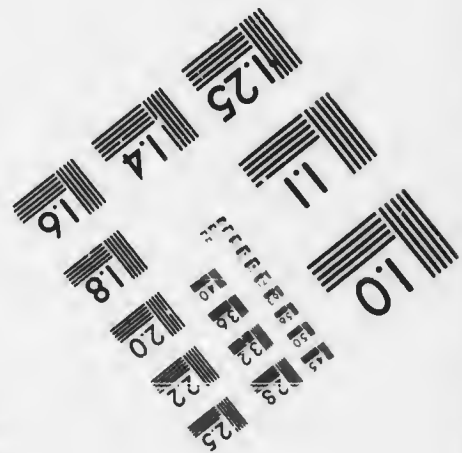
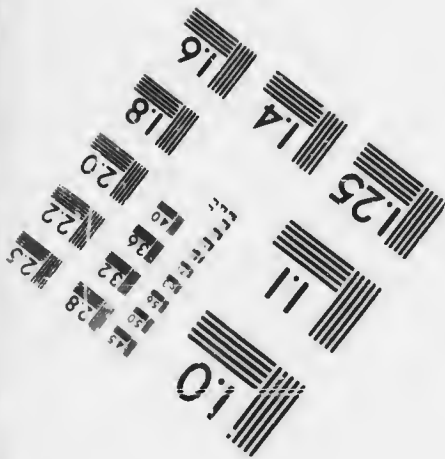
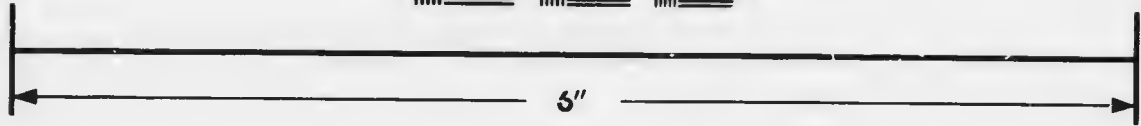
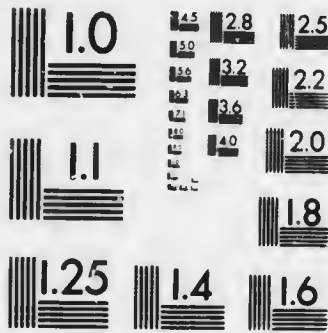


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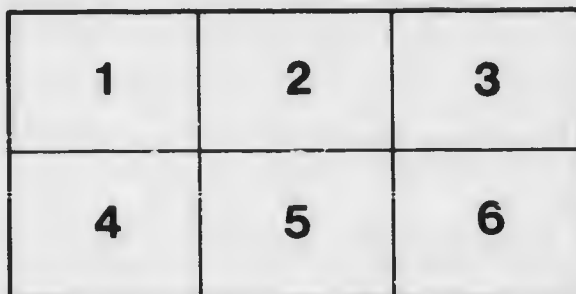
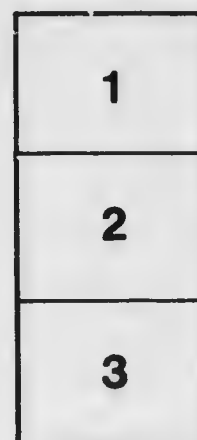
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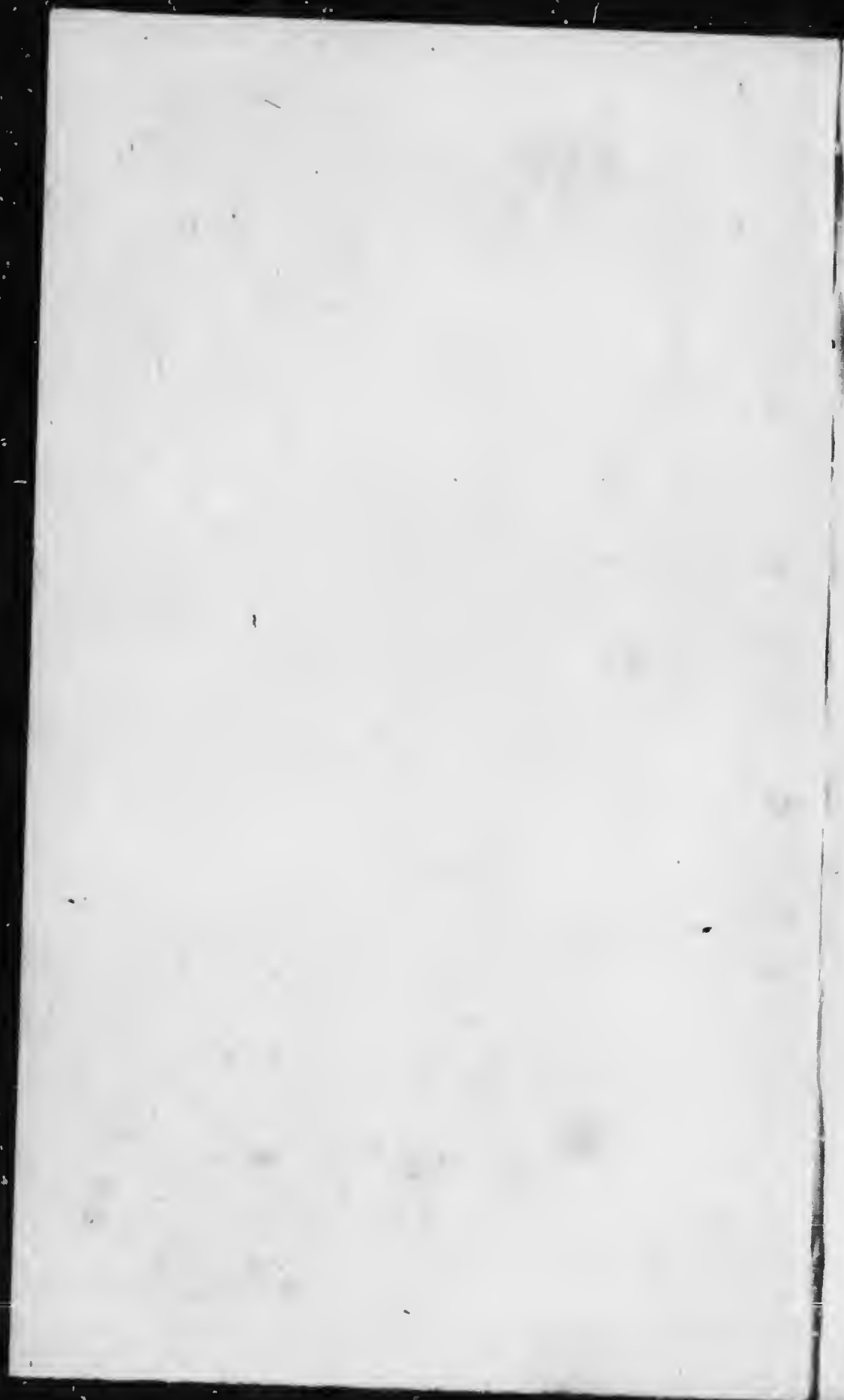
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NEW ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

IN THREE PARTS :

ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, & ANALYSIS.

BY

WILLIAM SWINTON, A. M.

REVISED BY

J. B. CALKIN, M. A.,

PRINCIPAL OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO, N. S.

TORONTO:

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PREFACE.

This work, which is in the main a revision of Swinton's "Progressive Grammar," consists of three parts: I. ETYMOLOGY, II. SYNTAX, III. ANALYSIS AND CONSTRUCTION.

A characteristic feature of the book consists in a gradual unfolding of principles through an analysis of language. The learner is taught to look at words in connection with their use in the sentence.

Under Etymology the various kinds of words, or *Parts of Speech*, are first defined; then the sub-classification of each class is presented; and finally the inflection is exhibited. The learner thus gains a clearer view of the relation of grammar to language than on the plan of following up a single class, as the noun, through its various sub-classes and inflections before the other classes are presented. At each stage practical exercises are given, which, if faithfully performed, will fix thoroughly what has been learned, and at the same time will train by regular gradations in systematic parsing.

Part II. aims to be practical. The systematic parsing required under each rule will tend to give clear views of the relationship of words, and, together with the special rules, illustrations, explanatory notes, and exercises, will aid the learner in an intelligent examination, and in the correct use of, the English language.

The exercises in Sentence Building, or Construction, is an important feature in Part III. These exercises will not only ground the pupil more thoroughly in the principles of Analysis, but will form an excellent introduction to Composition.

The Publishers would introduce this edition of Swinton's Popular Grammar to the teachers and educationists of the Dominion of Canada, believing that the changes introduced by the Editor will render the work better suited to the wants of our schools.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTION.

1. When we wish to express our thoughts we talk, or we write down certain marks or signs which people have agreed shall stand for the sounds which we utter when we talk. That which we speak with our voice, or which we write to represent what we speak, is called *language*. There are many different languages in the world, as German, French, and Spanish. Ours is called the *English Language*.
2. Language is made up of words. There are over 100,000 words in the English language. A collection of words arranged so as to convey complete sense is called a *sentence*; as—

The cat caught a mouse.
3. The children who use this book know a good deal of the English language. They gained their first knowledge of it by hearing it spoken by others, they have been speaking this language ever since they learned to talk; and they have now a large stock of words, and they know how to put these words together into sentences.
4. Uneducated persons often make mistakes in speaking and writing. They use such expressions as

"I *done* it," "I *have* often *went* there," Mary and me *was* there," "He told John and I," "Jane *had* ought to learn her lessons."

