INTRODUCTORY LESSONS
IN THE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,
BASED UPON AN
Analysis of the English Sentence.

BY
WM. HENRY PARKER,
PRINCIPAL OF THE RINGGOLD GRAMMAR SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA. AUTHOR OF
A GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

PHILADELPHIA:
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INTRODUCTORY LESSONS IN THE GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, BASED UPON AN ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

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PHILADELPHIA: ELDREDGE & BROTHER. 1866.
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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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.
PREFACE.

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 impressionable.

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.
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 become a citizen.

The predicate often tells what kind of a person or a thing someone 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.

The predicate often tells what a person or a thing does to someone or something, 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 downward. 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. When 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 Shakespeare.

**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.

**Analysis.**

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.

3. 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 Cesar'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?"

Analysis.

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? Oh! 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, etc.

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.

ANALYSIS.

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! 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".
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

"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", and "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.

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.

ANALYSIS.

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 11.**

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 bright sun shines.
2. Brightly modifies shines.
3. The summer sun shines.
4. The summer sun shines.

**Words modifying predicates.**

1. Brightly modifies shines.
2. Now modifies shines.
3. From a cloudless sky modifies shines.
4. On all who are exposed to its powerful rays modifies shines.

**Phrases modifying subjects.**

1. In a cloudless sky modifies shines.
2. On all modifies shines.

**Phrases modifying predicates.**

1. From a cloudless sky modifies shines.
2. To its powerful rays modifies are exposed (a predicate).

**Clauses modifying adjuncts.**

1. 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.

**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.

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*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.*

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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.

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, improve, burns, shine, grow, &c. hearest, writest, composest, &c.

Each word becomes a predicate when joined with a subject.

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 reading, has been seeing, was cutting, would have been tasting, 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 my 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.

---

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 *propositio*, which has also the form *propositionis*, 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 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.

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. (Subject + Verb + Object.)

Finite and Intransitive. (Subject + Verb.)

To play ball. For ball to be played.
To have written a page. For a page to have been written.
Playing ball. Ball being played.
Having written a page. A page having been written.
Loving self. Self being loved.

Lnginitive and Transitive. (Verb + Object.)

Infinite (Verb + Object.)

To play.
To have written.
Having written.
Loving.

Living.

Finite.

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.

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**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 "horses" 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 *rivers 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.


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 Accident.

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.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beau</td>
<td>belle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom</td>
<td>bride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl</td>
<td>countess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friar</td>
<td>nun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandfather</td>
<td>grandam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>queen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lad</td>
<td>lass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lord</td>
<td>lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>maid (serving)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>dame (old style)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. (Mr.)</td>
<td>Mrs. (Mrs.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mesers (Messrs)</td>
<td>(none)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monk</td>
<td>nun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### II. SEX DISTINGUISHED BY THE USE OF A SUFFIX.

1. The feminine formed by adding **-ess** to the masculine; as, **accuser, accusress**.

2. The feminine formed by dropping **o** 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**.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Examples of Proper Names.

Joseph, Josephine.
Augustus, Augusta.
Cornelius, Cornelia.
George, Georgia.
Henry, Harriet.
Harry, Harriet.

Examples of Proper Names.

Julius, Julia, Juliet.
Louis, Louisa.
John, Jane, Joanna, &c.
Frank, Francis, Frances.
William, Wilhelmina.

SEX DISTINGUISHED BY PREFIXING A WORD SHOWING SEX.

PERSONALS.
Masculine. Feminine.
Man-servant, maid-servant.
Mr. Adams, Mrs. Adams.
Mr. Zell, Miss Zell.
Master N., Miss N.

Non-Personals.
Masculine. Feminine.
He-bear, she-bear.
He-goat, she-goat.
Buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit.
Cook-robin, hen-robin.
Cook-sparrow, hen-sparrow.

SEX DISTINGUISHED BY PREFIXING A WORD SHOWING SEX.

PERSONALS.
Masculine. Feminine.
Man-servant, maid-servant.
Mr. Adams, Mrs. Adams.
Mr. Zell, Miss Zell.
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Non-Personals.
Masculine. Feminine.
He-bear, she-bear.
He-goat, she-goat.
Buck-rabbit, doe-rabbit.
Cook-robin, hen-robin.
Cook-sparrow, hen-sparrow.

