cage,	35 cage-es (ca-ges).	hollow,	hollow s.	
edge,	" edg-es (ed-ges).	boy,	boy s.	
hadj,	" hadj-es.			
simile,	simil es.	cap,	20 cap s.	
alkali,	alkali es.	brief,	22 brief s.	
cargo,	cargo es.	part,	24 part s.	
gnu,	gnu es.	truth,	26 truth s.	
city,	citi es.	oak,	28 oak s.	

Flat Sound (31) added.

Sharp Sound (30) added.

* The teacher may explain the meaning of the terms *sibilant sound*, *sharp* and *flat sounds*, *vowel*, &c. The numbers refer to the larger grammar of the author, where the elementary sounds are numbered.

NOTE.—**Y** after a *consonant* is changed to **i**, before adding **-es**; as, *body, bodies*.

Exception 1.—Forty nouns ending in single **o**, add **-s** to form the plural.

EXAMPLES.—Bravo, canto.

Exception 2.—Twelve nouns ending in **f**, and three in **fe**, change **f** to **v**, and add **-es**, to form the plural.

EXAMPLES.—Beef, beeves; knife, knives.

Exception 3.—Letters, figures, and signs, and sometimes words, used as nouns, add an **apostrophe and s**, instead of **-es**, to form the plural.

EXAMPLES.—"He forms **w's** like **u's**"; "To multiply by any number of **9's**"; "The **he's** and **she's**".

EXERCISE 22.

Form the plurals of the following nouns:

Nazarene, absence, freckle, navy, foreigner, navy, jockey, pippin, cipher, bulletin, planning, chisel, repartee, gourd, buffalo, anticipation, triphthong, nuisance, lily, cicatrice, pickaninny, trombone, ibex, manifesto, rose, sickness, cabin, class, writing, stove, witch, papa, row, hind, sultana, negress, snath, sluice, idea, sortie, hiccough, dish, duellist, fac-simile, sonata, metre, sac, cypress, valley, hoe, money, virago, assignee, &c.

Nouns irregular in the plural.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Man,	men.	oose,	geese.
Woman,	women.	Mouse,	mice.
Child,	children.	Louse,	lice.
Foot,	feet.	Ox,	oxen.
Tooth,	teeth.		

These irregular plurals, are used in the plurals of compound nouns.

EXAMPLES.—Englishmen, statesmen, eyeteeth, woodlice.

German, Mussulman, Norman, Ottoman, Turcoman (national names),—dragoman (an interpreter), hetman (a Cossack commander), leman (one loved),—cayman (an alligator), desman (a quadruped), dolman (a robe),

firman (a certificate), *ottoman* (a seat), *talisman* (a charm), and *toman* (money), form the plural regularly, as simple words. Thus, Germans, Mussulmans, &c.

PERSON.

In the sentence "I thought that you would send him to me", there are four words that represent persons, "I", "you", "him", and "me". If "you" means *one* person, there are only three persons referred to in the sentence, for "I", and "me" mean the one person who speaks or writes the sentence,—"you" means the person who is spoken to or written to,—and "him" means some one else, who is not the speaker or writer, and who is not spoken to or written to. He is spoken of, or part of the sentence is written especially of him.

If "you" means more than one, it still means the persons spoken to or written to.

We might use the *name* of the person spoken of or written of, or there might be *more* than one.

121. **Person** is the distinction of words in their relation to the *speaker*, or the one *spoken to* or *of*.

Person is considered in *nouns*, *pronouns*, and *finite verbs*.

122. There are three persons; called the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

123. The **first person** relates to the *speaker* or *writer*.

EXAMPLE.—"I, John, say it."

124. The **second person** relates to the person or thing *addressed* in speech or writing.

EXAMPLE.—"John, you did it."

125. The **third person** relates to the person or thing *spoken of* or *written of*.

EXAMPLE.—"John did it."

126. *Pronouns* are used for the *first* and *second* persons. A noun is in the *third person*, except when a person or thing is addressed directly *by a name*.

CASE.

In the sentence "I wish that you would give my book to me only", three words, "I", "my", and "me", all represent the same person, and yet their forms are different. "I" is the subject of the sentence, "my" is an adjective element limiting "book", and "me" is the object of a preposition in the phrase "to me".

In the sentence "He hurt himself with his stick",—"he", "himself", and "his", all represent the same person. "He" is the subject, "himself" is the object limiting the predicate "hurt", and "his" is an adjective element limiting "stick" and denoting possession.

The three words in each of the sentences are in different cases, or conditions.

127. **Case** is the *condition* or *state* of a noun or a pronoun in its relation to other words in a sentence.

A noun has gender, number, and person, without reference to other words; its *case* usually depends upon its relation to a *verb*, a *preposition*, or another *noun*, in the same sentence; that is, upon its **syntax**.

A pronoun has case as any noun put in its place would have it; its gender, number, and person, depend on the noun it represents.

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

129. The **nominative case** of a noun or a pronoun, is that form or state which is usually the subject of a verb.

EXAMPLES.—John reads; he reads.

130. The **possessive case** of a noun or a pronoun, is that form or state in which it limits a noun by denoting a possessor, actual or probable.

EXAMPLES.—**John's** book; **children's** shoes.

The possessive case is an adjective element.

131. The **objective case** of a noun or a pronoun, is that form or state which is usually the object of a verb or a preposition.

EXAMPLE.—John reads his **book** to **us**.

Form of the Cases.

132. The nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike, and they have the simple form in each number.

EXAMPLES.—*Singular, nom.* **man**, *obj.* **man**; *plural, nom.* **men**, *obj.* **men**.

133. The **possessive case** of either number is formed by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* to the nominative; as, **man's**, **men's**, **lady's**, **alumni's**;—except where the nominative plural ends in *s*, when an *apostrophe* only is added to form the possessive plural; as, **friends'**, from *friends*.

The *apostrophe* and *s*, added to a word ending in a sibilant sound, are pronounced as a separate syllable.

Thus; **James's**, **church's**, **Burbridge's**, are pronounced like *Jameeses*, *churches*, *Burbridges*, the nominative or objective plural.

134. A compound or a complex noun takes the sign of the possessive only at the end of the whole compound or complex noun.

EXAMPLES.—A *man-of-war's* crew is numerous.

He heard *George Francis Train's* lecture.

Declension of Nouns.

135. **Declension** is the regular arrangement

of the different forms of a noun or a pronoun, in the *numbers* and *cases*.

A *proper* noun is declined in the *singular* only.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	Man,	Hand,	Fox,	Lady,	Boy,
"	<i>Poss.</i>	man's,	hand's,	fox's,	lady's,	boy's,
"	<i>Obj.</i>	man,	hand,	fox,	lady,	boy,
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	men,	hands,	foxes,	ladies,	boys,
"	<i>Poss.</i>	men's,	hands',	foxes',	ladies',	boys',
"	<i>Obj.</i>	men.	hands.	foxes.	ladies.	boys.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	Hero,	Folio,	Sister-in-law,	Adams,
"	<i>Poss.</i>	hero's,	folio's,	sister-in-law's,	Adams's,
"	<i>Obj.</i>	hero,	folio,	sister-in-law,	Adams,
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	heroes,	folios,	sisters-in-law,	Adamses,
"	<i>Poss.</i>	heroes',	folios',	sisters-in-law's,	Adamses',
"	<i>Obj.</i>	heroes.	folios.	sisters-in-law.	Adamses.

EXERCISE 23.

Decline the following nouns.

Conductor, mermaid, goose, dear, Englishman, Englishwoman, owner, horse, thief, color, Maria, Charles, James, hero, heroine, arc, arch, penny-a-liner, staff, stave, canary, judge, errand-boy, American, Israelite, &c.

Jones (common noun); Jones (proper noun), &c.

USES OF THE CASES.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE.

136. **RULE.**—A noun or a pronoun used as the *subject* of a finite verb, must be in the **nominative case**.

A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb, is called the **subject-nominative**.

137. The subject of a verb in the *imperative* mood is always a pronoun, **thou** or **you**; and it is generally omitted by ellipsis, except in parsing.

EXAMPLE.—“Go”, —meaning “go *thou*”, or “go *you*”.

PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

138. RULE.—A noun or a pronoun used in *predication* with an intransitive verb, must be in the **nominative case**.

A noun or a pronoun used in predication with an intransitive verb, is called the **predicate-nominative**.

EXAMPLES.—The boy is an apt **scholar**.

The boy gradually *becomes* a **man**.

139. Some transitive verbs in the passive voice, such as, **is named, is called, is appointed, &c.**, may have nouns, phrases, or clauses, used in predication with them.

EXAMPLES.—He *is named* **John**.

Paul *is called* **the apostle to the gentiles**.

140. The subject-nominative and the predicate-nominative of a simple sentence refer to the **same**, and they must correspond in *gender* and *number*.

EXAMPLES.—*John* is a **carpenter**.

The *boys* have become **men**.

Mary and *Jane* are **sisters**.

The verb **to be** is so often used to connect a subject-nominative and a predicate-nominative, that it is called the **copulative** verb. Such other intransitive and such passive transitive verbs as are used in the same manner, may take the same name, even when infinitive. They form the *copulas* of predicates.

PARSING.

141. **Parsing** is the enumeration of the grammatical properties of words, and their relations to other words in a sentence, with the rules which properly apply to them.

NOUN.

In parsing a noun, *name* the word parsed; show its *meaning* in connection with the word or words necessary to explain its use, and *only those*; then name its *class* and its *gender*,—state in what *number* and *person* it is found,—and in what *case*, with the *reason* and the *rule* for it.

Always in parsing give the part of speech of words quoted from the given sentence, and in writing mark such words with quotation marks. Punctuate carefully, in written parsing.

NOTE.—The gender of a noun is fixed, unless it is personified.

NOTE.—Answers to questions are very frequently elliptical.

EXAMPLES.

Subject-Nominative.

“John reads and writes English.”

1. **John**.—*John* reads and writes. “*John*” is a name. “Any word used as a name, is a *noun*.”

It is a proper noun. “A proper noun is a special name, given to one being or thing.”

It is of the masculine gender. “The masculine gender denotes males.”

It is in the singular number. “The singular number denotes one person, thing, or idea, or one class or collection.”

It is in the third person. “The third person relates to the person or thing spoken of or written of.”

It is the subject of the verbs “*reads*” and “*writes*”, and it is in the nominative case. “A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.”

Predicate-Nominative.

“Mary and Jane are sisters.”

2. **Sisters**.—*Mary* and *Jane* are *sisters*.—“*Sisters*” is a name. “Any word used as a name, is a *noun*.”

It is a common noun. "A common noun is a general name, given to every one of a class of beings or things."

It is of the feminine gender. "The feminine gender denotes females."

It is in the plural number. "The plural number denotes more than one person, thing, idea, or class."

It is in the third person. "The third person relates to the person or thing spoken of or written of."

It is used in predication with the intransitive verb "are" to form the predicate "*are sisters*", and it is in the nominative case. "A noun or a pronoun used in predication with an intransitive verb, must be in the nominative case."

EXERCISE 24.

Parse the nouns in the nominative case, which are contained in the following sentences.

If the weather is fine, the children will come.

John Adams was the first Vice-President of the United States, and the second President.

A Gulf or Bay is a body of water extending into the land.

A, e, i, o, and u, are vowels.

A square is an equilateral right-angled parallelogram.

A polygon may be a pentagon or a hexagon.

"Hawaii" is now found on maps where "*Owhyhee*" formerly was.

Little Jenny is a wise little white-headed darling, about three years old, and her observations are often quite amusing.

Cæsar, Alexander, Aristotle, Descartes, and Lord Bacon were witty men.

THE Giraffe is a native of Africa. It is of singular shape and size, and bears some resemblance both to the camel and the deer. The mouth is small; the eyes are full and brilliant; the tongue is rough, very long, and ending in a point. The neck is long and slender, and from the shoulder to the top of the head, it measures between seven and eight feet; from the ground to the top of the shoulder, is commonly ten or eleven feet; so that the height of a full grown Giraffe is seventeen or eighteen feet.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

142. RULE.—A noun or a pronoun in the **possessive case** is governed by the *noun limited by it*.

The noun governing the possessive is often omitted by ellipsis, when clearly understood.

EXAMPLE.—He worshipped at **St. Paul's**.

The possessive case is used after "*of*", when after the possessive there is an ellipsis of the plural of the noun preceding "*of*".

In such cases, "*of*" governs the omitted word.

EXAMPLE.—Read a sonnet **of Milton's**. That is,—*of Milton's sonnets*.

PARSING.

Possessive Nouns.

EXAMPLES.

"David was John's brother."

3. **John's**.—*John's* brother.—"*John's*" is a name. "Any word used as a name, is a noun."

It is a proper noun. "A proper noun is a special name, given to one being or thing."

It is of the masculine gender. "The masculine gender denotes males."

It is in the singular number. "The singular number denotes one person, thing, or idea, or one class or collection."

It is in the third person. "The third person relates to the person or thing spoken of or written of."