An educated person would say, "I did it," or, "I have done it," "I have often gone there," "Mary and I were there," "He told John and me," "Jane ought to learn her lessons."

5. By marking how educated people speak and write, and by trying to speak and write as they do, one may learn the correct use of language. The writers of grammars examine carefully the language of the learned, and from this language they derive principles and rules to guide those who wish to speak and write correctly. These principles and rules form what is called *Grammar*.

6. We see, then, that there are two ways by which one can learn the correct use of language:—

He can imitate the example of educated people; or, he can follow the rules of grammar.

The best way is to combine these two methods. *Observe how educated people speak and write; learn the rules of grammar; and then carefully imitate the example and follow the rules.*

7. English grammar teaches the correct use of the English language.

8. On examining the words in the English language, we find that we can arrange them all into a few groups or classes, according to their resemblances and differences. Thus, in the sentence,

The cat caught a mouse and brought it to her kitten, the words *cat*, *mouse*, and *kitten* can be placed in the same class, because they are all *name words*; so, also, *caught* and *brought* are used to make *statements*, and belong to another class.

9. If you wish to speak of the moving of the water in the river, you may say: *The river flows.* But suppose you wish to denote more than one river, you then change the form of the word to *rivers*, and you will have, *The rivers flows.* This, however, will not do; it is not according to the rules of grammar, or the way in which educated people speak. You must say, *The rivers flow.*

Suppose you wish to state, not that the river is now flowing, but that it did so yesterday, you add *ed* to *flow*, and say, *The river flowed.*

Again, notice the changes in the word *small*. We say, *Prince Edward Island is a small Province; it is smaller than Manitoba; it is the smallest of the seven Provinces.*

10. Look at the two sentences:—

He was bitten on the leg by a dog.

A dog bit him on the leg.

The words *was bitten* and *bit* are different forms of the verb *bite*. So, also, the word *him*, in the second sentence, is a change of the form of the word *he* in the first sentence. Why does it take this form? Because the verb *bit* must be followed by the form *him*; it governs the word in this form.

11. Observe this sentence :—

Wanted, a young man to take care of horses of Christian disposition.

It is ridiculous, because the faulty placing of the words "of Christian disposition" makes them qualify *horses* instead of *man*. The arrangement is wrong.

12. We see, then, that grammar has to do with the *different kinds* of words, as *cat, caught*; with the *different forms* of the same word to denote a change of idea, as *river, rivers*; with the *changes* words undergo to suit other words, as *he, him*; and with the *arrangement* of words. These topics are treated of in this book under the two divisions of grammar called *Etymology* and *Syntax*.

13. Orthography treats of the letters of which words are composed, and of the proper mode of spelling words. This division of grammar is usually learned from the speller and the dictionary.

14. Etymology treats of separate words and includes two parts, *Classification* and *Inflection*. Syntax treats of words in their relation to each other when combined into a sentence. It includes the *agreement, the government, and the arrangement* of words.

15. Etymology also treats of the origin or *derivation* of words. Thus, it shows that the word *farmer* is derived from the word *farm*, and that the word *verb* is derived from the Latin word *verbum*.

16. If we examine a sentence, as, *The dog barks*, we shall find that it consists of two parts :—

1. That part which represents the thing of which we make a statement, as *the dog*.
2. That part which makes the statement, as *barks*.

The words, *the sweet-scented mayflower*, do not form a sentence, because they do not express a complete thought; and for the same reason, the words, *bloom in spring*, do not form a sentence. But by placing these two parts together:

The sweet-scented mayflower blooms in spring, we express a complete thought, and the assemblage of words used forms a sentence.

17. Every Sentence consists of two parts:—

1. The subject, or that part which represents the thing about which a statement is made.
2. The predicate, or that part which makes a statement.

18. Sometimes several words are used in connection with the subject and the predicate, but there is generally some one term that denotes the thing of which we are speaking, and some other term that makes the statement. Thus in the sentence above, *mayflower* is the subject, and *blooms* is the predicate. The words, *the beautiful, sweet-scented*, are used to limit or describe the thing of which we are speaking, and the words *in spring* are used to limit the assertion made by the predicate *blooms*.

19. The particular term that forms the subject of a sentence is always a *name-word*, or, as it is called, a *noun*, or some word having the force of a noun; the particular term that forms the predicate is always a word of that class called *verbs*.

20. The noun and the verb are the two principal

Parts of Speech, or classes of words. They make the frame-work of every sentence.

21. The various sorts of words used with the subject and with the predicate make up the other Parts of Speech.

The English Language has been growing for more than a thousand years. It is called 'English' from the word *Angles*, the name of a tribe of Germans who, with the Saxons and other German tribes, settled in Britain about the 5th century A. D. The language that was spoken by this people is called Anglo-Saxon. It was quite unlike our present English, but it is the basis of our speech, furnishing the larger part (nearly three quarters, perhaps,) of our customary words, and forming the grammatical frame-work of the whole language. Anglo-Saxon was largely influenced by the French language, spoken by the Normans, who conquered England in the 11th century. In the 15th and 16th centuries it received a very great number of words from Latin and from Greek, and subsequently from other sources. Thus we see that the English language is a combination of many tongues. By the time of Shakspeare, in the 16th century, it had grown into nearly its present form. English is a noble language. It is now spoken by nearly one hundred millions of people. It is the language of the Dominion of Canada, of the United States, of Great Britain and Ireland, of Australia and New Zealand, and it is spoken in South Africa, in India, and elsewhere. To have a free and accurate use of it is one of the finest of accomplishments, and such a use the study of Grammar should give.

PART I.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.—CLASSIFICATION.

22. Words are arranged in classes, according to the functions they perform, or the work they do in sentences.

All words used as *names*, as *boy*, *rose*, are put in one class ; all words used with name-words to express some *quality* of the object named, as *good*, *beautiful*, are put in another class ; all words used to *assert*, as *run*, *bloom*, form a third class, etc.

23. There are eight classes of words, often called the *Parts of Speech*.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|
| 1. The Noun. | 5. The Adverb. |
| 2. The Pronoun. | 6. The Preposition. |
| 3. The Adjective. | 7. The Conjunction. |
| 4. The Verb. | 8. The Interjection. |

I.—The Noun.

24. Nouns are names, words ; as, *John*, *London*, *book*, *beauty*.

Noun is derived from the Latin *nomen* a name. Everything that we speak about or think about—person, place, object, action, or thought—must have a name, and every name is a **NOUN**.

Exercise I.

Pick out the NOUNS.

1. The snow was deep on the hills last week. 2. The sun rises in the morning and sets in the evening. 3. Wellington defeated Napoleon at Waterloo. 4. Skating on the ice is fine fun for boys. 5. Warren was noted for the sweetness of his disposition. 6. Knowledge is power.

II.—The Pronoun.

25. Pronouns stand for Nouns ; as, Charles went to Paris with *his* mother, and *he* came back without *her*.

(a) The word *Pronoun* (Latin *pro* and *nomen*) means *for* or *instead of* a noun. The use of pronouns is to prevent the repetition of nouns, and to make speaking and writing more rapid and less encumbered with words.

(b) The principal pronouns are: *I, Thou, You, Me, He, She, It, We, They, My, Your, His, Her, Its, Him, Our, Us, Their, Them, Who, Whose, Whom, Which, That, What.*

Exercise 2.

A.

Pick out the PRONOUNS, and say for what Nouns they stand.

1. The Arabs are able to catch the ostrich only when they have tired it some days by constant chase. 2. Men find plants where they least expect them. 3. A boy that is always grumbling will lose the friends that he has. 4. I hope you will come to see us soon. 5. Who goes there?

B.

Write PRONOUNS for the NOUNS printed in Italics.

1. The master told the two brothers to tell *the two brothers' father* that *the father* must get *the two brothers* new books. 2. The king took the hand of *the king's* earliest friend, and pressed *the hand* to *the king's* heart. 3. Philip's mother said to *Philip*, '*Philip* must keep *Philip's* clothes in better order.' 5. When the ostrich's pursuer approaches *the ostrich*, *the ostrich* sticks *the ostrich's* head in the sand.

III.—The Adjective.

26. **Adjectives describe things**; as, *The early primrose, The distant hills, The three swans, The open country.*

The literal meaning of adjective (Latin *adjectus*, placed to) is, *placed alongside of*. An adjective is a word placed alongside of a noun for the purpose of showing the extent of its signification, or of describing the thing which the noun represents.

Exercise 3.

Pick out the ADJECTIVES, and name the things they describe or limit.

1. Silk-worms are curious and industrious little creatures. 2. Good books deserve a careful perusal. 3. They called him a true friend and a noble foe. 4. Many ships were lost in the storm. 5. There are seven days in a week. 6. The long, long, weary days are past.

7. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.

IV.—The Verb.

27. **Verbs make statements**; as, The wild cataract *leaps* in glory; The revolution of the earth on its axis *causes* the succession of day and night.

A verb is a word by means of which we assert (1) *what anything does*; (2) *What is done to it*; or (3) *in what state it exists*.

The term *verb* is derived from the Latin *verbum*, a word, and this part of speech is so called because it is *the* word without which no group of words can make a sentence.

Exercise 4.