Most masculines have no corresponding feminines.

Examples.—Cook, driver, hoster, sergeant.

A few feminines have no corresponding masculines.

Examples.—Brunette, kag.

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, cook-sparrow, poet, sultan, brother, male-child, peacock, chanter, songster, horse, hart, uncle, nephew, widower, neighbor, friend, Mr., hero,

EXERCISE 21.

Give the feminines corresponding to the following masculines:

Father, cook; lion, tiger, bear, he-goat, baker, cook-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, mamma, sister, mermaid, schoolgirl, portress, filly, goose, widow, she-bear, hyena, doma, tyranness, directrix, idolatress, grandam, damsel, spectatrix, eratix, 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 'uni,' 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.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

"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 s of the singular is dropped on adding -es.

Examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Sound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rabus,</td>
<td>30 rabus-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miss,</td>
<td>30 miss-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purse,</td>
<td>30 purse-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ice,</td>
<td>30 ice (i-cis).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lynx,</td>
<td>30 lynx-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phis,</td>
<td>31 phis-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rose,</td>
<td>31 rose-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adoe,</td>
<td>31 adoe-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish,</td>
<td>32 fish-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>douche,</td>
<td>32 douche-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rouge,</td>
<td>33 rouge es (rou-goes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leech,</td>
<td>34 leech-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niche,</td>
<td>34 niche-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watch,</td>
<td>34 watch-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cage,</td>
<td>35 cage-es (ca-goes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edge,</td>
<td>35 edge-es (ed-goes).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hadji,</td>
<td>36 hadji-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simiile,</td>
<td>37 simiile-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alkali,</td>
<td>38 alkali-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cargo,</td>
<td>39 cargo-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gua,</td>
<td>39 gua-es.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>citi,</td>
<td>39 citi-es.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eab</td>
<td>21 nab a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;of&quot;</td>
<td>23 of a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head</td>
<td>25 head a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cach</td>
<td>26 oath a. Sound 27.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bag</td>
<td>29 bag a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barrel</td>
<td>36 barrel a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dollar</td>
<td>36 dollar a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ham</td>
<td>39 ham a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pan</td>
<td>40 pan a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>song</td>
<td>41 song a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>commas</td>
<td>commas a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>racee</td>
<td>race a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beans</td>
<td>beans a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>folio</td>
<td>folio a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hollow</td>
<td>hollow a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>boy a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*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.—If after a consonant is changed to s, 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 s, and three in fe, change s to v, and add -es, to form the plural.

Examples.—Beef, beaves; 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 w'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, navvy, jockey, pippin,pler, bulletin, planning, chisel, repartee, gourd, buffalo, anticipation, triphthong, nuisance, lily, cicatrice, pickaninnny, trombone, iiber, manifesto, rose, sickness, cabin, class, writing, stove, witch, papa, row, hind, sultana, negress, snath, sluice, idea, sortie, hiccup, diab, duellist, fac-simile, sonata, metre, sac, cypress, valley, hoe, money, virago, assignee, &c.

Nouns irregular in the plural.

-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
 Man, | men. | Nose, | geese. |
 Woman, | women. | House, | mice. |
 Child, | children. | Louie, | lice. |
 Foot, | feet. | Ox, | oxen. |
 Tooth, | teeth. | These irregular plurals, are used in the plurals of compound nouns.

Examples.—Englishmen, statesmen, eye teeth, woodlice.

German, Musulman, Norman, Ottoman, Turcoman (national names).—dragoman (an interpreter), khan (a Cossack commander), leman (one loved), cayman (an alligator), demons (a quadruped), doimos (a robe),
German (a certificate), ottoman (a seat), talisman (a charm), and toman (money), form the plural regularly, as simple words. Thus, Germans, Mussulmans, etc.

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 "him" 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 person 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."

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' church's, Burbage's, are pronounced like James, churches, Burbages, 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**.

**Singular.** Nom. man, hand, fox, lady, boy; 
   " Poss. man's, hand's, fox's, lady's, boy's; 
   " Obj. man, hand, fox, lady, boy.

**Plural.** Nom. men, hands, foxes, ladies, boys; 
   " Poss. men's, hands', foxes', ladies', boys'; 
   " Obj. men, hands, foxes, ladies, boys.