It limits the noun "*brother*", showing *whose* brother, and denoting an implied possessor. It is in the possessive case, and it is governed by the noun "*brother*". "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case is governed by the noun limited by it."

EXERCISE 25.

Parse all the nouns that are in the possessive case, contained in the following sentences.

Dickens's "*Pickwick Papers*" are amusing.

Gibbon's "*Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*" has been much read.

He spoke of William's last exploit in terms of admiration.
John's friend's father had purchased for him Blair's Rhetoric
and Coppée's Elements of Logic.

Susan borrowed Mary's "Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress."

John and James's parents were both dead.

Henry's and George's fathers were near neighbors.

Hart's Grammar was used in the school, but he had studied
Smith's and Brown's.

The Duke of Wellington's windows were broken by a mob.

Then shall man's pride and dulness comprehend,
His actions', passions', being's use and end.

He bought the goods at White and Stone's.

He stopped at White's and Stone's.

The Bishop of London's diocese is large.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

Verbal Objective.

143. RULE.—A noun or a pronoun used as the
object of a transitive *verb* in the active voice,
must be in the **objective case**.

An active transitive verb, whether it is finite or is an infinitive,
has an object, and is said to govern it.

EXAMPLES.—Some love **themselves** only.

To repeat words is not to understand them.

Having repeated his lesson, he took his seat.

144. Most verbs may be used either transitively
or intransitively.

EXAMPLES.—"He sees;" that is, he is not blind; or, his eyes
are not shut. "Sees" is not limited by an object.

"He sees the moon." "Sees" is limited to the *moon*; every
other object is excluded from the assertion made.

145. A transitive verb must, when active, have
an object in the objective case.

An intransitive verb must not have an object.
A transitive verb in the passive voice, must not
have an objective.

Its subject is the object of the verb in the active voice.

An objective may be governed by several verbs, and a verb
may govern several objectives.

Prepositional Objective.

146. RULE.—A noun or a pronoun used as the
object of a *preposition*, must be in the **object-
ive case**.

147. A preposition governs its object, and the
two words form a **prepositional phrase**, gen-
erally used like an *adjective* or an *adverb*.

EXAMPLES.—A man **of peace**. Adjective phrase.

He goes **in haste**. Adverbial phrase.

The *object* of a prepositional phrase may be limited by *adjective
elements*, and the *phrase* may be limited by *adverbial elements*.

A preposition may govern more than one objective; as,

I was in company with **John and James**.

Here "*with*" has a compound object.

Several prepositions may jointly govern the same objective; as,

He went **into, through, and from** the house without pausing.

He shall have power, **by and with** the advice and consent of the
Senate, to make treaties.

148. There is often an ellipsis of the preposition
to or **for**, when its object precedes the object of
a verb; but, *after* the object of the verb, there is
no ellipsis of the preposition.

EXAMPLES.—Give **John** the pen.

Give the pen **to John**.

In changing to the passive voice, the object of
the *verb* in the active voice, must become the sub-
ject of the verb in the passive voice.

PARSING.

OBJECTIVE NOUNS.

EXAMPLES.—*Verbal Objective.*

"He sees the moon."

4. **Moon.**—Sees *moon*.—"Moon" is a name. "Any word used as a name, is a noun."

It is a common noun. "A common noun is a general name, given to every one of a class of beings or things."

It is of the neuter gender. "The neuter gender denotes things which are without sex."

It is in the singular number. "The singular number denotes one person, thing, or idea, or one class or collection."

It is in the third person. "The third person relates to the person or thing spoken of or written of."

It is used as the object of the transitive verb "*sees*", which is in the active voice, and it is in the objective case. "A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, must be in the objective case."

Prepositional Objective.

"He is a man of peace."

5. **Peace.**—Of *peace*.—"Peace" is a name. "Any word used as a name, is a noun."

It is a common noun. "A common noun is a general name, given to every one of a class of beings or things."

It is of the neuter gender. "The neuter gender denotes things which are without sex."

It is in the singular number. "The singular number denotes one person, thing, or idea, or one class or collection."

It is in the third person. "The third person relates to the person or thing spoken of or written of."

It is used as the object of the preposition "of", in the phrase "of peace" which limits the noun "man", and it is in the objective case. "A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a preposition, must be in the objective case."

EXERCISE 26.

Parse all the nouns that are in the objective case, in the following sentences.

The men are just coming from the meadow with a load of hay.

A man and a boy are riding on the load. One man, with a whip in his hand, is walking by the oxen to keep them in the road.

The man who drives the oxen walks so that they shall be next to his right hand.

When the man wants the oxen to turn to the left, he says, "Haw." When he wants them to turn to the right, he says, "Gee."

Two men are behind the load of hay. One of them has a rake on his shoulder, the other has a scythe.

The one with the scythe has been cutting down the grass. This is called mowing.

In the winter there is no fresh grass in the fields; then hay is given to cows, and horses, and sheep, to eat.

Parse the nouns in selected passages from an Arithmetic, a Geography, a Reader, or any other school-book.

The teacher must be careful to select such passages as contain only the simple constructions given in this book.

PRONOUNS.

That is the *man who* spoke to me. *Who* is *he*? I do not know *his* name, but *he* lives near us, and I see *him* often.

In the above sentences the words *who*, *Who*, *he*, *his*, *he*, and *him*, all represent the same person that the noun *man* does. Each one of these words is used instead of the noun *man*.

Me, *I*, and *I*, all represent the person who speaks the sentence. *Us* represents the same person together with other persons.

These words are used instead of names or nouns.

149. A **Pronoun** is a *word* used instead of a *noun*.

Certain words *used frequently instead of nouns*, are **pronouns**. There are fifty-five different forms of the pronouns.

An adjective, whose noun is omitted by ellipsis, is used instead of the noun, but it must not be considered a pronoun.

150. The noun for which a pronoun is used, is the **antecedent** of the pronoun.

NOTE.—A pronoun of the first person has really no antecedent *noun*; it refers to the *speaker* or *writer*, whether named or not.

In the second person the antecedent noun is generally understood: it is but seldom given in words.

A pronoun often has a *pronoun* for its antecedent, when both are used to represent the *same* noun.

151. Pronouns have the attributes of **Gender**, **Number**, **Person**, and **Case**.

A *phrase* or a *clause* may be the antecedent of a pronoun, and may for this purpose be considered a noun.

Division of the Pronouns.

152. Pronouns are divided into three classes: **Personal**, **Relative**, and **Interrogative**.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

153. A **personal pronoun** is a pronoun which shows the grammatical person by its *form*.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

First person, of any gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. I ,	Nom. We ,
Poss. my (with a noun),	Poss. our (with a noun),
mine (without a noun),	ours (without a noun),
Obj. me .	Obj. us .

Second person, of any gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. Thou ,	Nom. You ,
Poss. thy (with a noun),	Poss. your (with a noun),
thine (without a noun),	yours (without a noun),
Obj. thee .	Obj. you .

Third person, masculine gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. He ,	Nom. They ,
Poss. his (with or without a noun),	Poss. their (with a noun),
	theirs (without a noun),
Obj. him .	Obj. them .

Third person, feminine gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. She ,	Nom. They ,
Poss. her (with a noun),	Poss. their (with a noun),
hers (without a noun)	theirs (without a noun),
Obj. her .	Obj. them .

Third person, neuter gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Nom. It ,	Nom. They ,
Poss. its (with or without a noun),	Poss. their (with a noun),
	theirs (without a noun),
Obj. it .	Obj. them .

The apostrophe is *never* used with a *pronoun* in the possessive. Thus, **its**, not *it's*. It is used in an elision of a verb; as, *it's* for *it is*.

In the second person, the plural is *commonly* used instead of the singular, as more polite or complimentary; thus, Singular or Plural, Nom. **you**,—Poss. **your** or **yours**,—Obj. **you**. The proper number is used in prayers to God, and in solemn style, and it is used in all cases by the Society of Friends.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

154. A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun used to append to its antecedent noun or pronoun a limiting clause of which the relative is an element.

EXAMPLE.—He **who** *is wealthy* may become poor.

That is, He may become poor.

The limiting clause may be called a *defining* or *descriptive* clause.

A relative *clause* is an adjective element.

The antecedent may be a *phrase* or a *clause*, used as a noun.

155. The relative pronouns are **who**, **which**, **what**, **that**, and **as**, and some compounds of the first three.

Declension of the Relative Pronouns.

156. The relatives are not varied in form for gender, number, or person.

Who. *Masculine or Feminine.*

First, second, or third person.

<i>Sing., Nom.</i>	Who,	<i>Plur., Nom.</i>	who,
<i>Poss.</i>	whose,	<i>Poss.</i>	whose,
<i>Obj.</i>	whom.	<i>Obj.</i>	whom,

“**Which**” and “**that**” have the possessive **whose**, but no other variation of form.

“**What**” and “**as**” have no variation of form, and are never used in the possessive.

Use of the Relative Pronouns.

157. **Who** is used in referring to *persons*, or *personified objects*; that is, to **personals**.

EXAMPLES.—I saw *him* **who** wrote to me.

Till *Death*,—**who** in his vast affairs, ne'er puts things off, as men in theirs,—winked at our hero as he passed.

158. **Which** is used in referring to young persons whose sex is disregarded, to collective personal nouns when the collective is used as one whole, and to inferior animals and inanimate objects, not personified; that is, to **non-personals**.

EXAMPLES.—This is the *child* **which** was hurt.

He saw the *troop* **which** was passing.

He bought the *horse* **which** he rode that day.

159. **What** refers to **non-personals**; **that** and **as** to either personals or non-personals.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

160. An **interrogative pronoun** is a pronoun used to ask a question.

161. The interrogatives are **who**, **which**, and **what**.

Who is declined like the relative *who*.

162. An interrogative has no antecedent, but it refers indefinitely to a word in the answer, and agrees with that word.

The interrogatives **which** and **what** refer to **personals** as well as *non-personals*.

163. **Who** asks for one or more persons to be *named*; **which** asks for the *particular* persons or things, or a *particular one* of several; **what** asks for a *description* of one or more *persons*, or, for a *thing* or *act* to be named or stated.

EXAMPLES.—**Who** did it? A pupil of the school.

Which of them? The head of the first class.

What is he? A good and industrious boy.

What is that? An exercise.

What is done? The task is finished.

AGREEMENT WITH ANTECEDENT.

164. RULE.—A pronoun must agree with its antecedent noun or pronoun in **gender**, **number**, and **person**.

Case.

Rules for the case of a pronoun have been given: they are the same as those for the case of a noun.

In the **second** person, a **plural** pronoun is commonly used for the *singular*; as, **You**, for *thou*.

PARSING.

Pronouns.

In parsing a pronoun, name the word parsed; show its meaning in connection with the words necessary to explain its use, and only those, looking to both agreement and government; show with what word it agrees and in what gender, number, and person,—give the rule of agreement; state in what case it is, with the reason, and quote the rule of syntax for it.

EXAMPLES.

"Father works all day, and mother tells me that he does it all for her and his little son."

6. **He**.—*He* does. *Father* does.—"*He*" is used instead of the word "*father*", which is a noun. "Certain words used frequently instead of nouns, are pronouns."

It is a personal pronoun. "A personal pronoun is a pronoun which shows the grammatical person by its form."

The antecedent, the noun "*father*", is the name of a male person, only one, spoken of.

The pronoun "*he*" agrees with its antecedent, the noun "*father*", in the masculine gender, the singular number, and the third person. "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent noun or pronoun in gender, number, and person."

It is the subject of the verb "*does*", and it is in the nominative case. "A noun or a pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case."

7. **His**.—*His* son. *Father's* son.—"*His*" is used instead of the word "*father*", which is a noun. "Certain words used frequently instead of nouns, are pronouns."

It is a personal pronoun. "A personal pronoun is a pronoun which shows the grammatical person by its form."

The antecedent, the noun "*father*", is the name of a male person, only one, spoken of.

The pronoun "*his*" agrees with its antecedent, the noun "*father*", in the masculine gender, the singular number, and the third person. "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent noun or pronoun in gender, number, and person."

It limits the noun "*son*", showing *whose* son, and denoting an implied possessor. It is in the possessive case, and it is governed by the noun "*son*". "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case is governed by the noun limited by it."

"The women whom I saw, were his aunts."

8. **Whom**.—Saw *whom*. Saw women.—"*Whom*" is used instead of the word "*women*", which is a noun. "Certain words used frequently instead of nouns, are pronouns."

It is a relative pronoun. "A relative pronoun is a pronoun used to append to its antecedent noun or pronoun a limiting clause of which the relative is an element."

The antecedent, the noun "*women*", is the name of female persons, more than one, spoken of.

The pronoun "*whom*" agrees with its antecedent, the noun "*women*", in the feminine gender, the plural number, and the third person. "A pronoun must agree with its antecedent noun or pronoun in gender, number, and person."

It is used as the object of the transitive verb "*saw*", which is in the active voice, and it is in the objective case. "A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, must be in the objective case."