Pick out the VERBS, and tell their subjects.

My father left me a large estate, the best part of which I spent during my youth. But I perceived my error, and reflected that riches are perishable, and are quickly consumed by such ill-managers as myself. I further considered that by my irregular way of living, I wretchedly misspent my time. I remembered the saying of the great Solomon, which I had frequently heard from my father, that "death is more tolerable than poverty."

The red light shone through the open door,
From the round declining sun,
And fantastic shadows all about
On the dusty floor were thrown,
As the factory clock tolled the hour of five,
And the school was almost done.

V.—The Adverb

28. **Adverbs describe actions and qualities**; as, I have *often* climbed *very* steep hills.

(a) The literal meaning of adverb is, *added to a verb*, because the adverb is most frequently the adjunct of a verb; but adverbs are also joined to adjectives and other adverbs.

(b) Adverbs describe *actions* by showing *how*, *when*, or *where* they are done. For this purpose they are joined to *verbs*.

(c) Adverbs describe *qualities* by showing *how much* of them is possessed. For this purpose they are joined to *adjectives*; as, *very little* money.

(d) Adverbs also limit adverbial descriptions by showing *how much* of them is applicable. For this purpose they are joined to other *adverbs*; as, He speaks *most* fluently, and writes *very* correctly.

Exercise 5.

Pick out the ADVERBS, and name the words to which they are joined.

The old man appeared very weak and feeble. He clasped his legs nimbly about my neck, and held my throat so tightly that I really thought he would have strangled me.

Softly, peacefully, lay her to rest,
Place the turf lightly on her young breast;
Gently, solemnly bend o'er the bed
Where ye have pillowed thus softly her head.

VI.—The Preposition.

29. Prepositions join nouns and pronouns to other words in the sentence.

Prepositions also show the relation between things, or between things and actions or attributes.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The ring is *in* the box.

John looked *through* the keyhole.

Jane is fond *of* music.

EXPLANATION.—In these sentences *in*, *through*, and *of*, are prepositions. *In* shows the relation between the *ring* and the *box*; *through* shows the relation between the *keyhole* and the action expressed by *looked*; and *of* shows the relation between the *music* and the attribute denoted by the word *fond*.

Exercise 6.

Pick out the PREPOSITIONS, and name the words which they join.

Indian corn is gathered in the field by men, who go from hill to hill with baskets into which they put the corn. The creaking of the masts was frightful. We gazed with great pleasure on those islands.

VII.—The Conjunction.

30. Conjunctions connect words and sentences ; as, James *and* John are good boys, *and* they are much esteemed by their teacher.

The word conjunction, derived from the Latin, *con*, together, and *jungo*, I join, means *joining together*. Pronouns, adverbs, and prepositions also serve as connectives.

Exercise 7.

Pick out the CONJUNCTIONS, and say what words, or statements, they connect.

1. Hamilton and Jefferson were distinguished statesmen.
2. Greene was a courageous officer, but Washington was the greater general of the two.
3. You will succeed if you persevere.
4. We read the newspapers because they give us the news.
5. I have not received the letter, though I expect it every hour.

VIII.—The Interjection.

31. Interjections express sudden feeling ; as, *Alas !* how changed !

The literal meaning of *Interjection* (Latin *inter* and *jacio*) is a *throwing between*. The Interjection has no grammatical connection with the other words in the sentence. It cannot form part of a proposition, nor connect two propositions, but is *thrown in* to express sudden emotion.

Exercise 8.

Pick out the INTERJECTIONS.

1. Alas ! poor Yorick.
2. Hurrah ! the work is done.
3. Lo, the poor Indian !
4. Hush ! he sleeps forever.
5. Ah ! where is he now ?
6. Pshaw ! it is nothing.

REVIEW OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. NOUNS name things.
2. PRONOUNS stand for nouns.
3. ADJECTIVES describe things.
4. VERBS make statements.

5. ADVERBSdescribe actions and qualities.
6. PREPOSITIONS...join words and show relations.
7. CONJUNCTIONS..connect words and statements.
8. INTERJECTIONS..express sudden feeling.

Exercise 9.

Tell the part of speech to which each word belongs.

The study of history improves the mind. The sloth, in its wild state, passes its life on trees. The horn of the hunter is heard on the hill. Some birds of prey, having secured their victim, fly with it very swiftly to their nests.

Oh ! it is excellent
To have a giant's strength ; but tyrannous
To use it like a giant.—*Shakspeare.*

Lo ! here the gentle lark, weary of rest,
From his moist cabinet mounts up on high,
And wakes the morning, from whose silver breast
The sun ariseth in his majesty.—*Shakspeare.*

CHAPTER II.

SUB-DIVISIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

I.—The Noun.

32. Nouns are divided into two classes—*Common Nouns* and *Proper Nouns*.

A **Common Noun** is a word that may be used as the name of each individual of a class of things ; as, *boy, man, horse, city.*

A **Proper Noun** is a word used as the name of some particular person, or object ; as, *John, Ottawa, America.*

The word *proper*, derived from the Latin *proprius*, means *own*. A *proper name* is a person's or thing's *own name*.

Proper nouns are written with a capital letter at the beginning.

33. A proper noun becomes a common noun when it represents a class; that is, when it has the *use* of a common noun. Thus *Swift*, *Nero*, are proper nouns; but when we speak of the 'wit of a *Swift*,' 'the cruelty of a *Nero*,' '*Swift*' and '*Nero*' are common nouns, because they are used to represent classes of men.

34. In like manner, a common noun, becomes a proper noun when it is used to represent an *individual* object. Thus *park* is a common noun, but *The Park* is a proper noun.

Common Nouns are sometimes further subdivided into *Abstract* nouns, *Participial* nouns, and *Collective* nouns. An *Abstract* noun is the name of a quality, considered apart from the object to which it belongs, as, *whiteness*, *honesty*. A *Collective* noun, is a noun which, in the singular number, stands for a collection or number of things; as, *flock*, *fleet*, *school*.

Exercise 10.

Assign each NOUN to its CLASS, and SUB-CLASS.

MODEL.—*The Cotter's Saturday Night*, composed by Robert Burns, is a charming poem.

Cotter's Saturday Night.....is a noun, because it is a name; proper, because it is a special name.

Robert Burns..... is a noun, because it is a name; proper, because it is a special name.

Poem..... is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of all the individuals of a class.

1. France has not seen such another king as Henry the Fourth.
2. Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear.
3. David and Jonathan loved each other tenderly.

4. The 'Tempest' was the last tragedy written by Shakspeare.
5. Men and women used to make pilgrimages to Canterbury.
6. Chaucer wrote the Canterbury Tales.
7. The Channel is noted for its rough weather.
8. Milton is the Homer of English literature.
9. Thou hast all seasons for thine own, O Death.

Exercise II.

Give a COMMON NOUN for each group of PROPER NOUNS.

Shakspeare, Milton, and Homer were *poets*.

Ottawa, Toronto, Montreal, Halifax are——.

Ontario, Manitoba, and New Brunswick are——.

The Mackenzie, the St. Lawrence, and the St. John are——.

II.—The Pronoun.

35. Pronouns are divided into two classes.

I. Personal.

2. Relative.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

36. The Personal Pronouns are: *I, thou, he, she, it; we, you, they.*

37. *I* and *we* denote the person speaking, and are said to be of the *First Person*.

38. *Thou* and *you* denote the person spoken to, and are said to be of the *Second Person*.

Thou was anciently used instead of *you* in addressing a single person; but it is now used only in prayer or on other solemn occasions, and in poetry.

39. *He, she, it,* and *they,* denote the person or the thing spoken of, and are said to be of the *Third Person*.

There is an important difference between the personal pronouns of the first and of the second person, and the personal pronoun of the third person. *He, she, and it*, come fully up to the definition of the pronoun—that is, they stand for *Nouns*. *I, we, and you* are used to express the *personality* of the speaker and of the person spoken to. The radical difference between the pronouns of the first and of the second person, and the pronoun of the third person, has led some modern grammarians to confine the name *Personal Pronouns* to the former, and to class *he, she, it*, with *Demonstratives*; but the old nomenclature does not lead to any mistakes of practice, and hence it has not been changed in this text-book.

40. Some grammarians classify certain words as *Adjective Pronouns*, which they still further sub-divide into *Demonstrative, Indefinite, Distributive, &c.* It is better to regard these words as *adjectives, limiting nouns understood*; e. g.—'Some (i.e. some seed) fell by the way side.'

The following are the principal words of this sort :—

All, any, another, both, each, either, few, former, after, many, much, none, neither, one, other, some, that, this.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

41. A *Relative Pronoun* is a pronoun that both represents a preceding noun or pronoun, and connects with it a dependent proposition. The word that the *Relative Pronoun* represents or to which it relates, is called the *Antecedent*.

ILLUSTRATION.

The mountain which I climbed is very high.

In this sentence *which* is the *Relative* and *mountain* is the *Antecedent*.

42. *Relative Pronouns* perform the office of connectives, joining two sentences into one. Thus, the sentence given above is equal to the two sentences :—

The mountain is very high. I climbed it.

43. The Relative Pronouns are : *who*, *which*, *that*, *what*.

44. *Who* relates to persons ; *which* to the lower animals and to lifeless things ; *that*, may, in certain cases, be used in place of *who* or *which*.