**Declension of Nouns.**

**Nouns.**

**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."

Exercises 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 square is an equilateral right-angled parallelogram.

A polygon may be a pentagon or a hexagon.

"Hawaii" is now found on maps where "Oahu" formerly was.

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

Cesar, 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.

Exercises 25.

Parse 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.

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 sent.

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 objective case.

147. A preposition governs its object, and the two words form a prepositional phrase, generally 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 passing.
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 subject of the verb in the passive voice.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PARSING.

OBJECTIVE NOUNS.

EXAMPLES.—Verbal Objective.

"He sees the moon."

4. Moon.—See 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.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>I,</td>
<td>We,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>our,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(with a noun)</td>
<td>(with a noun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mine</td>
<td>(without a noun)</td>
<td>ours (without a noun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj. me</td>
<td>Obj. us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Second person, of any gender.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Thou,</td>
<td>You,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>thy (with a noun),</td>
<td>your (with a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thine (without a noun),</td>
<td>yours (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj. thee</td>
<td>Obj. you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third person, masculine gender.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>He,</td>
<td>They,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>his (with or without a noun),</td>
<td>their (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their (without a noun),</td>
<td>theirs (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj. him</td>
<td>Obj. them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third person, feminine gender.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>She,</td>
<td>They,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>her (with a noun),</td>
<td>their (with a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hers (without a noun),</td>
<td>theirs (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj. her</td>
<td>Obj. them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third person, neuter gender.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>It,</td>
<td>They,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss.</td>
<td>its (with or without a noun),</td>
<td>their (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their (without a noun),</td>
<td>theirs (without a noun),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Obj. it</td>
<td>Obj. them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

Sing., Nom. **Who,** Plur., Nom. **who,**
Poss. whose, **which,** Poss. whose,
Obj. whom, **what,** Obj. 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**.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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 limited 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."
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 significance.

*The*, *an*, or *a*, used before a noun to limit its significance, 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.

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.

**Examples.**—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.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

EXAMPLES.

“An hour-glass is a machine, or instru­
ment, 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.

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.

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 which is represented by the noun 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, whichever, 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.

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**.

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, biled, 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

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<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
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Regular Inflected Comparison.

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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>least red</td>
<td>less red</td>
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Full Comparison.

Adjectives compared only by Adverbs.

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<td>least indecorous</td>
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Irregular Comparisons.

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<thead>
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<th>Superlative</th>
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<tr>
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<td>little</td>
<td>worse</td>
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<td>much</td>
<td>less (lesser)</td>
<td>least</td>
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<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Give the comparison of the following adjectives, both major and minor.

White, large, yellow, slender, noble, holy, respectable, dazzling, straight, 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.

Example. —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.
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 faggots,—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 anything; 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 said or said. There is no subject, nor any predicate.

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

Insert "is" in the first blank, and "form" 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 exist*ed, or is *exist*ed.

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.

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**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.

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

*hear*, **heard**; **heard**.

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.

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**; **ate** 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, write a letter.)

2. It may be expressed as a possibility, obligation, volition, or duty; as,
The boy may 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 conjunctions, 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, entreat, 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.

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 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., 3rd 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 Mood 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 3d person singular is often omitted by those who habitually use them, 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.
Sing., 1st p. I call John
2d p. Thou call est John
3d p. He calls 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.
Sing., 1st p. I aid myself.
2d p. Thou aid est me
3d p. He aids 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.).

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, "were" 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.

Present tense. (1)
Sing., 1st p. I call ob.
2d " Thou callest ob.
3d " He calls ob.
Plur., 1st " We call ob.
2d " You call ob.
3d " They call ob.

Future tense. (1)
Sing., 1st p. I shall call ob.
2d " Thou wilt call ob.
3d " He will call ob.
Plur., 1st " We shall call ob.
2d " You will call ob.
3d " They will call ob.

Future Perfect tense. (3)
I shall have called ob.
Thou shalt have called ob.
He shall have called ob.
We shall have called ob.
You shall have called ob.
They shall have called ob.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The tenses named from their forms only.

Present tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I may call ob.
2d " Thou mayest call ob.
3d " He may call ob.
Plur., 1st " We may call ob.
2d " You may call ob.
3d " They may call ob.