EXERCISE 27.

Parse the pronouns contained in the following sentences.

Relative and interrogative pronouns need not be parsed by beginners.

There was once a little boy named Willie. One day his father came to him with a basket of lettuce. "Here, Willie," said he, "take this lettuce to our neighbor, Mrs. Burns."

So Willie took the basket, and carried it to her. She was very much pleased, and said, "I am very glad to see you, Willie, for I have got something for you. You know my little bantam chickens?"

"O, yes, ma'am," said Willie; "they are the prettiest little bantams I ever saw."

"Well," said Mrs. Burns, "the old bantam left her chickens yesterday. You know hens always leave their chickens when they are able to take care of themselves."

"Then I am glad I am not a chicken," said Willie; "for I should not like mother to leave me, even when I could take care of myself."

"I dare say not," said Mrs. Burns; "but I was going to tell you that I have put two of the chickens into a basket; and one of them is for you, and the other for your cousin George."

ARTICLES.

165. An **Article** is the word *the*, or the word *an* or *a*, used before a noun to limit its signification.

The, an, or a, used before a noun to limit its signification, is an **article**.

166. **The** is called the **definite** article; it refers to *one* or *more* as known, or distinguished from others.

An is called the **indefinite** article; it refers to *one only* of several as unknown, or *not* distinguished from others.

EXAMPLES.—**An** idea of **an** ignorant man.
The idea of **the** ignorant man.

An idea of **the** ignorant man.
The idea of **an** ignorant man.

167. **An** is shortened to **a** before a word or character beginning, when *spoken*, with a **consonant sound**.

EXAMPLES.—**A** man, **a** young man; **a** horse, **a** walk, **a** eulogy, **a** unit, such **a** one, **a** u, **a** y.

168. **An** is not shortened before a word or character beginning, when *spoken*, with a **vowel sound**.

EXAMPLES.—**An** egg, **an** inn, **an** hour, **an** honest man, **an** odd one, **an** S, **an** h, **an** E.

An means one, but it is used differently; it was formerly written *ane*.

EXERCISE 28.

Use the proper form of the indefinite article before each of the following nouns or phrases.

Man; young man; old man; tall man; honest man; upright man; Englishman; Arab; European; Hindoo; African; egg; horse; hour; clock; eight-day clock; book; useful book; arithmetical rule; uncomfortably warm day; heir-at-law; hair-cloth-covered chair.

169. **RULE**.—An article belongs to the noun which it limits.

There is sometimes after an adjective an ellipsis of the noun to which an article belongs.

EXAMPLE.—Turn to **the** right [*hand* or *side*.]

The adjective may be considered as used as a noun, or the ellipsis may be supplied.

PARSING.

Articles.

In parsing an article, name the word; show its use in connection with its limited noun; state the kind of article, and to what it belongs, and quote the rule of syntax.

EXAMPLES.

"The first and last lines may be omitted."

9. **The.**—*The* lines.—"*The*" is used before the noun "*lines*", to limit its signification. "*The*, *an*, or *a*, used before a noun to limit its signification, is an article."

It is the definite article. "*The* is called the definite article; it refers to one or more as known or distinguished from others."

It belongs to the noun "*lines*". "An article belongs to the noun which it limits."

"He is a very good boy."

10. **A.**—*A* boy.—"*A*" is used before the noun "*boy*", to limit its signification. "*The*, *an*, or *a*, used before a noun to limit its signification, is an article."

It is the indefinite article. "*An* is called the indefinite article; it refers to one only of several as unknown, or not distinguished from others."

"*Very*", when spoken, begins with a consonant sound. "*An* is shortened to *a* before a word or character beginning, when spoken, with a consonant sound."

The article "*a*" belongs to the noun "*boy*". "An article belongs to the noun which it limits."

EXERCISE 29.

Parse the articles in the following sentences.

An hour-glass is a machine, or instrument, for measuring time. It is made of two bulbs of glass, with a very narrow passage from one bulb to the other. It has sand inside of it; and it takes just one hour for all the sand to run out of one bulb into the other.

Sometimes the bulbs are made smaller, so that it takes a half hour or a quarter of an hour for the sand to run out of one into the other. But these are still called hour-glasses, though they measure a smaller amount of time than an hour.

ADJECTIVES.

170. An **Adjective** is a word used to describe or limit a *noun* or a *pronoun*.

Any word used to describe or limit a *noun* or a *pronoun*, is an **adjective**.

Participles *following* nouns, and limited by adverbial or objective elements, are excepted, and are not called adjectives, although they are adjective elements.

Some adjectives tell what kind of a person or thing the noun to which they belong represents. If we say "He is a good boy", we tell what *kind* of a boy we speak of, and the word "*good*" describes the boy, by telling one of his qualities.

Some other adjectives do not describe or tell what kind of a person or thing is meant, but they let us know what one, or how many, or some other fact concerning *what* is represented by the nouns to which they belong. They limit the meaning in some way.

In the sentence "This boy was the first one to finish all his tasks", "*This*" points out a certain boy, "*one*" belongs to *boy* omitted by ellipsis, and stands in place of it, "*first*" shows the order of the *one*, or *boy*, as to finishing, and "*all*" shows that no *task* was omitted; but not one of these words describes the *boy* or the *tasks*.

Classes of Adjectives.

171. Adjectives are divided into two classes; *describing* and *limiting*.

172. A **describing** or qualifying **adjective** shows some quality, condition, or circumstance.

EXAMPLES.—Good, red, wide, loving, ladylike, upper, south-eastern.

173. A **limiting** adjective merely limits without describing.

174. Limiting adjectives are either *numeral* or *pronominal*.

175. A **numeral adjective** is an adjective which expresses a definite number.

EXAMPLES.—One, two; third, fourth; five-fold, &c.

176. A **pronominal adjective** is an adjective which *frequently* represents its limited noun, omitted by ellipsis.

EXAMPLES.—This, each, one, both, same, &c.

A descriptive or a numeral adjective may also represent the noun it describes or limits.

An adjective of any kind may be **compound**, and composed of words of any part of speech.

EXAMPLES.—Ladylike, nut-brown, theatre-going, four-footed, North American;—twenty-two, five hundred and three, one-and-sixtieth, many-petaled.

Only four pronominal adjectives are compound; they are, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*.

177. *Which* and *what* are sometimes **interrogative** adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—**Which** one do you prefer?

By **what** means will he do so?

When *which* or *what* is an interrogative adjective, it begins the question, or is preceded by a preposition,—sometimes by a participle or an infinitive.

ADJECTIVES PREDICATED OR ASSUMED.

178. Adjectives may be used **in predication** with copulative verbs (*be*, *seem*, &c.), and then they are *asserted* of the subject.

EXAMPLE.—The man is **sick**.

Here "**is sick**" is the predicate, and the adjective "**sick**" belongs to the subject, the noun "*man*".

179. When an adjective is not *predicated* of a noun or a pronoun, it is **assumed**.

EXAMPLES.—The **sick** man died.

A man, **sick, sad, and sorry**, sat by his side.

In such case, the only assertion is contained in the *verb*; as, *died,—sat*.

We may often use an adjective that describes a noun, in different forms, so as to show that two or more persons or things have different degrees of the quality.

In the sentence "That is an old man, but my father is older, and yours is the oldest of the three", the adjectives "*old*", "*older*", and "*oldest*" all give the same quality to the *man* and the two fathers, but in such a way that we know the relative age of the three. This way of varying words to show degrees is called *comparison*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

180. Many describing adjectives are varied by *comparison*.

A very few limiting adjectives are comparable.

181. **Comparison** is, properly, a regular arrangement of the *inflections* of an adjective or an adverb, to show different degrees of the quality. There is also a comparison made by using certain adverbs with an adjective or an adverb.

182. Adjectives are compared to show **increase**, or a greater degree, and **decrease**, or a less degree of the quality.

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

184. The **positive** degree expresses the qual-

ity simply, without direct reference to it in others.

185. The **comparative** degree gives *more* or *less* of the quality than to another, or to a class, put in contrast.

186. The **superlative** degree gives *the most* or *the least* of the quality, of all contrasted.

Adjectives denoting *color*, and some others, take the suffix **-ish**, meaning *somewhat*; as, *bluish*, (somewhat blue),—*reddish*, *blackish*.

187. Some adjectives are not comparable; in their meanings they express qualities which are absolute or fixed. These are used in one form only.

EXAMPLES.—Equal, square, correct, dead, three, second, single, bifid, whole, &c.

188. **Monosyllables**, and *dissyllables* ending in *e* not sounded, in *er*, *ow*, or *y*, generally form the *major comparative* by adding the suffix **-er** to the positive,—and form the *major superlative* by adding the suffix **-est** to the positive.

189. All comparable adjectives except monosyllables, and dissyllables ending in *e* not sounded, in *er*, *ow*, or *y* (and these sometimes), form the *major comparative* by taking the word **more** before the positive,—and form the *major superlative* by taking the word **most** before the positive.

190. All comparable adjectives form the *minor comparative* by taking the word **less** before the

positive,—and form the *minor superlative* by taking the word **least** before the positive.

Regular Inflected Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
bright	brighter	brightest
red	redder	reddest
feeble	feebler	feeblest
serene	serener	serenest
tender	tenderer	tenderest
narrow	narrower	narrowest
happy	happier	happiest

Full Comparison.

<i>Minor.</i>		<i>Major.</i>		
<i>Superl.</i>	<i>Compar.</i>	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Compar.</i>	<i>Superl.</i>
		bright	brighter	brightest
least bright	less bright		more bright	most bright
		red	redder	reddest
least red	less red	(reddish)	more red	most red
		narrow	narrower	narrowest
least narrow	less narrow		more narrow	most narrow

Adjectives compared only by Adverbs.

least solemn	less solemn	solemn	more solemn	most solemn
least capable	less capable	capable	more capable	most capable
least indecorous	less indecorous	indecorous	more indecorous	most indecorous

Irregular Comparisons.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
{ good	—	{ —
	better	best
{ bad	—	{ —
{ evil	—	{ —
{ ill	—	{ —
{ —	worse	worst
little	less (lesser)	least
{ much	—	{ —
{ many	—	{ —
{ —	more	most

EXERCISE 30.

Give the comparison of the following adjectives, both major and minor.

White, large, yellow, slender, noble, holy, respectable, dazzling, strait, straight, crooked, brave, generous, shallow, honest, unhappy, little, gentle, dirty, simple, hard-hearted, unforgiving, hollow.

191. The comparative degree refers to **two**, of *different* classes, and one should not include the other.

EXAMPLE.—“John is growing taller;” that is, taller *now* than *before*,—two different *times*.

192. The superlative refers to **two or more**, as of *one* class.

EXAMPLE.—Gold is the most ductile of metals.

193. RULE.—An **adjective** belongs to the *noun* or the *pronoun* which it describes or limits.

194. An adjective used in predication with a copulative verb, belongs to the subject of the verb.

EXAMPLES.—*John* is **amiable**.

He appears **happy**.

The *apple* tastes **sweet**.

The *boy* was made **miserable**.

PARSING.

Adjectives.

In parsing an adjective, *name* the word parsed; show its *meaning in connection* with the word or words necessary to explain its use, and only those; name its class (and sub-class); give its number, if certain or invariable; if comparable, name its degree, and inflect it; note any speciality in its use; state to what word it belongs, and quote the rule of syntax.

EXAMPLES.

“Wise men sometimes err.”

11. **Wise**.—*Wise* men.—“*Wise*” is used to describe the noun “*men*”. “Any word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun is an adjective.”

It is a describing adjective. “A describing or qualifying adjective shows some quality, condition, or circumstance.”

It is in the positive degree. “The positive degree expresses the quality simply, without direct reference to it in others.”

It is inflected,—positive, *wise*; comparative, *wiser*; superlative, *wisest*.

It belongs to the noun “*men*”. “An adjective belongs to the noun or the pronoun which it describes or limits.”

“The poor woman was unfortunate.”

12. **Unfortunate**.—*Woman*—was *unfortunate*.—“*Unfortunate*” is used to describe the noun “*woman*”. “Any word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun, is an adjective.”

It is a describing adjective. “A describing or qualifying adjective shows some quality, condition, or circumstance.”

It is in the positive degree. “The positive degree expresses the quality simply, without direct reference to it in others.”

It is not inflected, but is compared only by adverbs.

It is used in predication with the verb “*was*”, and it belongs to the noun “*woman*”, the subject of “*was*”. “An adjective belongs to the noun or the pronoun which it describes or limits.”

“She brought but one book, and that is it.”

13. **One**.—*One* book.—“*One*” is used to limit the noun “*book*”. “Any word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun, is an adjective.”

It is a numeral limiting adjective. “A limiting adjective merely limits without describing.” “A numeral adjective is an adjective which expresses a definite number.”

It is not comparable.

It belongs to the noun “*book*”. “An adjective belongs to the noun or the pronoun which it describes or limits.”

14. **That.**—*That* (book).—“*That*” is used to limit the noun “book”, omitted by ellipsis. “Any word used to describe or limit a noun or a pronoun, is an adjective.”