45. The pronoun *what* is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which* ; as, ' I have found *what* I wanted,' is equal to ' I have found *the thing which* I wanted.'

What is the neuter of *who*. It is often used as an adjective ; as, I know *what* book he wants.

46. **Compound Relatives** are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what* ; as, whoever, whosoever.

47. The word *as* has the force of a relative when its antecedent is qualified by the adjective *such* : as,

We are *such* stuff *as* dreams are made of.

48. *But* is sometimes equal to a relative and a negative, and its antecedent is always a negative ; as,

There is *no* fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has [=that has not] one vacant chair.

49. The Pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking a question, are called *Interrogative* Pronouns.

For *who* to dumb forgetfulness a prey,
This pleasing, anxious being e'er resigned ?

Exercise 12.

Assign each PRONOUN to its proper Class.

I hope you will give me the book that I lent you. The prince left his own carriage, and entered that of the general.

It is an ill wind that blows nobody good. What did the prisoner say? Tell me what the prisoner said. The King, who is the head of the State, may withhold his consent from a measure which has passed both houses of Parliament.

What in me is dark,
Illumine; what is low, raise and support.—*Milton.*

I have seen him buy such bargains as would amaze one.—*Goldsmith.*

Who was the thane, lives yet.—*Shakspeare.*

Whenever Antonio met Shyloek on the Rialto, he used to reproach him with his usuries and hard dealings; which the Jew would hear with seeming patience, while he secretly meditated revenge.—*Lamb.*

III.—The Adjective.

50. Adjectives express either *quality* or *quantity*, or they *point out*. Hence we may divide them into three classes:—

1. Qualitative. 2. Limiting. 3. Demonstrative.

51. Qualitative adjectives denote some quality or attribute, that is, they state of *what sort* the thing is.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

'A *high* mountain,' 'a *red* rose,' 'a *beautiful* landscape,' 'The *same* boy.'

To this class belong participles when used as adjectives; as, 'The *running* water'; also adjectives derived from proper names, as, 'English,' 'American.'

52. Limiting adjectives denote *how much* or *how many*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

'He has eaten a *whole* apple.' 'Make *no* noise.' 'Some men are cowards.' 'All men are mortal.'

This class includes *a* or *an*, sometimes called the *Indefinite Article*; the numerals, *one, two, three, &c.*; the words *all*,

any, some, half, many, few, little, less, least, enough, much, both, &c.

53. **Demonstrative Adjectives** point out which thing or things we are speaking of.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

'*This* boy.' 'The horse is in the garden.'

This class includes the Definite Article *the* ; the Distributives, *each, either* ; the Ordinals, *first, second, third, &c.*

54. Some grammarians place the words *the*, and *an* or *a* in a class by themselves. *The* is called the *Definite Article* ; *an*, the *Indefinite Article*.

(a) *The* points out a particular individual, or a group of individuals, of a certain class ; as, *the* apple—a particular apple already referred to, or to be referred to.

(b) *An* or *a* is used before a noun when we refer to any one of the class to which a thing belongs ; as *an* apple=any one of the class called apple. *An* is from the same Saxo: root as the word *any*. Different languages are variously supplied with Articles. The Greek and the Hebrew have only the definite article ; the Latin has no article at all ; most of the modern languages, as Italian, French, German, and Spanish, have both articles. The name *Article* literally means a small joint. It seems merely to express that they are small words. They are really adjectives in their use, and hence are classed as such in this book.

55. *A* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound ; as, *a* man, *a* house, *a* wonder, *a* year, *a* use, *a* unit, *a* European. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound ; as, *an* art, *an* end, *an* heir, *an* hour, *an* urn.

(a) The learner must particularly note that the use of *a* or *an* depends, not on whether the initial letter of the succeeding word is a *vowel* or a *consonant*, but a *vowel sound*, or a *consonant sound*. Thus 'use' and 'urn' both begin with the vowel *u* ; but in the first instance *u* has a *consonant sound*, in

the second a vowel *sound*. *i* and *y*, beginning words, are consonants, and words commencing with these letters, or the *sounds* of these letters, take *a*. Words beginning with the sounded *h* take *a*; as, *a* history; those beginning with *h* silent take *an*; as, *an* honor.

(*b*) The *n* in *an* is a part of the root (as in Latin *annus*, French *un*.) Hence it is not *a* that becomes *an* before a vowel or a silent *h*, according to the common rule, but *an*. *h* loses its final letter before a consonant.

56. Note the signification of the following adjectives:—

This and **these** point out objects near the speaker.

That and **those** indicate objects distant from the speaker.

When two objects are compared, *this* represents the latter, *that* the former.

Each denotes every individual of a class viewed separately.

Each ivied arch and pillar lone,
Pleads haughtily for glories gone.—*Byron*.

Every refers to individuals taken collectively.

Either means literally whichever of the two you please.

Sometimes *either* has the sense of *both*; as, On *either* side is level fen (*i. e.*, on *both* sides).

Neither is *either* with the negative prefix *ne*, *not*.

Both means two taken together.

Many may be joined with a singular noun preceded by *an* or *a*.

Many *a* flower is born to blush unseen.

No is a contraction of *none*. **Not** followed by a *o* *an* has the force of *no*; as, *Not a drum was heard.*

Exercise 13.

Assign each ADJECTIVE to its proper Class.

1. A terrible war had been waged for many years. 2. The British coal-fields, it is said, will be exhausted in three generations. 3. The murder was no deed of a few moments. 4. The false glare of military glory shows massacre and rapine decked in the colors of good deeds. 5. The heavy brigade was drawn up in two lines. 6. Each soldier knew his duty, and every man was prepared to do it. 7. The captain lost both his sons, the one in battle, the other at sea. 8. The sisters embraced each other, and took their last farewell. 9. There is much wisdom in the words of the old man, but little grace in his speech. 10. Nothing is more remarkable than the rapid progress of this country in material wealth during the present generation. 11. The bloom of that fair face is wasted; the hair is gray with care. 12. I passed some time in the contemplation of this wonderful structure, and the great variety of objects which it presented.
13. It is a common observation, that objects which in the reality would shock, are in tragical and such like representations the source of a very high species of pleasure.—*Burke.*
14. The Malay has been a fearful enemy for months: every night, through his means, I have been transported into Asiatic scenery.—*De Quincey.*
15. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean—roll!
Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain.—*Byron.*

IV.—The Verb.

57. Some verbs require to be followed by a noun or pronoun, called an *object*, to complete the sense; as, 'Solomon *built* the temple.'

Other verbs do not admit of such object after them, but complete the sense of themselves; as, 'Fishes swim.'

Verbs are divided into two classes :—

Transitive Verbs. Intransitive Verbs.

58. A transitive verb states an action that passes over to an object.

A sentence containing a transitive verb is not complete unless the word which represents the object of the action is expressed. This word must be a noun or some word representing a noun.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

James *strikes* the ball.

John *loves* his father.

Music *pleases* me.

59. An Intransitive Verb is one which denotes a state or condition, or it denotes an action which does not pass over to an object.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

I *am*, I *sit*, I *sleep*, I *run*, I *rejoice*.

60. Many verbs are used sometimes as transitive verbs, sometimes as intransitive verbs ; as, 'Heat melts ice'; 'Ice melts.' 'She reads a book'; 'She reads well.' 'He swam the Esk'; 'He swam to the ship.'

61. Some Intransitive Verbs are followed by an object of similar meaning to themselves ; as, 'I dreamed a sad dream.' 'He sleeps his last sleep.'

62. Some verbs when used intransitively are properly speaking *reflexive*, that is, the agent acts upon himself, but the pronoun is not expressed ; as, 'He stretches (himself). 'He bends (himself) over the grave.'

63. Intransitive Verbs that require as Complement a word (adjective, noun, or pronoun) relating to their subject, are sometimes called Copula Verbs.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

He *is* a man.

The rose *smells* sweet.

64. The principal copula verb is the verb To Be. Other verbs belonging to this class are *become, seem, appear, grow, feel, look, smell, taste.*

Exercise 14.

Assign each VERB to its proper Class

1. Lives of great men all remind us,
We can make our lives sublime.
2. Chill penury repressed their noble rage,
And froze the genial current of the soul.
3. Some murmur when their sky is clear.
4. Sir Christopher Wren built St. Paul's.
5. Virtue is its own reward.
6. He was a man, take him for all in all,
We shall not look upon his like again.
7. Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap.
8. And there upon the ground I sit,
I sing and sing to them.
9. The gas burns brightly this evening.
10. Mohammedans wash three times a day.

V.—The Adverb.

65. Adverbs are divided into five classes :—

1. Adverbs of **Time**. 2. Adverbs of **Place**. 3. Adverbs of **Manner**. 4. Adverbs of **Cause**. 5. Adverbs of **Affirmation and Negation**.