Present Perfect tense. (3)
I may have called ob.
Thou mayest have called ob.
He may have called ob.
We may have called ob.
You may have called ob.
They may have called ob.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I am called
2d " Thou art called
3d " He is called
Plur., 1st " We are called
2d " You are called
3d " They are called

Past tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I was called
2d " Thou wast called
3d " He was called
Plur., 1st " We were called
2d " You were called
3d " They were called

Past Perfect tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I had called
2d " Thou hadst called
3d " He had called
Plur., 1st " We had called
2d " You had called
3d " They had called

Future tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I shall be called
2d " Thou wilt be called
3d " He will be called
Plur., 1st " We shall be called
2d " You will be called
3d " They will be called

Future Perfect tense. (3)
I shall have been called
Thou shalt have been called
He shall have been called
We shall have been called
You shall have been called
They shall have been called

POTENTIAL MOOD.

The tenses named from their forms only.

Present tense. (3)
Sing., 1st p. I may be called
2d " Thou mayest be called
3d " He may be called
Plur., 1st " We may be called
2d " You may be called
3d " They may be called

Present Perfect tense. (3)
I may have been called
Thou mayest have been called
He may have been called
We may have been called
You may have been called
They may have been called
### To Call.  

**Active Voice.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past tense.  (1)</th>
<th>Present tense. (2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sing., 1st p.</strong></td>
<td>I <strong>might call</strong> ob.</td>
<td>If I call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thou mightst call ob.</td>
<td>If thou call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He might call ob.</td>
<td>If he call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plur., 1st</strong></td>
<td>We might call ob.</td>
<td>If we call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You might call ob.</td>
<td>If you call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They might call ob.</td>
<td>If they call ob.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past tense—**not used. The indicative form is used in the six tenses, and the potential form in the four tenses of that mood.

**Subjunctive form.**

The tenses named from their forms only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative form.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sing., 1st p.</strong></td>
<td>I might call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thou mightest call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He might call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plur., 1st</strong></td>
<td>We might call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You might call ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They might call ob.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive mood without conjunction.**

**Indicative form.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past tense.</th>
<th>Pres. t.</th>
<th>If I call ob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sing., 1st p.</strong></td>
<td>I might call ob.</td>
<td>If thou call est ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thou mightest call ob.</td>
<td>If we call ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He might call ob.</td>
<td>If thou callest ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plur., 1st</strong></td>
<td>We might call ob.</td>
<td>If we call ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You might call ob.</td>
<td>If you call ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They might call ob.</td>
<td>If they call ob.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Passive Voice.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Past Perfect tense.  (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sing., 1st p.</strong></td>
<td>I <strong>might have called</strong> ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thou mightest have called ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He might have called ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plur., 1st</strong></td>
<td>We might have called ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You might have called ob.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They might have called ob.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative mood.**

**Sing., 2d p.** Call ob. **Plur., 2d** Call ob.

The caret (\(\)) shows the place of the subject understood—thou or you. It is seldom expressed.

**Infinities.**

**Infin. indef.** (1) To call ob. **Infin. perf.** (3) To have called ob. **Imperf. partic.** Calling ob. **Comp. perf.** Having called ob. **Perf. partic.** Called ob.

The caret (\(\)) shows the place of the subject understood—thou in the sing., you in the plur., commonly omitted.
PROGRESSIVE FORM.

To Call.  Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense.
Sing., 1stp. 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.

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 tense.
Sing., 1stp. 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.

Past Perfect tense.
I had been calling ob. 
Thou hast been calling ob. 
He has been calling ob. 
We had been calling ob. 
You had been calling ob. 
They had been calling ob.

Future tense.
Sing., 1stp. 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.

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., 1stp. I may be calling ob. 
2d " Thou mayst be calling ob. 
3d " He may be calling ob. 
Plur., 1st " We may be calling ob. 
2d " You may be calling ob. 
3d " They may be calling ob.

Present Perfect tense.
I may have been calling ob. 
Thou mayst have been calling ob. 
He may have been calling ob. 
We may have been calling ob. 
You may have been calling ob. 
They may have been calling ob.

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.

SUBJECTIVE MOOD.

Subjunctive form.

Past tense; named from its form.

Sing., 1stp. 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.