It is a pronominal limiting adjective. “A limiting adjective merely limits without describing.” “A pronominal adjective is an adjective which frequently represents its limited noun, omitted by ellipsis.”

It is not comparable.

It belongs to the noun *book*, understood. “An adjective belongs to the noun or the pronoun which it describes or limits.”

EXERCISE 31.

Parse the adjectives contained in the following passages.

In a large forest in France there lived a poor woodman, whose name was Jack. He made a little money by the sale of his fagots,—enough to support himself, his wife Jenny, and their two children. The eldest child was a boy, with dark hair, seven years old, called Jean, and the second was a fair-haired girl, called Jeanette.

They had also a large, black dog, with curly hair and a white nose,—the best dog in all the country,—and this dog was called Bandy.

When the snow lies deep in the forest, the wolves that live in its depths grow very hungry and fierce, and come out to look for food. The poor people also suffer much, in the time of deep snow, because they cannot get work.

Jack did not fear the wolves when he had his good axe in his hand, and he went every day to his work. In the morning he said to Jenny, “Wife, pray do not let Jean and Jeanette run out to play until the wolves have been hunted. It would not be safe. Keep Bandy in, too.”

Every morning Jack said the same thing to Jenny, and all went well till one evening, when he did not come home at the usual time. Jenny went to the door, looked out, came in, then went back, and looked out again. “How very late he is!” she said to herself.

VERBS.

195. A **Verb** is a word used to *say, tell, or assert.*

Any word used to say, tell, or assert,—or to form a predicate (either alone or with other words), is a **Verb**.

If the verb be taken away from a proposition, the remaining words do not say, assert, affirm, or deny any thing; they make no complete sense; they convey no thought.

“Attention—the proper and distinguishing excellence of the human mind; and, in connection with the faculty of abstraction,—the essential difference between man and the brute, as well intellectually as morally.”

Here are words of different parts of speech, some of them forming phrases which may be considered parts of speech, yet nothing is *told or said*. There is no subject, nor any predicate.

Insert “*is*” in the first blank, and “*forms*” in the second, and we have a sentence, expressing a thought, or, more correctly, two thoughts on “attention”.

“Attention” is the subject, and the predicate is compound; the two predicates of which it is composed, are separated by the semicolon, and connected by “*and*”, following it.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

196. A verb is either *transitive* or *intransitive*. A verb is either *regular* or *irregular*.

197. Some verbs are *copulative*, some are *impersonal*, some are *redundant*, and some are *defective*. Eight verbs are *auxiliary* verbs.

198. A **transitive verb** is a verb which has an object.

199. An **intransitive verb** is a verb which has not an object.

200. Most verbs are used at times transitively, and at other times intransitively.

EXAMPLES.—He **sees me**;—He **sees** clearly.

201. **Transitive** verbs have two voices; the **active**, and the **passive**.

202. **Voice** is that form of a *transitive* verb, which shows whether the *subject* of the proposition is the *doer* or the *receiver* of the action expressed by the verb.

203. The **active voice** of a verb is that form which, when finite, predicates an act of the *agent*, and which is limited by an *object*.

EXAMPLES.—They **call me**; **calling me**; **to call me**.

204. The **passive voice** of a verb is that form which, when finite, predicates an act of the *object* receiving the action.

EXAMPLES.—**I am called**; **being called**; **to be called**.

For further explanation, see pages 33 to 36.

An intransitive verb does not take the form of the passive voice; thus we may say *to exist*; but not *to be existed*, or *is existed*.

205. A verb is *transitive* whenever it is correctly used with an object, or is correctly used in the passive voice.

206. A verb is *intransitive* whenever it is correctly used in the simple form without an object.

207. A verb usually intransitive may take an object of like derivation; then, being transitive, it has a passive voice.

EXAMPLE.—To blow; to blow a *blast*; a *blast is blown*.

208. A **regular verb** is a verb that forms its past tense and its perfect participle by adding the suffix **-ed** to its present tense.

EXAMPLES.—Present, *call*; past, *called*; perfect participle, *called*.

209. An **irregular verb** is a verb that does not form its past tense and its perfect participle by adding the suffix **-ed** to its present tense.

Ex.—Present, *hold*; past, *held*; perfect participle, *held*.

“ *hear*; “ *heard*; “ “ *heard*.

The rules of spelling are observed in regular verbs; thus,

hate, hat ed, hat ed (not hate-ed).

dry, dri ed, dri ed (not dry-ed).

210. A **copulative verb** is an intransitive or a passive-transitive verb, which takes after it a predicate-nominative representing the *same* person or thing that the subject represents.

EXAMPLES.—He **is** a man.

He **is named** John.

The boy **became** a man.

211. An **impersonal verb** is a verb which, when finite, always has the indefinite subject *it*.

EXAMPLE.—**It rains**.

We may say *to rain*; *raining*; but never *I rain*, *he rains*, &c. with the usual meaning.

212. A **redundant verb** is a verb which has more than one form for its past tense, or for its perfect participle, or for both.

Ex.—Pres., *bid*; past, *bid or bade*; perf. part., *bid or bidden*.

“ *eat*; “ *eat or ate*; “ “ *eaten*.

213. A **defective verb** is a verb which is not used in all the usual forms.

EXAMPLES.—Must; ought.

214. An **auxiliary verb** is a verb used before another verb, to modify it with respect to *manner or time*.

The principal verb and the auxiliaries used with it are considered as one verb, but not as a compound verb.

215. The auxiliary verbs are *be, do, have, will, shall, may, can, and must*.

Be, do, have, and will, are also used as principal verbs; *shall, may, can, and must*, are only used as auxiliaries.

216. The **auxiliary be** has all the forms of the principal verb *be*; it is used to form the passive voice of transitive verbs, and also the progressive form of all verbs.

Thus, I **am** loved, I **was** loved, I **have been** loved, &c., are passive forms;

I **am** loving, I **was** loving, I **have been** loving, It **was being** shaken, &c., are progressive forms.

217. The auxiliaries *do, have, will, shall, may, and can*, are used in but two forms each, and *must* in but one form; thus,

Present, do, have, will, shall, may, can, must.

Past, did, had, would, should, might, could.

These forms, however, take personal suffixes.

“I go often.” “May I go?” “Yes, you may go.” “If I go, I may not return in time.” “Go at once.” “I wish to go.” “I saw her going to school.” The verb “go” is used in different manners in the above sentences, which have therefore different

meanings, although the general meaning of “going” remains the same.

We may also vary the form of the verb so as to correspond in meaning with words showing that we tell of the present time, some time past, or some time yet to come, and we may show that what we speak of is completed or ended at any of these times. Thus, “I speak to you.” “I spoke to you.” “I will speak of it.” “I have spoken of it.” “Thou hadst spoken before he spoke.”

ATTRIBUTES OF VERBS.

218. Verbs have *mood, tense, number, and person*.

Transitive verbs have also *voice*.

For *voice*, see pp. 35, 36.

MOOD.

219. **Mood** is that form of the verb, which denotes the *manner* in which the assertion is expressed.

A verb is used either with or without a subject;—when with a subject, it is called *finite*; when without a subject, it is called an *infinitive verb*.

The meaning of a *finite verb* may be expressed in *four* different ways.

1. It may be expressed unconditionally; as,

The boy *writes*; (or, *writes* a letter.)

2. It may be expressed as a possibility, obligation, volition, or duty; as,

The boy *may write*,—or *must write*; (or, *may write* a letter.)

3. It may be used in a conditional *dependent clause*, limiting the verb in the principal clause of a complex sentence; as,

You may see if the boy *writes*.

4. It may be used as a command, entreaty, or permission; as, *Write*; or, *Write*, boy.

The meaning of an *infinitive verb* may be expressed in *two* different ways.

1. It may be used vaguely, as merely naming the meaning of the verb; as,

To write; to write letters.

2. It may be expressed as a condition or state, used to describe a noun or a pronoun, or used as a noun; as,

Writing; writing letters; in writing.

220. Verbs have *five* moods; the *indicative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, and the *imperative*, which are finite,—and the *infinitive* mood.

Certain forms of infinitive verbs are called *participles*.

FINITE MOODS.

221. The **indicative mood** is that form of the verb, which simply indicates or declares.

EXAMPLE.—I **write**.

222. The **potential mood** is that form of the verb, which expresses liberty, possibility, or power, obligation, willingness, or duty.

EXAMPLE.—I **may write**.

223. The *indicative* or the *potential* mood is used in asking a **question**.

EXAMPLES.—**Write I?** or, **Do I write?** **May I write?**

224. The **subjunctive mood** is that form of the verb, which expresses a condition, contingency, or uncertainty, which limits some other verb.

225. The subjunctive mood is only used in a **dependent clause**, which generally limits the verb in the principal clause of a complex sentence.

EXAMPLE.—He *would know* it, *if it were* true.

The subjunctive mood is usually preceded by one of the con-

junctions, *if, though, although, lest, unless, except, whether, or provided*.

226. The indicative form, as well as the potential, may be used with a conjunction, *subjunctively*, and limiting another verb.

227. The **imperative mood** is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting.

EXAMPLES.—**Write; write** the letter.

228. The subject of the imperative mood is a pronoun of the *second* person, following it, and generally omitted by ellipsis.

EXAMPLES.—**Write** (thou). **Write** (you).

Whether it is *thou* (singular), or *you*, used for the singular or the plural, is understood from the context.

INFINITIVES.

229. The **infinitive mood** is that form of the verb, which names its meaning without asserting of any subject.

EXAMPLE.—**To write**.

The infinitive mood does not assert, because it is not used to form a predicate. It is used as a *noun*, as an *adjective*, or as an *adverb*.

Participles.

230. A **participle** is a form of the verb, which expresses the meaning of the verb as a condition or state, without predication, and which may be used to describe a noun, or, as a noun itself.

An *active-transitive* infinitive or participle governs an objective

case *as a verb*, while it is used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Participles (not having subjects) are classed among *infinitive verbs*.

A participle, or an infinitive, combined with one or more auxiliaries, becomes a *principal verb*; and the combination forms a mood and tense, or a compound participle, of the principal verb.

231. Besides the participles, there are but two infinitives; the *indefinite* or *present*, and the *perfect*.

These are sometimes called *tenses* of the infinitive mood.

Transitive verbs have the two in each voice.

232. The **infinitive-indefinite** gives the meaning of the verb, without regard to tense or time, in a form which is used like some other part of speech.

EXAMPLES.—**To hear** is not always **to understand**.

He is the very one **to do** it.

He was so foolish as **to refuse**.

233. The **infinitive-perfect** gives the meaning of the verb as completed or finished, in a form which is used like some other part of speech.

EXAMPLE.—He was said **to have finished** his task before he left.

Both forms commence with **to**, except when following certain verbs.

234. There are *three* participles; the *imperfect*, the *perfect*, and the *compound perfect*.

Transitive verbs have the three in each voice.

235. The **imperfect participle** denotes what is progressing and unfinished.

EXAMPLES.—*Writing*; *being written*.

It ends in the suffix **-ing**,—except in the passive voice, which has “**being**” and the *perfect participle*.

236. The **perfect participle** denotes what is complete and finished.

EXAMPLES.—*Written*; *been written*.

In regular verbs it ends with the suffix **-ed**.

237. The **compound perfect participle** denotes what *is, was, or will be* complete and finished before some time or act referred to.

EXAMPLES.—*Having written*; *having been written*.

It is composed of “**having**” and the *perfect participle*.

Tense.

238. **Tense** is that form of the verb, which expresses the time referred to.

239. Verbs have three distinctions of time, as *present, past, or future*.

240. There are three **simple** tenses,—the *present*, the *past*, and the *future*; and three **compound** or **perfect** tenses, denoting completion,—the *present perfect*, the *past perfect*, and the *future perfect*.

241. The **present** tense denotes simply *present* time.

EXAMPLE.—**I write**—(to-day).

242. The **past** tense denotes simply *past* time.

EXAMPLE.—**I wrote**—(yesterday).

243. The **future** tense denotes simply *future* time.

EXAMPLE.—**I shall write**—(to-morrow).

244. The **present perfect** tense denotes what *is* complete and finished at the *present* time.

EXAMPLE.—I **have written**—(to-day).

245. The **past perfect** tense denotes what *was* complete and finished at a *past* time referred to or implied.

EXAMPLE.—I **had written**—(before you saw me).

246. The **future perfect** tense denotes what *will be* complete and finished at a *future* time referred to or implied.

EXAMPLE.—I **shall have written**—(before he will see me).

Number of tenses in each mood.

Any definition of a tense applies strictly to *the indicative mood only*; and only the Indicative has six tenses.

The *potential mood* has no futures; but the meaning of the future may be expressed by any tense in the potential mood. The tenses are named only from their form.

The *subjunctive mood subjunctive form*, has only the present and the past;—the past is used only when formed with the auxiliary “*be*”. Either tense may have a future meaning.