66. **Adverbs of Time** express *when, how often, or how long* an action is done ; as, *now, seldom, forever.*

67. **Adverbs of Place** express *where, whither, or whence*, an action proceeds ; as *here, below, hence.*

68. **Adverbs of Manner** express how an action is done, or how a quality is possessed ; as, *well, softly, so.*

69. **Adverbs of Cause** express *why* a thing is done ; as, *therefore, why.*

70. **Adverbs of Affirmation** affirm ; as, *yes, yea, ay.*
Adverbs of negation deny ; as, *no, not, nay.*

71. There are certain adverbs which, in addition to the ordinary use of adverbs, have also the force of *connectives*, joining the clause to which they belong to the rest of the sentence ; as, *when, while, where, how, why, wherefore.*

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Shall I be frightened *when* a madman stares ?—*Shakspeare.*

The world was all before them *where* to choose

Their place of rest, and Providence their guide.—*Milton.*

72. Connective adverbs, unlike all other adverbs, have no independent meaning in themselves. Thus, in the expression, 'He came *while*,' the sense is suspended till some other words are supplied, as 'He came *while* *I was speaking.*' Here *while* connects 'I was speaking' with 'he came.'

NOTES ON THE ADVERB.

NOTE I.—The connective or relative adverbs are derived from the same Anglo-Saxon root as the relative pronouns *who* and *which*. Hence they may generally be resolved into an antecedent and a relative phrase. Thus, 'He arrived *when* we left' may be resolved into, 'He arrived *at the time* [antecedent] *at which* we left' [relative clause].

NOTE II.—Adverbial phrases are expressions made up of two or more adverbs connected by conjunctions, or they are expressions consisting of a preposition with a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. EXAMPLES : *By and by, up and down, in and out, one by one, from below, at length, at all, by far, as yet.*

NOTE III.—The word *the* in such expressions as 'the sooner the better' is not to be parsed by itself; 'the sooner' and 'the better' should be parsed as adverbial phrases.

NOTE IV.—*Yes* and *No*, which are sometimes called adverbs of certainty, being incapable of standing beside a verb must be considered as peculiar words, rather adverbs than any thing else, and yet not adverbs in the strict sense of the term. These words come from verb-roots. *Yes* means literally *let it indeed be*. *No*, the term of denial, comes down to us from thousands of years ago. In parsing, call them Independent Adverbs.

NOTE V.—A number of compound adverbs, such as *herein*, *wherby*, *withal*, *hereto*, etc., are now, except in legal documents, solemn language, or poetry, out of date.

Exercise 15.

Classify the ADVERBS.

1. And *now* a bubble bursts and *now* a world. 2. Night *s already* gone. 3. She weeps *not*, but *often* and *deceply* she *sighs*. 4. *Again* thy fires began to burn. 5. *Oft* she rejects, but *never once* offends. 6. *Ill fared* it then with Roderick Dhu. 7. I am *not at all* surprised. 8. And *ever* and *anon* he beat the doubling drum. 9. Every one ran *hither* and *thither*. 10. I was much alarmed *when* I saw him in so wretched a condition. 11. The buffaloes go southward *as soon as* winter approaches.

Change the expressions in italics into adverbs.

MODEL. He did the work *with care*. He did the work *carefully*.

Everything was done *with prudence* and *wisdom*. The bird builds its nest *with great skill*. John did his task *in a great hurry*. *With slowness* and *sadness* we laid him down. Lift her up *with tenderness*.

VI. Prepositions.

73. The English language contains about fifty PREPOSITIONS.

It is not correct to say that Prepositions show the relation of *one noun to another*. Prepositions *join* nouns and pronouns to other words ; but they express the relation of *things to other things, or to actions or attributes*.

74. The most common relations expressed by Prepositions are *place, time, manner, cause*.

75. The following are among the most important Prepositions :—

Of—*Of* generally denotes possession ; as, *the book of the scholar ; i.e., the scholar's book*.

Of expresses many relations, all connected with the original meaning of the word, which is *proceeding from*.

(1.) *Of* is used to refer the part of anything to the whole ; as, *the walls of a town*. This may be called the *partitive* meaning.

(2.) *Of* is used to connect an abstract property with the concrete ; as, *the lightness of air*. This may be called the *attributive* meaning.

(3.) *Of* may serve to specify a subject or to make a reference ; as, *the Book of Proverbs*.

(4.) The Preposition *of*, with its noun, has often the force of an adjective ; as, *a crown of gold* (a golden crown). This may be called the *adjective* meaning.

(5.) Nouns in apposition are sometimes connected by *of* ; as, *the city of Amsterdam*.

To—The primary idea of *to* is *motion towards* ; as, *he went to the house*.

To is pointedly contrasted with *from*, as in the phrase 'to and fro.' Among the more remote applications of *to* are to be found such phrases as '*pleasant to the taste*,' '*to one's*

hand,' 'ten to one,' 'they marched to the tune.' Even in these examples, when motion *in the direction of* is not directly stated, *nearness*, which is the natural result, is indicated.

From—means *beginning from, proceeding from*. Anything that indicates source, origin, or commencement, may be preceded by *from*. It is also applied to time; as, 'from morn to dewy eve.'

'It is inferior *from* what I expected' should be 'to what I expected.' 'Different *to* that' should be 'different *from* that.'

By—The primary meaning of *by* seems to be *alongside of*; that is, proximity. 'He sat *by* the river.' 'Hard *by* the oracles of God.' The other meanings grow naturally out of this. Thus, *defence of*—'stand *by* me;' *instrumentality*—'eaten *by* wolves.'

Words of measuring take *by* after them, from the circumstance that the things measured have to be put side by side, as 'greater *by* half,' 'sold *by* the ounce.' So also of *time*. *By* this time they are far away=*alongside of*, or at this time.

With—The radical notion involved in *with* is *joining or uniting*. It comes from the same root as the noun *withe*, meaning a twig used to bind or *unite* a bundle of hay.

From the radical idea comes that of *company* or companionship; as, he travelled *with* me for some days. *Possession* is readily implied in the idea of union, as in '*with* the hope of.' From union comes the idea of instrumentality, as 'fed *with* the same food.' Finally, the use of '*with*' to denote opposition (as 'to differ *with* a person') comes from the fact that antagonists must *join* in a struggle.

76. A *Prepositional Phrase* is a group of words that, taken together, have the power of a Preposition; as, *for the sake of, apart from, etc.*

77. The Preposition and the Adverb are closely allied, and most of the Simple Prepositions may be used as Adverbs; thus—

Prepositions.

He fell *down* stairs.
I have a pain *in* the head.
He passed *through* the town.

Adverbs.

He moved *down*.
Go *in*, and see him.
He passed *through*.

78. The **Relations** expressed by Prepositions are—

I. *Adjective.*

II. *Adverbial.*

79. A preposition expresses the *Adjective relation* when it unites its object to a noun or to a pronoun ; as, a man *of* taste ; she *with* the black eyes.

80. A preposition expresses the *Adverbial relation* when it unites its object to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb ; as, he came *in* haste.

Exercise 16.

Say what RELATION each PREPOSITION expresses.

1. The man with the gray coat fell from the top of the wall. 2. We rise at seven o'clock in the winter, and in summer at six. 3. James V. of Scotland was the great-grand-nephew of Henry VII. of England, the first of the Tudor line. 4. There are many proofs of the roundness of the earth. 5. The head of the gang listened in silence to the remonstrances of his subordinates. 6. His head had not been five seconds under water, when he rose to the surface, and swam towards the bank. 7. He of the rueful countenance answered without delay. 8. As we walked across the bridge, we saw a number of fish in the pool beneath us.

VII.—The Conjunction.

81. Conjunctions are of two great kinds—

I. **Co-ordinative Conjunctions.** II. **Subordinative Conjunctions.**

82. **Co-ordinative Conjunctions** join clauses of equal rank or importance ; they also join words which stand in the same relation to some other word in the sentence ; as,

The snow was deep, *and* the wind was cold.
John. *and* James brought the water.

83. Some Co-ordinative Conjunctions are used in pairs and are called *Correlative Conjunctions*. Thus :

<i>Both</i>	has	<i>and</i>	<i>Both</i> Louis <i>and</i> Charley came.
<i>Either</i>	"	<i>or</i>	<i>Either</i> Ella <i>or</i> Willie did it.
<i>Neither</i>	"	<i>nor</i>	<i>Neither</i> the horse <i>nor</i> the carriage was injured.
<i>As</i>	"	<i>as</i>	Her eyes are <i>as</i> bright <i>as</i> diamonds.
<i>So</i>	"	<i>as</i>	He is not <i>so</i> bad <i>as</i> he seems.
<i>So</i>	"	<i>that</i>	She was <i>so</i> tired <i>that</i> she fell asleep.
<i>Whether</i>	"	<i>or</i>	<i>Whether</i> I go <i>or</i> stay.
<i>Though</i>	"	<i>yet</i>	<i>Though</i> his heart bled, <i>yet</i> he kept a cheerful countenance

84. Co-ordinative Conjunctions are sometimes sub-divided into two classes :—

1. *Copulative*, which connect both the statements and their meaning ; as, *and*, *also*.

2. *Disjunctive*, which connect the statements, but express separation as to their meaning ; as, *but*, *yet*.

85. **Subordinative Conjunctions** join dependent clauses to the principal clause, or to the clause which they modify ; as, I will go *if* you call for me. He feared *that* he should fail.

86. Relative Pronouns and Connective Adverbs have the force of Subordinative Conjunctions ; as, I will go *when* he calls for me.

NOTES ON THE CONJUNCTION.

AND, the principal Copulative Conjunction, is derived from an Anglo-Saxon verb—*andan*, to add. It means *add* ; as, Bread *and* butter = bread *add* butter.

OR, the principal Disjunctive Conjunction, marks an alternative ; as, Will you have an apple *or* an orange ?