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 onomatopoeic combination; as, I will be called.
To Call. Progressive Form, Active Voice.

Past tense. Post Perfect tense.

Sing.

1st p. I **might** be calling ob. I **might** have been calling ob.

2d " Thou mightst be calling ob. Thou mightst have been calling ob.

3d " He might be calling ob. He might have been calling ob.

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.

Infin. indef., To be calling ob. Comp. perf.

Having been calling ob. * Been calling ob. part. * Having been calling ob. ing ob.

* Used only after *have* to form active progressive perfect tenses.

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

1st p. I **have** been calling ob. I **have** called ob.

2d " Thou hast been calling ob. Thou hast called ob.

3d " He has been calling ob. He has called ob.

Plural.

1st " We have been calling ob. We have called ob.

2d " You have been calling ob. You have called ob.

3d " They have been calling ob. They have called 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.

Perfective form.

(The tenses named from their forms only.)

Present tense.

Sing., 1st p. If I **be** calling ob. If I am calling ob.

2d " If thou be calling ob. If thou art calling ob.

3d " If he be calling ob. If he art calling ob.

Plur., 1st p. If we be calling ob. If we art calling ob.

2d " If you be calling ob. If you art calling ob.

3d " If they be calling ob. If they art calling ob.

Past tense.

Sing., 1st p. If I **were** calling ob. If I was calling ob.

2d " If thou were calling ob. If thou wast calling ob.

3d " If he were calling ob. If he was calling ob.

Plur., 1st p. If we were calling ob. If we were calling ob.

2d " If you were calling ob. If you were calling ob.

3d " If they were calling ob. If they were calling ob.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing., 2d p. Be **A** calling ob. Be calling ob.

Plur., 2d p. Be **A** calling ob. Be calling ob.

INFINITIVES.

Inf. indef., To be calling ob. Inf. perf., To have been calling ob.

Imperf. particip. calling ob. Comp. perf. * Having been calling ob.

Perf. particip. * Been calling ob. part. * Having been calling ob. ing ob.

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.
### English Grammar

#### Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bend</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>Send</td>
<td>sent</td>
<td>sent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lend</td>
<td>lent</td>
<td>lent</td>
<td>Spend</td>
<td>spent</td>
<td>spent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mislead</td>
<td>misled</td>
<td>misled</td>
<td>Unbind</td>
<td>unbent</td>
<td>unbent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>rent</td>
<td>rent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>made</td>
<td>Stand</td>
<td>stood</td>
<td>stood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmake</td>
<td>unmade</td>
<td>unmade</td>
<td>Withstand</td>
<td>withstood</td>
<td>withstood</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Two forms: Present and Perfect participle alike.**

- Become became become
- Overcome overcame overcome
- Come came come
- Overrun overran overrun
- Run ran run

#### III. Three Forms

- **-en (-n, -ne) added to past, to form perf. part.**

- Bear (behove) bore born
- Bespeak bespoke bespoken
- Break broke broken
- Choose chose chosen
- Fly flew flown
- Forbear forbore forborne
- Forswear foreswear foresworn
- Froze froze frozen
- Lie lay lain
- Outwear outwore outworn
- Pay paid paid
- Prepay prepaid prepaid

- **-en (-n, -ne) added to present, to form perf. part.**

- Arise arose arisen
- Foreknow foreknew foreknown
- Be was been
- Befall befall befallen
- Betake betook betaken
- Blow blew blown
- Do did done
- Draw drew drawn
- Drive drove driven
- Fall fell fallen
- Forego forewent foregone
- Know knew known
- Lose lost lost

#### Change in consonants.

- **-ed added.**
  - Flee fled
  - Have had
  - Hear heard
  - Lay laid
  - Mislay mislaid
  - Pay paid
  - Prepay prepaid

- **-en added.**
  - Beseech besought
  - Bring brought
  - Buy bought
  - Creep crept
  - Feel felt
  - Keep kept
  - Leave left
  - Lose lost