The *imperative mood* has only the present tense; it implies the future in the fulfilling of the command, entreaty, &c.

The *infinitive mood* has the present tense, or *infinitive-indefinite*, used for any time,—and the perfect tense, or *infinitive-perfect*, used for full completion at any time.

The three participles are equivalent to three tenses, but the word *tense* is not applied to them, and it need not be to the infinitive mood.

Number and Person.

247. **Finite Verbs** have forms which vary with the number and person of the *subject*, and

these forms are called the number and person of the verb.

Like their subjects, finite verbs have *two numbers*; the *singular* and the *plural*;—and *three persons*; the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

The Progressive Form.

248. The **progressive form** of a verb is a form which expresses what is in progress, or is incomplete at the time referred to. Other words fix the time definitely in any tense but the present.

249. The *progressive form* of any verb is made by placing before its **imperfect participle** the proper mood, tense, number, and person of the verb “**to be**”. Thus,

Write. Ind., pres., 1st p., sing.,—*am*. I **am writing**.

In the progressive form the principal verb always ends in *-ing*, except in the passive.

Form of the Passive Voice.

250. The *passive voice* of any *transitive* verb is made by placing before its **perfect participle** the proper mood, tense, number, and person of the verb “**to be**”. Thus,

Write. Ind., pres., 3d p., sing.,—*is*. It **is written**.

The Emphatic Form.

251. The **emphatic form** of any verb is a form which expresses the assertion in the affirmative and negative styles with emphasis; and which

is used in the two interrogative styles to avoid abruptness.

The emphatic form is used only in the present and past tenses of the Indicative active, and the Indicative form of the Subjunctive active,—in the present of the Subjunctive form active,—and in the Imperative, both active and passive.

252. The *emphatic form* of a verb is made by placing before the simple form, the proper tense, number, and person of the auxiliary “do”.

Thus, I **do** write;—I **do** not write;—emphatic.

Do I write?—**Do** I not write?—not emphatic.

253. A form which is not progressive or emphatic, is called the *common form* of the verb.

Forms of the Moods and Tenses.

In the *common form*, excepting the potential mood and the whole passive voice of transitives,—

The **present** is the uninflected form of the verb,—*one word*, except that the infinitive has “to” before the other word. Thus, Ind., I write; Subj., If I write; Imp., Write; Inf., To write.

I talk; If I talk; Talk; To talk.

“To be” is irregular in the *indicative*.

The **past** is an inflected form, *one word*.

Thus, Ind., I wrote; I talked.

The **future** is the uninflected form with *shall* or *will* placed before it.

Thus, Ind., I shall write; I will write; I shall talk; I will talk.

Any perfect tense whatever is made by using *have* before the *perfect participle*, and “have” follows the rules given above for the present, past, and future.

The **potential** uses the other auxiliary forms, except those of “be” and “do”, and the *auxiliaries* follow *all* the above rules of formation, omitting the futures. The simple form of the principal verb is used, except after a form of “have”.

The **progressive form** is the *imperfect participle*

preceded by the auxiliary *be*, which follows *all* the above rules of formation. “Be” is irregular in the present and past, indicative.

The **passive voice** is the *perfect participle* preceded by the auxiliary *be*, which follows *all* the preceding rules of formation, but the passive is not used in the *progressive*, where “being” would follow “be” or “been”.

The **emphatic form** with *do*, is used only in the present and past tenses *simple*,—it is not used in the potential or the infinitive;—follows the above rules of formation where applicable.

The above rules apply to all verbs, *regular* or *irregular*.

Forms of the Numbers and Persons.

The **first person singular** of a tense has the simple form of the tense, except the verb “to be”.

Each person of the **plural** is like the first person singular, except the verb “to be”.

The **second person singular** of the *present* and *past* tenses of the indicative, and of an auxiliary (the *first* only, if more than one is used), takes the suffix **-est**.

The suffix is contracted to **-st** after *-ed*, and in some other cases,—and in a few verbs, to **-t**.

The **third person singular** of the *present* indicative, takes the suffix **-es** after a sibilant or a single vowel except *a*, and **-s** in other cases.

The suffix of the 2d person singular is often omitted by those who habitually use *thou*, and not *you*, for the singular.

CONJUGATION.

254. The **conjugation** of a verb is the regular arrangement of all its forms, in the voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

An intransitive verb has no object, and therefore cannot have a passive form; it has no distinction of voice, but its forms are like those of the active voice of a transitive verb.

The subject forms no part of the verb, but in a conjugation, personal

pronouns are used to allow the different forms for number and person of the verb, to be shown combined with the corresponding ones of the subject.

The object of a transitive verb is no part of the verb, but it is needed with the active voice, to show the transitiveness of the verb. The object becomes the subject of the passive voice; if the object be a noun or a pronoun *certain*, the passive corresponding contains the number and person of that object only; thus,

To call John. *Active, Ind., pres.*

<i>Sing., 1st p.</i> I call John	<i>Plur., 1st p.</i> We call John
<i>2d p.</i> Thou callest John	<i>2d p.</i> You call John
<i>3d p.</i> He calls John	<i>3d p.</i> They call John .

Passive, Ind., pres.

Sing., 3d p. **John is called**—(by me, by thee, by him, her, &c.
—by us, by you, by them, &c.)

To aid me. *Active, Ind., pres.*

<i>Sing., 1st p.</i> I aid myself .	<i>Plur., 1st p.</i> ———
<i>2d p.</i> Thou aidest me	<i>2d p.</i> You aid me .
<i>3d p.</i> He aids me .	<i>3d p.</i> They aid me .

Passive, Ind., pres.

Sing., 1st p. **I am aided.** ———(by myself, by thee, &c.)

The active corresponding strictly with the passive for all persons and numbers, must have a number of objects for any one person and number: thus,

To See (trans.). *Active, Ind., past.*

Sing., 3d p. She saw **me, thee, him (it, John, &c.), us, you, them (horses, &c.).**

		<i>Passive, Ind., past.</i>		
<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>1st p.</i> I am seen	} <i>is seen</i>	} by her.	<i>1st p.</i> We are seen	} <i>are seen</i>
<i>2d p.</i> Thou art seen			<i>2d p.</i> You are seen	
<i>3d p.</i> He			<i>3d p.</i> They	
It			Horses	
John			&c.	
&c.				

In the following conjugation, the letters *ob.* are used to represent an object of either number and of any person. It may be disregarded in reciting, or a noun or a pronoun may be substituted.

The left hand page, if the *ob.* were omitted, would show the conjugation of the *intransitive* verb "to call".

If the last word (*called*) were omitted on the right hand page, it would show the conjugation of the verb "to be", as a principal verb; except the perfect participle, "been". The right hand page now shows the conjugation of the auxiliary verb "to be" in conjunction with the principal verb "to call", forming the passive voice of "to call".

The imperfect participle active (**calling**), is used after "be" to form the progressive form active.

The perfect active participle (**called**), is used only after "have" to form the perfect tenses of the active voice.

The perfect passive participle (**called**), is used after "be" to form the whole passive voice.

The *full form* of the perfect passive participle (**been called**), is used after "have" to form the perfect tenses of the passive voice, *and in no other case.*

"Will" in the 1st person, and "shall" in the 2d and 3d persons, make an *emphatic* or promising future.

Instead of "may" in any form, *can*, or *must*, may be used.

Instead of "might" in any form, *could*, *would*, or *should*, may be used.

Instead of "if", in the subjunctive, *though*, *although*, *lest*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, or *provided*, may be used.

In all verbs, "wert" is the *only* word having a *personal* ending, that is used in the *subjunctive form* of the subjunctive mood.

Conjugation of the Transitive verb To Call.
Regular.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Principal Parts. **1, call; 2, called; 3, called.**

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense.</i> (1)		<i>Present Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I call ob.	I have called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou callest ob.	Thou hast called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" He calls ob.	He has called ob.	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We call ob.	We have called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" You call ob.	You have called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" They call ob.	They have called ob.	

<i>Past tense.</i> (2)		<i>Past Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I called ob.	I had called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou calledst ob.	Thou hadst called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" He called ob.	He had called ob.	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We called ob.	We had called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" You called ob.	You had called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" They called ob.	They had called ob.	

<i>Future tense.</i> (1)		<i>Future Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I shall call ob.	will	I shall have called ob.
<i>2d</i>	" Thou wilt call ob.	shalt	Thou wilt have called ob.
<i>3d</i>	" He will call ob.	shall	He will have called ob.
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We shall call ob.	will	We shall have called ob.
<i>2d</i>	" You will call ob.	shall	You will have called ob.
<i>3d</i>	" They will call ob.	shall	They will have called ob.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The tenses named from their forms only.

<i>Present tense.</i> (1)		<i>Present Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I may call ob.	I may have called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou mayst call ob.	Thou mayst have called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" He may call ob.	He may have called ob.	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We may call ob.	We may have called ob.	
<i>2d</i>	" You may call ob.	You may have called ob.	
<i>3d</i>	" They may call ob.	They may have called ob.	

Conjugation of the Transitive verb To Call.
Regular.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present tense.</i> (3)		<i>Present Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I am called	I have been called	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou art called	Thou hast been called	
<i>3d</i>	" He is called	He has been called	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We are called	We have been called	
<i>2d</i>	" You are called	You have been called.	
<i>3d</i>	" They are called	They have been called	

<i>Past tense.</i> (3)		<i>Past Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I was called	I had been called	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou wast called	Thou hadst been called	
<i>3d</i>	" He was called	He had been called	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We were called	We had been called	
<i>2d</i>	" You were called	You had been called	
<i>3d</i>	" They were called	They had been called	

<i>Future tense.</i> (3)		<i>Future Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I shall be called	will	I shall have been called
<i>2d</i>	" Thou wilt be called	shalt	Thou wilt have been called
<i>3d</i>	" He will be called	shall	He will have been called
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We shall be called	will	We shall have been called
<i>2d</i>	" You will be called	shall	You will have been called
<i>3d</i>	" They will be called	shall	They will have been called

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The tenses named from their forms only.

<i>Present tense.</i> (3)		<i>Present Perfect tense.</i> (3)	
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I may be called	I may have been called	
<i>2d</i>	" Thou mayst be called	Thou mayst have been called	
<i>3d</i>	" He may be called	He may have been called	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	" We may be called	We may have been called	
<i>2d</i>	" You may be called	You may have been called	
<i>3d</i>	" They may be called	They may have been called	

<i>To Call.</i>		<i>Active Voice.</i>
<i>Past tense. (1)</i>		<i>Past Perfect tense. (3)</i>
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I might call ob.	I might have called ob.
<i>2d</i>	Thou mightst call ob.	Thou mightst have called ob.
<i>3d</i>	He might call ob.	He might have called ob.
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	We might call ob.	We might have called ob.
<i>2d</i>	You might call ob.	You might have called ob.
<i>3d</i>	They might call ob.	They might have called ob.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The *Subjunctive mood indicative form* is the form of the indicative mood preceded by a conditional conjunction; as, *If thou callest.*

The *Subjunctive mood potential form* is the form of the potential mood preceded by a conditional conjunction; as, *If thou mayst call.*

Subjunctive form.

The tenses named from their forms only.

<i>Present tense. (1)</i>		<i>Indicative form.</i>
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	If I call ob.	Pres. t. If I call ob. If thou callest ob. If he calls ob. If we call ob. &c.
<i>2d</i>	If thou call ob.	Past t. If I called ob. If thou calledst ob. If he called ob. &c.
<i>3d</i>	If he call ob.	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	If we call ob.	<i>Potential form.</i>
<i>2d</i>	If you call ob.	Pres. t. If I may call ob. If thou mayst call ob. If he may call ob. &c.
<i>3d</i>	If they call ob.	Past t. If I might call ob. If thou mightst call ob. &c.

Past tense—not used. The indicative form is used in the six tenses, and the potential form in the four tenses of that mood.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Sing., 2d p.</i>	Call ^ ob.	The caret (^) shows the place of the subject understood,— <i>thou</i> or <i>you</i> . It is seldom expressed.
<i>Plur., 2d</i>	Call ^ ob.	

INFINITIVES.

<i>Infn. indef., (1)</i>	To call ob.	<i>Infn. perf., (3)</i>	To have called ob.
<i>Imperf. particip.,</i>	Calling ob.	<i>Comp. perf. } partic., (3)</i>	Having called ob.
<i>Perf. particip. (3)</i>	Called ob.		

<i>To Call.</i>		<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Past tense. (3)</i>		<i>Past Perfect tense. (3)</i>
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	I might be called	I might have been called
<i>2d</i>	Thou mightst be called	Thou mightst have been called
<i>3d</i>	He might be called	He might have been called
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	We might be called	We might have been called
<i>2d</i>	You might be called	You might have been called
<i>3d</i>	They might be called	They might have been called

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The *Subjunctive mood indicative form* is the form of the indicative mood preceded by a conditional conjunction; as, *If thou art called.*

The *Subjunctive mood potential form* is the form of the potential mood preceded by a conditional conjunction; as, *If thou mayst be called.*

Subjunctive form.