Or is also used to join two nouns, of which the second is explanatory of the first ; as, the bed, or channel, of the river = the bed, that is to say, the channel. In this use the first noun is followed by a comma.

IF is a shortened form of *gif*, from the Anglo Saxon verb *gifan*, to give. It means *give* or *grant*; as, I shall go *if* you let me = *grant that you let me*.

BECAUSE is compounded of *by* and *cause*.

A number of words that, taken together, have the power of joining, form a *Conjunctive Phrase*; as, *inasmuch as, as well as, as if, etc.*

THAN, followed by *whom*, is a Preposition.

Exercise 17.

State whether the CONJUNCTIONS are CO-ORDINATIVE, or SUBORDINATIVE.

1. Take heed lest ye fall. 2. I have cut my finger, therefore I can not write. 3. I fear I shall fail, but I shall make the attempt. 4. I shall make the attempt, though I fear I shall fail. 5. He speaks so low that he can not be heard. 6. Remain where you are till I return. 7. He will neither come, nor send an apology. 8. It is as cold as Iceland. 9. I know not whether to go or remain. 10. Ask James if he is ready; and if he is ready, tell him to follow as quickly as he can. 11. He did not deserve to succeed; for he made no effort, and showed no interest. 12. I shall not go unless you call me, nor will I remain if I can avoid it.

Exercise 18.

NAME THE CLASS AND SUB-CLASS.

MODEL.

The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

The.....an adjective, demonstrative.

Path...a noun, common.

Of....a preposition.

Glory..a noun, common.

Lead...a verb, intransitive.

But....an adverb, of manner, (= only).

To....a preposition.

The...an adjective, demonstrative.

Grave..a noun, common.

1. The grave is the ordeal of true affection.
2. Each thought on the woman who loved him the best.
3. So hard a winter had not been known for years.
4. And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew,
That one small head could carry all he knew.

CHAPTER III.

INFLECTION.

87.—Inflection treats of the changes made in words to express various *relations* and *uses*.

We say *boy* when we mean a single individual of the class, and *boys* when we mean more than one.

We say *boy's* when we wish to show that one individual of the class owns or possesses something, as, *the boy's hut*; and *boys'* when we wish to represent more than one as owner, as, *boys' tongues*.

We have *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*, to express different degrees of the same quality.

When the baby lies asleep we say, *He sleeps*; but when he awakes we say, *He slept*, or, *He has slept*.

Inflection enumerates and explains all the possible forms of each part of speech; *Syntax* directs which form it is proper to use in each particular case.

88. Inflections generally consist of an addition at the end of a word; as *boy's*, *lion-ess*, *swim-s*. Sometimes, however, the change is made within the word itself; as *man*, *men*; *rise*, *rose*.

89. Of the eight classes of words, three—the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection—are *uninflected*. In these there is, therefore, no liability to use a wrong form. The *inflected* Parts of Speech are five, namely, the Noun, the Pronoun, the Adjective, the Verb, and the Adverb.

1.—The Noun.

90. Nouns are inflected to express differences of *Number, Gender, and Case.*

NUMBER.

91. Number is that change in the form of Nouns by which we show whether we are speaking of one object, or of more than one.

92. There are two Numbers, the *Singular* Number and the *Plural* Number. A noun is *Singular* when it names one thing, as *book*; *Plural* when it names more than one, as *books*.

93. The *Plural* is generally formed by adding *s* to the *Singular*; as, *book, books*.

One class of Anglo-Saxon Nouns formed the plural in *as*, which, in later English, became *es*, and ultimately *s*.

94. Nouns ending in *s, ch, soft, sh, x, and z*, form their plural by adding *es*; *glass, glass-es*; *church, churches*; *fox, fox-es*.

The letter *e* before *s* aids in the pronunciation of these words, by forming an additional syllable.

95. Nouns ending in *o* or *i* after a consonant, form their plural by adding *es*; as *potato-es, alkali-es*.

The following nouns ending in *o*, take *s* only in the plural,—*domino, duodecimo, octavo, quarto, canto, grotto, mosquito, rondo, solo, tyro, virtuoso*; also nouns ending in *o* after a vowel, as *folio*.

96. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change the *y* for *i*, and add *es* for the plural; as *lady, ladies*.

Formerly these words ended in *ie* in the singular, as *ladie, dutie*.

97. When *y* at the end of a word is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed according to the general rule, by simply adding *s*, as *valley*, *valleys*.

98. Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *v*, and adding *e* sounded like *z*; as *wolf*, *wolves*; *wife*, *wives*.

In Anglo-Saxon the singular of these words ended in *re*.

99. Nouns ending in *oof*, *ff*, and *rf*, and nouns in *f* of Norman-French origin, retain the *f*, and add *s* only in the plural; as *roof*, *roofs*; *cliff*, *cliffs*; *dwarf*, *dwarfs*; *chief*, *chiefs*. So also, *reef*, *fife*, and *strife*.

The plural of *staff* is *staves*. *Wharf* has *wharfs* and *wharves*.

100. SAXON NOUNS.—A few nouns of Saxon origin form their plural by changing the vowel sound of the singular; as, *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *mouse*, *mice*; *louse*, *lice*.

A few old Saxon nouns form their plural in *en*; as *ox*, *oxen*; brother, brethren. Children, the plural of child, has a peculiar double termination. It is thus accounted for: The Scandinavian plural ending, *er*, would make the word *childer*, a form which still exists in Lancashire; the English plural would be *children*. Our plural is a compound of both.

101 FOREIGN NOUNS.—Most nouns from foreign languages retain their foreign plural.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Pure Latin nouns:—

Nouns in *us* form the plural in *i*; as, *focus*, *foci*.
 “ “ *um* “ “ “ “ “ *a*; as, *datum*, *data*.
 “ “ *a* “ “ “ “ “ *e*; as, *nebula*, *nebulae*.
 “ “ *er* and *ie* “ “ “ *ices*; as, *vertex*, *vertices*.
 “ “ *us* (neuter gender) “ *era*; as, *genus*, *genera*.

2. Pure Greek nouns :—

Nouns in *is* form the plural in *es*: *as*, *crisis*, *crises*.

“ “ *on* “ “ “ “ *a*; *as*, *phenomenon*, *phenomena*:

Miasma has *miasmata* in the plural.

3. Some words adopted from other sources retain their original plurals. Thus—

Hebrew.—Cherub becomes cherubim.

French.—*Bean* “ *beaux*.

Italian.—*Virtuoso* “ *virtuosi*.

102. DOUBLE PLURALS.—Certain nouns have two forms of the plural, one regular, the other irregular. These distinctive forms have usually different meanings. Thus—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Brother...	brothers (by birth).....brethren (of a community).
Cloth....	cloth (kinds of cloth)....clothes (garments).
Die.....	dies (stamps for coining).dice (for play).
Genius...	geniuses (men of talent)..genii (spirits).
Index ...	indexes (contents).....indices (algebraic signs).
Pea.....	peas (a number, as <i>six peas</i>)pease (collective, as <i>a dish of pease</i>).
Penny ...	pennies (a number of separate coins).pence (collective)
Staff.....	staves (common use).....staffs (military term).
Shot.....	shot (balls).....shots (number of rounds).
Fish....	fish (collective).....fishes (individuals).

103. Nouns with *two* meanings in the plural :

<i>Sin.</i>	<i>1st Plural.</i>	<i>2nd Plural.</i>
Pain.....	pains (sufferings).....pains (troubles).	
Custom....	customs (habits).....customs (revenue duties).	
Letter....	letters (of the alphabet).letters (literature).	

104. Compound nouns generally form their plural by inflecting the principal noun; *sons-in-law*; *courts-martial*; *maid-servants*.

(a) When the words are so closely joined in sense that the meaning is not complete till the whole is known, the *s* is added at the end ; as, *pail-fuls*, *cup-fuls*, *forget-me nots*.

(b) We may say either 'the Misses Brown,' or 'the Miss Browns,' or even 'the Misses Browns.'

(c) A firm of Browns is named 'the Messrs. Brown,' or 'Brown Brothers.'

105. The following peculiarities are to be noted :

1. Nouns used only in the Plural :

Aborigines.	Entrails.	Scissors.
Annals.	Hustings.	Shears.
Antipodes.	Lees	Summons.
Archives.	Matins.	Thanks.
Banns.	Measles.	Tidings.
Bellows.	News.	Tongs.
Billiards.	Nuptials.	Trowsers.
Breeches.	Oats.	Vespers.
Calends.	Obsequies.	Victuals.
Credentials.	Odds.	Vitals.
Dregs.	Pincers.	Pantaloons.

News.....in old English was plural. It is now uniformly singular ; as, *ill news runs apace*.

Means.....is to be used in the singular when the signification is singular, and in the plural when the signification is plural. We may say, *this means* or *these means*.

Summons.....has a regular, derived plural, *summonses*.

Alms.....is plural in form, but is really singular, being derived from the Anglo-Saxon *almesse*

Politics.....
Ethics.....
Physic.....
Optics.....
Mathematics.....

} represent Greek plurals, but are now treated as singular. 'Mathematics is an improving study.' 'Optics is the science of light.'

2. Nouns the same in both numbers :

Deer.	Salmon.	Canon.
Grouse.	Sheep.	Perch.
Fish.	Swine.	Pike.
Trout.	Heathen.	Fowl.
Series.	Species.	