- **-en (-n, -ne) added to present, to form perf. part.**

- Arise arose arisen
- Foreknow foreknew foreknown
- Be was been
- Befall befall befallen
- Betake betook betaken
- Blow blew blown
- Do did done
- Draw drew drawn
- Drive drove driven
- Fall fell fallen
- Forego forewent foregone
- Know knew known
- Lose lost lost
**ENGLISH GRAMMAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Miudo</td>
<td>missed</td>
<td>misdone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misgive</td>
<td>misgave</td>
<td>misgiven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mistake</td>
<td>mistook</td>
<td>mistaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outdo</td>
<td>outdid</td>
<td>outdone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outgrow</td>
<td>outgrew</td>
<td>outgrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overdo</td>
<td>overriding</td>
<td>overdone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overse</td>
<td>overawed</td>
<td>overseen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overtake</td>
<td>overtook</td>
<td>overtaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overthrow</td>
<td>overthrew</td>
<td>overthrown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewrite</td>
<td>rewrote</td>
<td>rewritten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rive</td>
<td>riven</td>
<td>rived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Begin** began begun
- **Drink** drank drunk
- **Dare** ("swam") dared dared

**REDUNDANT IRREGULAR VERBS.**

IV. **Two forms for past tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crow</td>
<td>crew or crowed</td>
<td>crowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heave</td>
<td>hove or heaved</td>
<td>heaved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ring</td>
<td>rang or rung</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>sang or sung</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sink</td>
<td>sunk or sunk</td>
<td>sunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spit</td>
<td>spat or spit</td>
<td>spit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>sprang or sprung</td>
<td>sprung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stink</td>
<td>stank or stunk</td>
<td>stunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swim</td>
<td>swam or swum</td>
<td>swum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrive</td>
<td>thrave or thrived</td>
<td>thriven</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Perfect part</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bear (rode)</td>
<td>borne</td>
<td>born (bene)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beget</td>
<td>begot</td>
<td>begotten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The irregular participles are obsolete.

VI. **Two forms for past tense and two for per. part.**

All irregular.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Both regular and irregular forms.

Awake awoke awoke
Bereave bereft bereaved
Build built built
Burn burnt burnt
Catch caught caught
Deal dealt dealt
Dig dug dug
Dwell dwelt dwelt
Gild gilt gilt
Gird girt gird
Hang hung hung
Kneel knelt knelt
Knit knit knit
Quit quit quit
Rebuild rebuilt rebuilt
Regild regilt regilt
Shine shone shone
Slit slit slit
Stave stove stove
Stay stayed stayed
Sweat sweat sweat
Ungird ungirt ungirt
Wet wet wet
Work wrought wrought

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.

VERBS.

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 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 wrote. Past tense, I wrote. Present perfect tense, I have written.
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 when we got ready to go to our uncle's house.

When we arrived there, we were surprised to see everything 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 **object**.

**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**,
ADVERBS.

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

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 "sweetly," for the adverb "sweetly" modifies the verb "sang," showing the manner of singing; it is not used to describe the pronoun "she".

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 needs 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?
3. Adverbs of Degree; answering How much?
4. Adverbs of Time; answering When? How long?
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.

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.
112 ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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.

**Example.**—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."

**PREPOSITIONS.**

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

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.**

Pars 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 Spaniard.

After the ceremony was over, they went on homeward.

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 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.
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, of, on, round, since, through, till, to, up, with, worth.

Derivative: after, ever, 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—it 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.

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, neither—or, 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.

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.

Ex.amples.—Subjects.—Neither Mary nor her sister was there.
Verbal-objectives.—Honor thy father and thy mother.
Prop.-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.
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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.

Purge 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 may be classed according to the emotion or feeling expressed; as of

Joy,—as, Hurrah! Ah! Aye.
Sorrow or pain,—Oh! Aah!
Approval,—Bravo!
Annoyance,—Pugh! Faugh! Ye!
Curiosity,—Ha! Eh! (pronounced #); He! (pronounced h#).
Desire for the presence of another within hearing,—Ho! Hello!
Desire for attention,—Hust! 'St!
Discovery,—Oho! Aye! Ay! (pronounced i, i).
Weirdness,—Aigh 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.
A GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, Based upon an Analysis of the English Sentence, with Copious Examples in Parsing and the Correction of False Syntax, and an Appendix containing Critical and Explanatory Notes, and Lists of Peculiar and Exceptional Forms. For the use of Schools and Academies and those who Write. By Wm. Henry Parker, Principal of Ringgold Grammar School, Philadelphia.

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Editor of Pennsylvania School Journal.