The tenses named from their forms only.

<i>Present tense.</i>		<i>Indicative form.</i>
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	If I be called	Pres. t. If I am called , If thou art called , If he is called , &c.
<i>2d</i>	If thou be called	Past t. If I was called , If thou wast called , If he was called , &c.
<i>3d</i>	If he be called	
<i>Plur., 1st</i>	If we be called	<i>Potential form.</i>
<i>2d</i>	If you be called	Pres. t. If I may be called , If thou mayst be called , If he may be called , &c.
<i>3d</i>	If they be called	Past t. If I might be called , If thou mightst be called , &c.
<i>Past tense.</i>		Subjunctive mood without conjunction.
<i>Sing., 1st p.</i>	If I were called	<i>Past tense. Past Perfect tense.</i>
<i>2d</i>	If thou wert called	Were I called Had I been called
<i>3d</i>	If he were called	Wert thou called Hadst thou been called
<i>Plur., 1st p.</i>	If we were called	Were he called, &c. Had he been called, &c.
<i>2d</i>	If you were called	
<i>3d</i>	If they were called	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Sing., 2d p.</i>	Be ^ called	The caret (^) shows the place of the subject understood,— <i>thou</i> in the sing., <i>you</i> in the plur., commonly omitted.
<i>Plur., 2d</i>	Be \ called	

INFINITIVES.

<i>Infn. indef., (3)</i>	To be called	<i>Infn. perf., (3)</i>	To have been called
<i>Imperf. part., (3)</i>	Being called	<i>Com. perf. } part., (3)</i>	Having been called
<i>Perf. part. (3)</i>	— called		

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

To Call. Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense.

Sing., 1st p. I **am calling** ob.
 2d " Thou **art** calling ob.
 3d " He **is** calling ob.
Plur., 1st " We **are** calling ob.
 2d " You are calling ob.
 3d " They are calling ob.

Past tense.

Sing., 1st p. I **was calling** ob.
 2d " Thou **wast** calling ob.
 3d " He **was** calling ob.
Plur., 1st " We **were** calling ob.
 2d " You were calling ob.
 3d " They were calling ob.

Future tense.

Sing., 1st p. I **shall be calling** ob.
 2d " Thou **wilt** be calling ob.
 3d " He will be calling ob.
Plur., 1st " We shall be calling ob.
 2d " You will be calling ob.
 3d " They will be calling ob.

Present Perfect tense.

I **have been calling** ob.
 Thou **hast** been calling ob.
 He **has** been calling ob.
 We have been calling ob.
 You have been calling ob.
 They have been calling ob.

Past Perfect tense.

I **had** been calling ob.
 Thou **hadst** been calling ob.
 He had been calling ob.
 We had been calling ob.
 You had been calling ob.
 They had been calling ob.

Future Perfect tense.

I **shall have been calling** ob.
 Thou **wilt** have been calling ob.
 He will have been calling ob.
 We shall have been calling ob.
 You will have been calling ob.
 They will have been calling ob.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The tenses named from their forms only.

Present tense.

Sing., 1st p. I may **be calling** ob. I **may have been calling** ob.
 2d " Thou **mayst** be calling ob. Thou **mayst** have been calling ob.
 3d " He may be calling ob. He **may** have been calling ob.
Plur., 1st " We may be calling ob. We may have been calling ob.
 2d " You may be calling ob. You may have been calling ob.
 3d " They may be calling ob. They may have been calling ob.

Present Perfect tense.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

To Call. Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense.

Sing., 1st p. I **am being called**
 2d " Thou **art** being called
 3d " He **is** being called
Plur., 1st " We **are** being called
 2d " You are being called
 3d " They are being called

Past tense.

Sing., 1st p. I **was being called**
 2d " Thou **wast** being called
 3d " He **was** being called
Plur., 1st " We **were** being called
 2d " You were being called
 3d " They were being called

The progressive form of the passive voice is frequently used with verbs whose meaning does not show a permanence, but yet allows a continuance for a time; and it is proper with such verbs only; thus,

I am being examined, aided, injured, helped, trifled with, imposed on, &c.

In the *third person*, its use is more extensive; as,

The house is being built, destroyed, torn down, &c.

The book is being read, criticized, talked of, &c.

Like the rest of the progressive form it is only used in the present, or when other words fix the time definitely.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Subjunctive form.

Past tense; named from its form.

Sing., 1st p. If I **were being called**
 2d " If thou **wert** being called
 3d " If he were being called
Plur., 1st " If we were being called
 2d " If you were being called
 3d " If they were being called

The progressive passive is not used in other forms than the above. In other tenses two words from the root "be" would come together, and make a cacophonous combination; as, I will *be being* called.

To Call. Progressive Form, Active Voice.*Past tense.**Singular.*

- 1st p. I **might be calling** ob. I **might have been calling** ob.
 2d " Thou might**st** be calling ob. Thou might**st** have been calling ob.
 3d " He might be calling ob. He might have been calling ob.

*Past Perfect tense.**Singular.**Plural.**Plural.*

- 1st " We might be calling ob. We might have been calling ob.
 2d " You might be calling ob. You might have been calling ob.
 3d " They might be calling ob. They might have been calling ob.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Subjunctive mood-indicative form,—as before; thus, If I **am calling** ob.; If thou **art calling** ob.

Subjunctive mood potential form,—as before; thus, If I **may be calling** ob.; If thou **mayst be calling** ob., &c.

Subjunctive form.

(The tenses named from their forms only.)

Present tense.

- Sing.*, 1st p. If I **be calling** ob.
 2d " If thou **be calling** ob.
 3d " If he **be calling** ob.
Plur., 1st " If we **be calling** ob.
 2d " If you **be calling** ob.
 3d " If they **be calling** ob.

Past tense.

- Sing.*, 1st p. If I **were calling** ob.
 2d " If thou **wert calling** ob.
 3d " If he **were calling** ob.
Plur., 1st " If we **were calling** ob.
 2d " If you **were calling** ob.
 3d " If they **were calling** ob.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- Sing.*, 2d p. **Be** \wedge **calling** ob.
Plur., 2d p. **Be** \wedge **calling** ob.

INFINITIVES.

- Inf. indef.*, **To be calling** ob. *Inf. per.*, **To have been calling** ob.
Imperf. particip. **Calling** ob. *Comp. perf.* } **Having been call-**
Perf. particip., * **Been calling** ob. *part.*, } **ing** ob.

* Used only after "have" to form active progressive perfect tenses.

List of Irregular Verbs.

255. The **principal parts** of a verb, in English, are the *present infinitive*, the *past indicative*, and the *perfect participle* (active, if the verb is transitive).

The present infinitive gives name to the verb, and it is the form found in a dictionary, "to" being omitted.

When the past indicative and the perfect participle are formed by adding the suffix **-ed** to the present infinitive, the verb is *regular*; any variation from this makes the verb *irregular*. *Personal* suffixes (**-est**, **-es**), are disregarded.

The past tense is never used after an auxiliary.

The auxiliary "**have**" must be followed by the **perfect participle** of the principal verb, or of the auxiliary "**be**".

The auxiliary "**be**" must be followed by the **imperfect** or the **perfect participle** of the principal verb.

I. *Verbs having but one form for the three parts.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
Beset	beset	beset	Put	put	put
Bespread	bespread	bespread	Reset	reset	reset
Bestead	bestead	bestead	Rid	rid	rid
Burst	burst	burst	Set	set	set
Cast	cast	cast	Shed	shed	shed
Cost	cost	cost	Shred	shred	shred
Cut	cut	cut	Shut	shut	shut
Hit	hit	hit	Split	split	split
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Spread	spread	spread
Let	let	let	Thrust	thrust	thrust
Rēad	rēad	rēad	(spoken differently).		

II. *Two forms: Past and Perfect participle alike.***Change of vowels only.**

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
ee	e	e	Meet	met	met
Bleed	bled	bled	Speed	sped	sped
Breed	bred	bred	ea	e	e
Feed	fed	fed	Lead	led	led

Present.	Past.	Perf. part.	Present.	Past.	Perf. part.
Mislead	misled	misled	i	u	u
Get	got	got (gotten, obsol'ty)	Cling	clung	clung
			Fling	flung	flung
			Shrink	shrank	shrank
			Sling	slung	slung
Sit	sat	sat	Slink	slunk	slunk
			Spin	spun	spun
Abide	abode	abode	Stick	stuck	stuck
Win	won	won	String	strung	strung
			Swing	swung	swung
Bind	bound	bound	Wring	wrung	wrung
Fight	fought	fought		e	e
Find	found	found	Behold	beheld	beheld
Grind	ground	ground	Hold	held	held
Unbind	unbound	unbound	Withhold	withheld	withheld
Unwind	unwound	unwound		o	o
Wind	wound	wound	Shoot	shot	shot

Change in consonants.

-d added.

Flee	fled	fled	Relay	relaid	relaid
Have	had	had	Repay	repaid	repaid
Hear	heard	heard	Say	said	said
Lay	laid	laid	Sell	sold	sold
Mislay	mislaid	mislaid	Shoe	shod	shod
Overlay	overlaid	overlaid	Tell	told	told
Pay	paid	paid	Undersell	undersold	undersold
Prepay	prepaid	prepaid	Unsay	unsaid	unsaid

-t added.

Beseech	besought	besought	Misteach	mistaught	mistaught
Bring	brought	brought	Seek	sought	sought
Buy	bought	bought	Sleep	slept	slept
Creep	crept	crept	Sweep	swept	swept
Feel	felt	felt	Teach	taught	taught
Keep	kept	kept	Think	thought	thought
Leave	left	left	Unteach	untaught	untaught
Lose	lost	lost	Weep	wept	wept

Present.	Past.	Perf. part.	Present.	Past.	Perf. part.
Bend	bent	bent	Send	sent	sent
Lend	lent	lent	Spend	spent	spent
Misspend	misspent	misspent	Unbend	unbent	unbent
Rend	rent	rent			
Make	made	made	Stand	stood	stood
Unmake	unmade	unmade	Withstand	withstood	withstood

Two forms: Present and Perfect participle alike.

Become	became	become	Overcome	overcame	overcome
Come	came	come	Overrun	overran	overrun
Outrun	outran	outran	Run	ran	run

III. Three Forms.

-en (-n, -ne) added to past, to form perf. part.

Bear ^(to carry, support)	bore	borne	Overlie	overlay	overlain
Bespeak	bespoke	bespoken	Slide	slid	slidden
Break	broke	broken	Speak	spoke	spoken
Choose	chose	chosen	Steal	stole	stolen
Fly	flew	flown	Swear	swore	sworn
Forbear	forbore	forborne	Tear	tore	torn
Forswear	forswore	forsworn	Tread	trod	trodden
Freeze	froze	frozen	Underlie	underlay	underlain
Lie	lay	lain	Wear	wore	worn
Outwear	outwore	outworn	Weave	wove	woven

-en (-n, -ne) added to present, to form perf. part.

Arise	arose	arisen	Foreknow	foreknew	foreknown
Be	was	been	Foresee	foresaw	foreseen
Befall	befell	befallen	Foreshow	foreshowed	foreshown
Betake	betook	betaken	Forgive	forgave	forgiven
Blow	blew	blown	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Do	did	done	Give	gave	given
Draw	drew	drawn	Go	went	gone
Drive	drove	driven	Grow	grew	grown
Fall	fell	fallen	Know	knew	known
Forego	forewent	foregone	Lade	laded	laden

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf. part.</i>
Misdo	misdid	misdone	Shake	shook	shaken
Misgive	misgave	misgiven	Show	showed	shown
Mistake	mistook	mistaken	Slay	slew	slain
Outdo	outdid	outdone	Smite	smote	smitten
Outgrow	outgrew	outgrown	Strive	strove	striven
Overdo	overdid	overdone	Take	took	taken
Oversee	oversaw	overseen	Throw	threw	thrown
Overtake	overtook	overtaken	Undergo	underwent	undergone
Overthrow	overthrew	overthrown	Undertake	undertook	undertaken
Retake	retook	retaken	Undo	undid	undone
Rewrite	rewrote	rewritten	Unlade	unladed	unladen
Rise	rose	risen	Withdraw	withdrew	withdrawn
Rive	riven	rived	Write	wrote	written
See	saw	seen			

Begin	began	begun	Dare (^{to venture})	durst	dared
Drink	drank	drunk	Dare (to challenge) is regular.		

REDUNDANT IRREGULAR VERBS.

IV. *Two forms for past tense.*

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>		<i>Perfect part.</i>
Crow	crew	or crowed	crowed
Heave	hove	" heaved	heaved
Ring	rang	" rung	rung
Sing	sang	" sung	sung
Sink	sank	" sunk	sunk
Spit	spat	" spit	spit
Spring	sprang	" sprung	sprung
Stink	stank	" stunk	stunk
Swim	swam	" swum	swum
Thrive	throve	" thrived	thriven

The first form of the past of the above verbs is older, and is now less generally used, than the second; it will, perhaps, soon become obsolete.