Some of these words have also regular plurals, with a distributive meaning; as, fishes, cannons, pikes.

3. Nouns with a different meaning in the Plural :

Compass.....compasses.	Salt.....salts.
Corn.....corns.	Domino.....dominoes.
Iron.....irons.	Good.....goods.

Exercise 19.

Write the PLURAL of the following Nouns :

1. Pen, desk, book, knife, fox, ox, foot, foot-man.
2. Candle, map, cage, calf, class, hat, sky, toy, cargo, church, monarch, muff, tyro, focus, basis, story, dictum, bean, potato, cherub, nebula, chimney, automaton, genius, proof, axis, criterion, child, woman, wife, kiss, staff.

Exercise 20.

Give the two plurals of *die*, with the meaning of each; also of *brother*, *cloth*, and *penny*.

Mention three other nouns that have two plurals differing in meaning.

Give three nouns used only in the plural, one signifying a pair of things.

What is peculiar in *alms*, *politics*, *salts*, and *pains*?

How many meanings has the word *letter* in the singular? How many in the plural?

Mention six nouns that have the same form in both numbers.

2.—Gender.

106. Living beings are divided into two classes or *sexes*, the *male sex*, and the *female sex*. Things without life are not of either sex.

By an inflection of nouns and pronouns called *gender*, we indicate whether the thing named is of the male sex, or of the female sex, or is without life, and hence of neither sex.

107. The name of anything of the male sex is said to be *masculine gender*; as, *king, brother, James*.

108. The name of anything of the female sex is said to be *feminine gender*; as *queen, sister, Jane*.

109. The name of anything of neither sex is said to be *neuter gender, that is, neither gender*; as, *apple, book, industry*.

110. Some names of persons and animals do not indicate the sex; as, *parent, servant, mouse*. Nouns of this sort are said to be of *common gender*.

111. When an inanimate object is represented as a living person, it is said to be personified. Thus words of the neuter gender become masculine or feminine:

For *Winter* came: the wind was *his* whip.
 One choppy finger was on *his* lip:
He had torn the cataracts from the hills,
 And they clanked at *his* girdle like manacles.

112. We often take no account of the sex of animals and young children, and hence refer to them by means of *neuter pronouns*; as, the child was crying for *its* mother.

113. The English language is the simplest of all languages in its rules for gender. We know the gender of any noun by its sense. If it denotes a living being, it is *Masculine* or it is *Feminine*, according to the *sex* of the being. If not the name of a living being, the noun is said to be *Neuter*; that is, *neither Masculine nor Feminine*.

In many languages, as Latin, Greek, etc., a poetical or figurative process of personifying things without life was in

extensive operation ; by this the distinction of gender was extended to nouns generally, and this without distinction of sex—the termination of the noun deciding its gender. This may be called *grammatical gender* ; but we have in English no such thing.

114. The word *gender* is derived from the Latin *genus*, 'a kind or sort.' Gender is applied to *nouns* or *names* ; *sex* relates to *things*. Persons and animals are of the *male* or *female sex* ; nouns are of the *masculine, feminine, or neuter gender*.

115. In English, Sex is usually denoted by the use of distinctive words to name the male and female ; as, *father, mother ; brother, sister ; gander, goose ; boy, girl*.

116. There are certain suffixes used to turn Masculine nouns into Feminines.

- (1.) The most common Feminine suffix is *ESS* ; as, *actor, actress ; giant, giantess ; heir, heiress ; lion, lioness ; poet, poetess*.
- (2.) The suffix *ix* is a Feminine inflection used in a few Latin derivatives, as *administrator, administratrix ; executor, executrix*.
- (3.) The suffix *ine* is a feminine inflection in a few words, as, *hero, heroine ; Joseph, Josephine ; Paul, Pauline*.

NOTES ON PECULIARITIES OF GENDER.

(a) The suffix *ster* was the most common Old English feminine inflection ; thus *webere* meant a male weaver, and *webster* meant a female weaver. But *ster* is now a masculine termination. This suffix is now used as a feminine only in the word *spinster* ; *seamstress* = *seam + str + ess* is redundant, containing both the Saxon inflection *ster* and the French *ess*. So with *songstress*.

(b) The word *vixen* contains the suffix *ine*. It is really fox-*ine*=a she-fox, and hence is applied to a cross, snarling woman.

(c) WIDOWER. *Widow* was in Old English both masculine and feminine. Afterwards it came to be used as feminine only; then the suffix *er* was added to denote the masculine.

(d) BRIDEGROOM. The masculine of bride is *bridegroom*. The word *groom* is a corruption of Anglo-Saxon *guma*, man.

(e) WOMAN, the feminine of man, is composed of *wif* (from the same root as 'weave') and *man* (which meant a human being of either sex). The literal meaning, therefore, is she that weaves, that is the weaver. The pronunciation of the plural of woman preserves the old root *wif*.

(f) LADY. The word *lord* comes from the Anglo-Saxon *hlaf-ord*=the loaf-giver. The *y* in *lady* is a feminine suffix, and the word means literally *the female loaf-giver*.

(g) BEAU and BELLE (masculine and feminine of the French adjective meaning beautiful) are not correlatives. *Beau* means either a male sweetheart or a dandy, while *belle* means not a female sweetheart, but a preeminently beautiful woman.

117. Sex is sometimes denoted by prefixing masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns to nouns of common gender; as, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*, *he-goat*, *she-goat*.

Exercise 21.

Tell the GENDER of the following Words:

1. Cow. Lass. Mistress. Poet. Gander.
2. Widower. Aunt. Uncle. Priestess. Goddess.
3. Lamb. Horse. Cattle. Hogs. Pigs. Chickens.
4. Pauline. Bridegroom. Ship. Sun. Moon.
5. Husband. Wife. Steer. Heifer. Gentleman. Lady.

Answer the following Questions:

1. Gender in English is what? What is the difference between gender and sex?

2. How many sexes are there? How many genders in English Grammar?
3. How many ways are there of distinguishing sex?
4. What is peculiar in *seamstress* and *songstress*?
5. What is the most common termination for the feminine?
6. Mention two nouns which have formed the masculine from the feminine.
7. Name the masculine and feminine forms for lamb, goat, sparrow.

3.—Case.

118. Things of which we speak by means of nouns stand in various relations to other things, and to actions, and attributes. Consequently, when these relations are expressed in language, nouns have various relations to other words in the sentence. In the sentence, 'The horse eats the man's hay,' *horse* stands for that which does the action denoted by the verb; *hay* stands for that upon which the action is performed; *man's* is used to indicate the person to whom the hay belongs.

119. In some languages nouns assume different terminations, to indicate the various relations in which they stand to other words. These different forms of the noun are called *cases*. The word *case* is derived from the Latin *casus*, falling. The ancient Greek grammarians took a fancy to represent that form of a noun in which it is used when it is the subject of a sentence, by an upright line, and compared the other forms to lines *falling* or *sloping off* from this upright line at different angles. Hence a collection of the various forms which a noun might assume was called the *declension* or *sloping down* of the noun. We apply the term *nominative case* to that case which they represented by the upright line.

120. Case is the form in which a noun or pronoun is used, to show the relation in which it stands to some other word in the sentence.

121. There are three cases,—the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

122. The **NOMINATIVE CASE** is that form which a noun has when it is the subject of a verb.

In the sentence, 'Cæsar conquered Gaul,' the noun *Cæsar* is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *conquered*.

123. The **POSSESSIVE CASE** is that form of the noun which is used to denote ownership.

In the sentence, 'Cæsar's cloak was torn,' the noun *Cæsar's* is in the possessive case, to show that the cloak belonged to Cæsar.

124. The **OBJECTIVE CASE** is used when the noun is the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition. The objective case of nouns is the same in *form* as the nominative case.

In the sentence, 'Brutus killed Cæsar,' the noun *Cæsar* is in the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *killed*.

125. The **POSSESSIVE SINGULAR** is formed by adding an apostrophe and the letter *s* to the nominative singular; as, Cæsar, Cæsar's.

Sometimes for the sake of euphony the letter *s* is omitted in forming the possessive of words ending in *s* or *ce*; as, 'For conscience' sake.'

126. If the plural ends in *s*, the possessive plural is formed by writing an apostrophe after the nominative plural, as, '*the soldiers' guns*;' but if the nominative

plural does not end in *s*, the possessive plural is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative plural, as '*the child'ren's hats.*'

The apostrophe and *s* placed after the nominative singular of nouns to form their possessive, marks a contraction of *es*, an old English inflection of the possessive singular.

Exercise 22.

Write the declension of the following nouns.

MODEL.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	Man,	Men.		<i>Nom.</i>	Boy,	Boys.
<i>Poss.</i>	Man's,	Men's.		<i>Poss.</i>	Boy's,	Boys'.
<i>Obj.</i>	Man,	Men.		<i>Obj.</i>	Boy,	Boys.
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	Lady,	Ladies.		<i>Nom.</i>	Sheep,	Sheep.
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's,	Ladies'.		<i>Poss.</i>	Sheep's,	Sheep's.
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady,	Ladies.		<i>Obj.</i>	Sheep,	Sheep.

1. Child ; prince ; woman ; king ; eable ; tutor.
2. Peril ; merey ; father ; Henry ; aunt ; cat.
3. Charles ; gardener ; brother ; poetess ; author ; painter.
4. Sculptor ; engraver ; sister ; Socrates ; princess ; bridge.
5. House ; Peter ; righteousness ; ox ; thief ; sheep.