V. *Two forms for perfect participle.*

Both irregular, as well as past.

Bear (^{to produce young})	bore	borne (<i>active</i>)	born (<i>passive</i>)
Beat	beat	beat	or beaten
Begot	begot	begot	" begotten

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perfect part.</i>	
Bit	bit	bit	or bitten
Chide	chid	chid	" chidden
Forget	forgot	forgot	" forgotten
Hide	hid	hid	" hidden
Outride	outrode	outrode	" outridden
Override	overrode	overrode	" overridden
Ride	rode	rode	" ridden
Strike	struck	struck	" stricken
Tread	trod	trod	" trodden

Regular, except the redundant participle.

Clothe	clothed	clad	or clothed
Grave	graved	graven	" graved
Hew	hewed	hewn	" hewed
Load	loaded	laden	" loaded
Misshape	misshaped	misshapen	" misshaped
Mow	mowed	mown	" mowed
Prove	proved	proven	" proved
Reload	reloaded	reladen	" reloaded
Saw	sawed	sawn	" sawed
Seethe	seethed	sodden	" seethed
Shape	shaped	shapen	" shaped
Shear	sheared	shorn	" sheared
Shave	shaved	shaven	" shaved
Sow (to seed)	sowed	sown	" sowed
Swell	swelled	swollen	" swelled
Unload	unloaded	unladen	" unloaded
Wax (to grow)	waxed	waxen	" waxed

The irregular participles are obsolescent.

VI. *Two forms for past tense and two for perf. part.*

All irregular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>		<i>Perfect part.</i>	
Bestride	bestrid	bestrode	bestrid	bestridden
Bid	bid	bade	bid	bidden
Cleave (to split)	cleft	clove	cleft	cloven
Eat	(ate)	eat	eat	eaten
Stride	strid	strode	strid	stridden

Both regular and irregular forms.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>		<i>Perfect part.</i>	
Awake	awoke	awaked	awoke	awaked
Bereave	bereft	bereaved	bereft	bereaved
Build	built	(buildd)	built	(buildd)
Burn	burnt	burned	burnt	burned
Catch	caught	(catchd)	caught	(catchd)
Deal	dealt	dealed	dealt	dealed
Dig	dug	digged	dug	digged
Dwell	dwelt	dwelled	dwelt	dwelled
Gild	(gilt)	gilded	gilt	gilded
Gird	(girt)	girded	(girt)	girded
Hang	hung	(hanged)	hung	(hanged)
Kneel	knelt	kneeled	knelt	kneeled
Knit	knit	knitted	knit	knitted
Quit	quit	quitted	quit	quitted
Rebuild	rebuilt	(rebuilt)	rebuilt	(rebuilt)
Regild	(regilt)	regilded	regilt	regilded
Shine	shone	(shined)	shone	(shined)
Slit	slit	slitted	slit	slitted
Spill	spilt	spilled	spilt	spilled
Stave	stove	staved	stove	staved
Stay	staid	stayed	staid	stayed
Sweat	sweat	sweated	sweat	sweated
Ungird	(ungirt)	ungirded	(ungirt)	ungirded
Wet	wet	wetted	wet	wetted
Work	wrought	worked	wrought	worked

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>		<i>Perfect participle.</i>	
Bestrew bestrow	bestrewed	bestrowed	bestrown	bestrown
Strew strow	strewed	strowed	strown	strowed

Some of the forms are enclosed in curves (), these are but little used in comparison with the other forms. Many other forms, now obsolete, were formerly used. They are to be found in Dictionaries.

EXERCISE 32.

Tell the voice of each transitive verb in the sentences in Exercises 27, 29, and 31.

Tell the mood of each verb in the same sentences.

Tell the tense of each verb in the same sentences.

Show which are regular and which are irregular, and give the principal parts of each one.

Change the voice of each verb, taking the proper word for the subject, and giving the object with the active voice.

Change the verbs to other moods and to other tenses.

Do the same with the verbs in other selected passages.

Finite Verbs.

256. RULE.—A **finite verb** must agree with its **subject** in **number** and **person**.

A finite verb agrees with a subject **pronoun** in the **first** or **second person**, and not with a noun.

Thus, in "John, write"; "write" agrees with **thou** (or **you**) understood.

A finite verb agrees with "**we**" or "**you**" in the **plural**, even when used for the singular.

EXAMPLE.—John, **you were** right.

A **plural** verb is required when two or more subjects of the verb are connected by "**and**", expressed or understood.

EXAMPLE.—**John and James learn**.

Here **John** and **James** form a compound subject equivalent to a plural noun.

When there are several subjects of the same proposition, the verb must be in the **first** person, if there is a subject of the **first** person; and in the **second** person, if there is a subject of the **second** person, but none of the **first**.

EXAMPLES.—**You** and **I are** = (**we are**).

You and **he are** = (**you are**).

He and **she are** = (**they are**).

PARSING.

Finite Verbs.

In parsing a finite verb, *name* the verb parsed, taking the whole verb if of more than one word; show its *meaning in connection* with its *subject*, and, if transitive and in the active voice, with its

object also; then, state the *kind* of verb; whether *regular* or *irregular*, giving the principal parts; if transitive, give the *voice*; state the *form*, the *mood*, the *tense*, and the *agreement* in number and person, quoting the *rule of agreement*, and any special rule applicable.

EXAMPLES.

"John calls me, and I must go."

15. **Calls.**—John *calls* me.—"*Calls*" is used to tell something of "John", and to form a predicate with "John" for the subject. "Any word used to say, tell, or assert,—or to form a predicate, is a verb." "A verb limited to a subject, is a finite verb."

It is limited by an object, the pronoun "me". "A verb limited by an object, is a transitive verb."

Past tense, John *called* me. Present perfect tense, John has *called* me.

It is a regular verb. "A regular verb is a verb that forms its past tense and its perfect participle by adding the suffix -ed to its present tense."

It is in the active voice. "The active voice asserts of the agent, or doer of the action expressed by the verb."

It is in the indicative mood. "The indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply indicates or declares."

It is in the present tense. "The present tense denotes simply present time."

It agrees with its subject, the noun "John", in the singular number and third person. "A finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person."

"John, write the letter, if you desire to do it."

16. **Write.**—*Write* (you) letter.—"*Write*" is used to say or tell something of *you*, meaning "John". It forms a predicate with *you* for the subject. "Any word used to say, tell, or assert,—or to form a predicate, is a verb." "A verb limited to a subject, is a finite verb."

It is limited by an object, the noun "letter". "A verb limited by an object is a transitive verb."

Present tense, I *write*. Past tense, I *wrote*. Present perfect tense, I have *written*.

It is an irregular verb. "An irregular verb is a verb that does not form its past tense and its perfect participle by adding the suffix -ed to its present tense."

It is in the active voice. "The active voice asserts of the agent, or doer of the action expressed by the verb."

It is in the imperative mood. "The imperative mood is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting."

It is in the present tense. The imperative mood has only the present tense.

It agrees with its subject, the pronoun *you*, understood after it, in the plural number, used for the singular, and the second person. "A finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person."

"The boys might have been hurt."

17. **Might have been hurt.**—Boys *might have been hurt*,—something might have hurt boys.—"*Might have been hurt*" is used to tell something of "boys", and to form a predicate with "boys" for the subject. "Any word used to say, tell, or assert,—or to form a predicate, is a verb." "A verb limited to a subject is a finite verb."

If the agent were the subject, it would be limited by an object, the noun "boys". "A verb limited by an object, is a transitive verb."

Present tense, I *hurt* now. Past tense, I *hurt* yesterday. Present perfect tense, I have *hurt*.

It is an irregular verb. "An irregular verb is a verb that does not form its past tense and its perfect participle by adding the suffix -ed to its present tense."

It is in the passive voice. "The passive voice asserts of the patient, or receiver of the action expressed by the verb."

It is in the potential mood. "The potential mood is that form of the verb, which expresses liberty, *possibility*, or power, obligation, willingness, or duty."

It is in the past perfect tense, named from its form, composed of the past form "might" and the perfect participle "been hurt" used after "have".

It agrees with its subject, the noun "boys", in the plural number and third person. "A finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person."

EXERCISE 33.

Parse the finite verbs contained in the following passages.

Our uncle Robert came to us, and invited us to dinner. He promised to give us a pudding, the materials of which had employed more than a thousand men!

"A pudding that has taken a thousand men to make! Then it must be as large as a church."

"Well, my boys," said uncle Robert, "to-morrow, at dinner-time, you shall see it."

Scarcely had we taken our breakfast, the next day, when we got ready to go to our uncle's house.

When we arrived there, we were surprised to see every thing as calm and quiet as usual.

At last we sat down to the table. The first course was removed; our eyes were eagerly fixed on the door,—in came the pudding! It was a plum-pudding of the usual kind,—not a bit larger.

"This is not the pudding that you promised us," said my brother.

"It is, indeed," said uncle Robert.

"O, uncle! you do not mean to say that more than a thousand men have helped to make that little pudding?"

"Eat some of it first, my boy; and then take your slate and pencil, and help me to count the workmen," said uncle Robert.

Infinitive Verbs.

Infinitive used as Noun.

257. RULE.—An **infinitive** or a **participle**, used as a *noun*, takes the *case* of the noun; and if transitive and in the active voice, it governs an *object*.

258. A **participle** used as a *noun* and preceded by an *article* or an *adjective*, is used *intransitively*, and it takes the preposition "**of**" to govern the *objective*.

EXAMPLES.—In **this reading of** the poem, omissions will be made; or,

In **reading the poem**, omissions will be made.

A **reading of** the poem satisfied him.

Some **beautiful readings of** the poem, pleased all.

Describing Participle.

259. RULE.—A **participle** not used as a *noun* or as part of a finite verb, belongs to the *noun* or the *pronoun* which it describes.

A **participle** describing a *noun* or a *pronoun*, may be modified by *adverbs*; and when transitive and in the active voice, it governs an *object*.

EXAMPLE.—John, **hastily finishing** his task, prepared to leave.

Modifying Infinitive.

260. RULE.—An **infinitive** not used as a *noun* or as part of a *finite verb*, belongs to the *word* it describes or modifies, or whose meaning it completes.

261. "**To**" is a part of the infinitive mood, but it is omitted after the active voice, finite, of the verbs *bid* (to command), *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, and also *see* and verbs of like meaning (as, *observe*, *behold*, *watch*, &c.), and after the intransitive verb *dare*.

Thus, He **need not go**. (*To go*.)

I **hear him speak**. (*To speak*.)

The passive voice of the verbs *bid*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*,

see, &c., requires the "to" of the following infinitive to be expressed; and, in some instances, the active voice requires it.

EXAMPLES.—Man *is made to mourn*.

I *feel it to be* my duty to go.

In this elementary book, no examples of the manner of parsing infinitive verbs are given, they being difficult for beginners.

If the teacher desires to take up infinitives for parsing before using the larger grammar, those of simple construction may be parsed as words of other classes than verbs. For instance, those used as subjects or objects of finite verbs may be parsed as nouns, those limiting nouns or pronouns as adjectives, and those modifying verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, as adverbs.

See the author's larger grammar.

ADVERBS.

262. An **adverb** is a word used to modify a *verb*, an *adjective*, another *adverb*, or a *limiting phrase*.

Any word used to modify a *verb*, an *adjective*, another *adverb*, or a *limiting phrase*, is an **adverb**.

An **adverb** should *not* be used to qualify a *noun* or a *pronoun*.

Thus, "The apple tastes *sweet*";—not *sweetly*, for the adjective "*sweet*" is used to describe the noun "*apple*", and not to show the manner of *tasting*.

Sometimes an adverb modifying a verb, at the same time relates to a noun or a pronoun.

EXAMPLE.—She called *not you*, but your sister.

An **adjective** should *not* be used to modify a *verb*, an *adjective*, or an *adverb*.

Thus, "She sang *sweetly*";—not *sweet*, for the adverb "*sweetly*" modifies the verb "*sang*", showing the manner of *singing*; it is not used to describe the pronoun "*she*".

Some words are sometimes used to limit or describe *nouns* or *pronouns*, and then are **adjectives**; and at other times to limit or modify *verbs*, *adjectives*, *adverbs*, or *phrases*, and then are **adverbs**.

EXAMPLES.—*Much, little, well, ill*, and their comparatives and superlatives;—*no, only, still, first, last, fast, &c.*

Interrogative Adverbs.

Interrogative adverbs are those used in asking questions; as, *how, when, where, why, &c.*

They are derived from old forms of interrogative pronouns.

A word, a phrase, or a clause, which gives the **answer** to an interrogative adverb, is an **adverb**, or an **adverbial phrase** or **clause**.

Thus, *When* will he go? **Soon**.

Where was he? He was **at home**.

Why did he do it? He did it **because he knew no better**.

Yes, no,—yea, and nay are used to answer questions, asked or implied; the one used belongs, not to the verb alone, but to the whole question, subject as well as predicate, and particularly to the emphasized word.

Not is used to make an assertion negative. Its place is after the *first word* of the verb, and after a subject pronoun if it follows the verb.

EXAMPLES.—He *would not* have been overtaken,—*had he not* fallen.

He *heeds not*, he *cares not*.

Not is often combined with *can*; as I *cannot* go.

Classes of Adverbs.

Adverbs are classed according to their meaning and use.

The principal classes are

1. *Interrogative Adverbs*,
2. *Adverbs of Manner*; answering the question **How?** or **Why?**
3. *Adverbs of Degree*; answering **How?** or **How much?**
4. *Adverbs of Time*; answering **When?** **How long?** **How often?**

5. *Adverbs of Place*; answering **Where? Whence? Whither? Whereabouts?**

Comparison of Adverbs.

263. Most adverbs of *manner* from *quality* or *mode*, and some adverbs of *degree* are compared.

A few adverbs of *time*, and of *place*, or *direction*, may be compared.

Many adverbs are not comparable.

264. Adverbs have three degrees of comparison; the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*; corresponding to the degrees of adjectives.

Inflected Comparison.

265. **Monosyllabic adverbs** generally form the *major comparative* by adding **-er** to the positive; and form the *major superlative* by adding **-est** to the positive.

EXAMPLE.—*Positive*, late; *comparative*, later; *superlative*, latest.

266. All comparable adverbs except monosyllables, and these sometimes, form the *major comparative* by taking the adverb **more** before the positive; and form the *major superlative* by taking the adverb **most** before the positive.

267. All comparable adverbs form the *minor comparative* by taking the adverb **less** before the positive; and form the *minor superlative* by taking the adverb **least** before the positive.

Regular Inflected Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
fast	faster	fastest.

Full Comparison.

<i>Minor.</i>		<i>Major.</i>		
<i>Super.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Super.</i>
		late	later	latest (last)
least late	less late	brightly	more late	most late
least brightly	less brightly	so	more brightly	most brightly
least so	less so		more so	most so

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
{ well	—	—
{ —	better	best
{ ill	—	—
{ badly	—	—
{ —	worse	worst
{ much	—	—
{ —	more	most
little	less	least
far	{ farther	farthest
	{ further	furthest

More, most, less, or least, when used to modify an adjective or an adverb, may be parsed separately, but the common practice is to consider the two words as forming the comparative or the superlative degree of the adjective or the adverb modified.

268. The *comparative* degree refers to **two** states, conditions, times, manners, &c.; and the *superlative* to **two or more**.

269. RULE.—An **adverb** belongs to the *verb*, the *adjective*, or the *adverb*, which it modifies or limits.

An **adverb** sometimes belongs to a *phrase* which takes the place of an adjective or an adverb.

EXAMPLE.—He came **exactly** *in time*.

An **adverb** sometimes belongs to a *clause* or a *sentence*.

EXAMPLES.—**Fortunately**, he knows nothing of the affair.

Did you see him? **No**.

An **adverbial phrase** belongs to the *verb*, the *adjective*, or the *adverb*, which it modifies or limits.

PARSING.

Adverbs.

In parsing an adverb, *name* the word parsed; show its *meaning* in connection with the word or words necessary to explain its use, and only those; name its *class*; if comparable, name the *degree*; if inflected, give the *comparison*; note any speciality in its use; state to what word it *belongs*, and quote the *rule of syntax*.

EXAMPLES.

"They lived together there, long and happily."

18. **Together**.—Lived *together*.—"Together" is used to modify the verb "*lived*". "Any word used to modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a limiting phrase, is an **adverb**."

It is an adverb of manner; it shows *how* "they lived".

It is not comparable. It belongs to the verb "*lived*". "An adverb belongs to the verb, the adjective, or the adverb, which it modifies or limits."

19. **Long**.—Lived *long*.—"Long" is used to modify the verb "*lived*". "Any word used to modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a limiting phrase, is an **adverb**."

It is an adverb of time; it shows *how long* "they lived together".

It is in the positive degree. "The positive degree expresses the quality [or modification] simply, without direct reference to it in others."

It is inflected,—positive, *long*; comparative, *longer*; superlative *longest*.

It belongs to the verb "*lived*". "An adverb belongs to the verb, the adjective, or the adverb, which it modifies or limits."

EXERCISE 34.

Parse the adverbs contained in the following sentences.

He very seldom came late, perhaps never.

How do you do to-day? Very well.

Where have you been so very early?

He appeared as nearly drunk as I ever saw a Granadino.

After the ceremony was over, they went on homewards.

The river here is about as broad as the Hudson at Albany, and much more rapid.

Some persons have very many friends, others have but few, but he who has none at all, is very much to be pitied.

How far off lie these armies?

If he does not read the poem well, he must read it over again.

She was still in her hat and velvet jacket, seated rather on the edge of her chair, talking very volubly, but looking breathless and anxious.

Wherefore do you not try to read correctly?

I could not get here any sooner, for I was necessarily and unavoidably detained.

She sings beautifully; I heard her only yesterday.

PREPOSITIONS.

270. A **Preposition** is a word used before a *noun* or a *pronoun* to show its *relation* to another word.

Any word used before a *noun* or a *pronoun* to show its relation to another word, or to form with it a *phrase* equivalent to some part of speech, is a **preposition**.

"He came *in haste*." "In" is used before the noun "*haste*" to show its relation to the verb "*came*"; and the phrase "*in haste*" is equivalent to an adverb of manner, modifying "*came*".

"He was a man *of great talent*." "Of" is used before the noun "*talent*" to show its relation to the noun "*man*"; and the phrase "*of great talent*" is equivalent to an adjective, describing the noun "*man*".

Prepositions are *simple, derivative, or compound*.

Simple: a, at, but, by, down, for, from, in, like, near, nigh, of, on, round, since, through, till, to, up, with, worth.

Derivative: after, over, under (*which were comparatives*); past, concerning, during, excepting, regarding, respecting, touching (*which were participles*); except, save (*which were imperative verbs*).

Compound: into, notwithstanding, throughout, toward, towards, underneath, unto, upon, within, without:

(A) about, above, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, athwart:

(By) before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond.

271. **RULE.**—A **preposition** governs an *objective*, and with it forms a **phrase** which describes or modifies a preceding word.

PARSING.

Prepositions.

In parsing a preposition, *name* the word parsed, giving the whole of a complex preposition; connect it with its *antecedent term* of relation and its *object*, but with no other words;—show the words between which it expresses a *relation*, and which word (or phrase) it *governs*; show what the prepositional phrase *describes* or *modifies*, and quote the *rule of syntax*.

EXAMPLES.

"He is a man of peace."

20. **Of.**—Man *of* peace.—"Of" is the connective of the phrase "of peace", which limits the noun "man". It is placed before the noun "peace", and shows its relation to the noun "man". "Any word used before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to another word, or to form with it a phrase equivalent to some part of speech, is a preposition."

It governs the noun "*peace*", and the phrase "*of peace*" describes "man" like an adjective. "A preposition governs an objective, and with it forms a phrase which describes or modifies a preceding word."

EXERCISE 35.

Parse the prepositions contained in the following sentences.

A greedy mastiff was once carrying a large piece of meat in his mouth, having stolen it from a butcher's shop. He came to a river, and was passing over it by a bridge, when, looking down into the water, he saw his own shadow. This he thought to be another dog, carrying, like himself, a piece of meat.

He fancied that this dog had a much finer piece than his own, and greedily made a snatch at it. But, in opening his mouth to snap at the other dog's meat, he let his own fall into the water, and lost it.

CONJUNCTIONS.

272. A **Conjunction** is a word used to *connect words, phrases, or clauses*.

Any word used merely to connect words, phrases, or clauses, is a **conjunction**.

A **preposition** connects words, but it governs an objective case, and with it forms a phrase which limits like an adjective or an adverb.

A **relative pronoun** connects clauses, but it usually forms at the same time a chief element of its own clause, and relates to a word in the other.

A **copulative verb** connects words, but it is the asserting element of a proposition.

273. Conjunctions are divided into *co-ordinate*, which connect words or clauses of equal rank in compound elements or sentences,—and *subordinate*, which add modifying clauses in complex sentences.

Some conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called correlatives; as, both — and, either — or, whether — or, neither — nor, though — yet, as — so, where — there, for — because, if — then, now — therefore, not only — but also.

EXAMPLES.—Both John and James were present.

Either act as you should, or take the consequences.

I do not know whether it is true or [it is] false.

Thou shalt neither vex a stranger nor oppress him.

Though I fear not God nor regard man, yet because this widow troubleth me, I will avenge her.

As 2 is to 6, so is 3 to 9. As ye sow, so shall ye reap.

For where the treasure is, there will the heart be also.

For the crop is heavy, because the land is good.

If this is true, then I have been deceived.

Now he had lost his strength by sickness, therefore he was physically unable.

He lost not only his health, but his property also.

274. RULE.—A **conjunction** connects the *words*, the *phrases*, or the *clauses* between which it stands.

A conjunction introducing a sentence, is correlative with another between members, or it connects clauses inverted in order.

A conjunction connecting *words* or *phrases*, connects **like elements**; that is, two subjects or objects,—predicates, adjectives, or adverbs, like infinitives, &c.

EXAMPLES.—*Subjects*.—Neither *Mary* nor her *sister* was there.

Verbal-objectives.—Honor thy *father* and thy *mother*.

Prep-objectives.—Give it for *me* and *thee*.

Adjectives.—He was **both** *healthy* and *vigorous*.

PARSING.

Conjunctions.

In parsing a conjunction, name the word parsed; if it connects clauses, combine it with the *principal parts* of the clauses connected, omitting adjuncts, and placing the principal parts of the clause which makes sense before the conjunction, first,—then the conjunction and the principal parts of its clause. If, instead of clauses, the conjunction joins phrases or words, in showing the connection, take care that *similar elements* are given. Tell what it connects, and quote the rule.

EXAMPLES.

“John and James study.”

21. **And**.—John and James.—“*And*” is used to connect the two subjects, “*John*” and “*James*”, of the predicate “*study*”. “Any word used merely to connect words, phrases, or clauses, is a conjunction.”

It is a co-ordinate conjunction; it connects two words of equal rank in a compound element.

It connects the nouns “*John*” and “*James*”, forming the compound subject of the verb “*study*”. “A conjunction connects the words, the phrases, or the clauses between which it stands.”

“I will go if you remain.”

22. **If**.—I will go *if* you remain.—“*If*” is used to connect the two clauses, “*I will go*” and “*you remain*”, and “*if you remain*” modifies the first clause, or its predicate “*will go*”. “Any word used merely to connect words, phrases, or clauses, is a conjunction.”

It is a subordinate conjunction; it adds a modifying clause in a complex sentence.

It connects the subordinate clause "if *you remain*" with the principal clause "*I will go*". "A conjunction connects the words, the phrases, or the clauses between which it stands."

EXERCISE 36.

Parse the conjunctions contained in the following sentences.

We see and hear, smell and taste, as well as touch, a great many things every day of our lives. We are always using either our eyes, ears, mouth, nose, or hands; but we scarcely ever think how badly off we should be if we were without any of them.

By means of our eyes we are able to see all the beautiful things which God has made,—the sun and the moon, the clear blue sky, and the golden sunset, the bright green fields, and the pretty flowers, and the kind and loving faces of our dear friends. You could not learn to read this book if you had not the sense of seeing.

When we see a pretty thing, such as a shell, an orange, or a flower, we begin to think we should like to touch it, and find out whether it is hard or soft, smooth or rough, hot or cold. So we take it in our hands, feel it all over with our fingers, and perhaps touch our faces with it.

Every part of our bodies has the sense of feeling. But our hands, and, above all, our fingers, have a great many nerves spread under the thin skin, which give to them a greater sense of feeling than any other part of the body has.

EXCLAMATIONS.

275. An **Exclamation** is a word used merely to express feeling or emotion.

Any word used merely to express feeling or emotion, or merely as a call or cry, is an **exclamation**.

Exclamations are, by some grammarians, called *interjections*.

Exclamations may be classed according to the emotion or feeling expressed; as of

Joy,—as, Hurrah! Ah! &c.

Sorrow or pain,—Oh! hoo!

Approval,—Bravo!

Aversion,—Pugh! Fugh! Fie!

Curiosity,—Ha! Eh! (pronounced *ä*); He! (pronounced *hay*).

Desire for the presence of another within hearing,—Ho! Hollo!

Desire for attention,—Hist! 'St!

Discovery,—Oho! Ay, ay! (pronounced *i, i*).

Weariness,—Heigh ho!

Surprise,—Ah! Oh!

276. **RULE**.—An **exclamation** is used *independently*.

PARSING.

Exclamations.

In parsing an exclamation, merely state what the word is, and that it is used independently, and quote the rule.

EXAMPLE.

"Oh! John, why do you speak so?"

23. **Oh!**—"Oh" is an exclamation, used independently. "An exclamation is used independently."

For Punctuation and Prosody, see the author's larger Grammar.

THE END.

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