Write the following—changing the nouns with prepositions into POSSESSIVE nouns..

MODEL.

The farm of my uncle. My uncle's farm.

1. A cap of a boy.
2. The mother of Moses.
3. The dresses of the ladies.
4. The son of the princess.
5. The pain-killer of Davis.
6. The wrath of Achilles.
7. The work of the men.
8. The wool of the sheep.
9. The hat of Mr. Jacob.
10. The house of Mr. Jacobs.
11. The store of the Messrs. Woods.
12. The banking-house of Brown Brothers.
13. The houses of my son-in-law.

4. PERSON.

127. Nouns are said to be of the *first person* when they denote the *speaker*; of the *second person* when they denote the *person spoken to*; and of the *third person* when they denote the *person spoken of*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. *I, James*, do promise to obey my teacher.
2. *James*, do you promise to obey your teacher?
3. *James* promises to obey his teacher.

EXPLANATION:—In the first sentence *James* is in the first person; in the second sentence, in the second person; and in the third sentence, in the third person.

II.—The Pronoun.

I.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

128. Personal Pronouns are varied in form to denote number, person, gender, and case.

INFLECTIONS OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	<i>Singular.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
First Person, I,	My or Mine,	Me,
	<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
First Person, We,	Our or ours,	Us.
	<i>Singular.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Second Person, Thou,	Thy or Thine,	Thee.
	<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Second Person, You or ye,	Your or Yours,	You.
	<i>Singular.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Third, { <i>Mas.</i> He,	His	Him,
{ <i>Fem.</i> She,	Her or Hers,	Her,
{ <i>Neut.</i> It,	Its,	It,
	<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
They,	Their or Theirs,	Them.

129. Except in the third person singular, in which we have a masculine, a feminine, and a neuter form, the personal pronouns are not varied to denote gender.

130. The personal pronouns of the first and of the second person have two forms of the possessive case; *my, mine; you, yours; our, ours*; also the third feminine has, *her, hers*. The former of each pair is used when the noun follows it; the latter is used when the noun is omitted. Thus—

This is	}	my her our your their	house.	This house is	}	mine. hers. ours. yours. theirs.
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Do not write *ours, yours, hers, theirs*, with an apostrophe before the *s*.

It is a remarkable fact that the word *its* did not exist in English until about 250 years ago. The place of *its* was filled by *his*, which was the possessive case of *hit* (*it*) as well as of *he*.

131. A reflexive form is obtained for the personal pronouns, in the nominative and in the objective case, by adding *self* or *selves* to the possessives of the first and of the second person, and to the objectives of the third person.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. Myself,	Ourselves.
2. { Thyself, } { Yourself, }	Yourselves.
3. { Herself, } { Himself, } { Itself. }	Themselves.

The word *self* is originally an adjective, or attribute of emphasis. Its use is twofold: 1st. To express emphasis; as, *Himself* must strike the blow. The compound pronoun is in like manner added to the simple; as, *I myself* wrote the letter. 2d. To form *Reflexive Pronouns*, by means of which we express that the object and the doer of an action are the same person or thing; as, *He killed himself*.

The word *own* joined to the Possessives both adds emphasis and has a reflexive meaning; as, *This is my own, my native land*.

2.—RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

132. The Relative Pronouns *who* and *which* have no change of form for number, person, or gender, but they are varied to denote case. *That* and *what* have no change of form.

Who AND *Which* DECLINED.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
Who,	Whose,	Whom,
Which,	Whose,	Which.

133. Compound Relative Pronouns are formed by adding to the simple pronouns the affixes *so*, *ever*, and *soever*; as, *who-so*, *which-ever*, *what-soever*.

The general force of these affixes is to imply a universal correlative; as, '*Who-so-ever* hateth his brother is a murderer' = *Every man without exception* that hateth, etc.

Exercise 23.

Tell the KIND, NUMBER, GENDER, and CASE of each PRONOUN.

1. She; whose; them; its; our; me. 2. Their; us; he; hers; they; I. 3. Me; whom; mine; yours; who. 4. They; thee; my; him; ye; which. 5. Ours; yours; that; her; theirs. 6. We; you; his; it; what; her. 7. Her father gave her a book. 8. The flower that you brought me is dead. 9. Whom call we gay? 10. He shall not touch us. 11. These are our horses, those are theirs. 12. My brother gave me that book a year ago.

III.—The Adjective.

134. Adjectives have but one inflection. This is used to show differences in the degree of quality, and is called *comparison*.

The adjectives *this* and *that* are varied to denote number; *this*, *these*; *that*, *those*.

In Anglo-Saxon there were several inflections. Thus, the adjective 'good,' used with a masculine noun, was *godæ*, with a feminine noun *gode*, and with a neuter noun *gode*; and the nominative plural was *godan*. Our language gains in simplicity by discarding these adjective inflections, and loses only a certain power of varying the order of words.

135. Adjectives admit of three varieties of form, called *Degrees of Comparison*. These are the *Positive Degree*, the *Comparative Degree*, and the *Superlative Degree*.

136. The **Positive Degree** is the adjective in its simple form; as, a *tall* man.

This form of the adjective is used when we ascribe a quality to an object without comparison.

137. The **Comparative Degree** is that form of the adjective by which we denote that one of two objects possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than the other; as, James is *taller* than John.

138. The **Superlative Degree** is that form of the adjective which we use to denote that an object possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than two or more objects with which we compare it; as James, John, and William are tall boys; but James is the *tallest*.

139. Adjectives of one syllable generally form their comparative by adding *er* to the positive, and their superlative by adding *est* to the positive; as, *tall*, *tall-er*, *tall-est*.

Adjectives ending in *e* mute drop this letter before *er* and *est*, as, *white*, *whiter*, *whitest*.

140. Adjectives of more than one syllable generally form their comparative by prefixing *more* to the positive, and their superlative by prefixing *most* to the positive; as, *playful*, *more playful*, *most playful*.

141. Adjectives of two syllables ending in *y*, *er*, or *ble*, also those which have the accent on the last syllable, and some others, may be compared by adding *er* and *est*, or by prefixing *more* and *most*; as, *merry*, *tender*, *able*, *polite*, *pleasant*.

(a) If euphony allows, long adjectives may be compared with *er* and *est*. And, on the other hand, even a monosyllabic adjective may be compared by *more* or *most*, if the ear be satisfied.

(b) A comparative and a superlative of *diminution* are formed by means of *less* and *least*; as, *less* grateful, *least* grateful.

(c) The auxiliary mode of comparison is derived from the Norman-French; the inflected mode is old Saxon.

142. The following are *Irregular Comparisons*:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good,	Better,	Best.
Well,	Better,	Best.
Evil,	Worse,	Worst.
Bad,	Worse,	Worst.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Many,	More,	Most.
Much,	More,	Most.
Far,	Farther, further,	Farthest, furthest.
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest or next.
Late,	Later or latter,	Latest or last.
Old,	Older or elder,	Oldest or eldest.
Hind,	Hinder,	Hindmost.
Up,	Upper,	Upmost.
Out,	Outer, or outer	Utmost.

NOTES ON THE IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

- (1.) **Good**: *Better* and *best* [bet-est] are the comparative and the superlative of the obsolete Anglo-Saxon *bet*, a synonym of *good*.
- (2.) **Bad**: *Worse* and *worst* are the comparative and superlative of the obsolete Anglo-Saxon *weor*, a synonym of *bad*.

- (3.) **Old**: The regular comparative and superlative are used when *old* is contrasted with *new*; the irregular forms when it is contrasted with *young*; as, the *older* house belongs to the *elder* brother. But *older* and *oldest* are often applied to animate beings; *elder* and *eldest* never to inanimate.
- (4.) **Late**: The regular forms *later* and *latest* are opposed to *earlier* and *earliest*; the irregular forms *latter* and *last* are opposed to 'former' and 'first.' *Last* is a contraction of *late-est*.
- (5.) **Farther, further**: *Farther*, from *far*, means *more distant*, and is opposed to *nearer*; as I prefer the *farther* house to the *nearer* one. *Further*, from *forth*, means *more advanced* or *additional*; as, I shall mention a *further* reason.
- (6.) **Inner, inmost**, have no positive; *down, downmost*, and *top, topmost*, have no comparative; *nether, nethermost*, are the comparative and superlative of *neath*. The suffix *most*, in these superlatives, is not the adverb 'most.' It is really a double superlative ending, compounded of the two Anglo-Saxon endings *am* and *ost*, both=*est*. Hence *foremost*=*fore*+*ma*+*ost*.
- (7.) Certain comparatives in *ior*, derived from the Latin, as 'interior,' 'exterior,' 'superior,' 'inferior,' 'anterior,' 'posterior,' 'prior,' 'ulterior,' 'senior,' 'junior,' 'major,' 'minor,' are not proper English comparatives. They have not the English ending; nor are they followed by 'than' in composition, but by 'to;' thus we do not say 'senior *than* his brother,' 'but senior *to* his brother.' They share this peculiarity with a few adjectives of Anglo-Saxon origin; as, *former, elder, latter, hinder, under, inner*, etc.
- (8.) Adjectives expressing qualities that do not admit of change of degree are not compared. EXAMPLES: 'Certain,' 'dead,' 'empty,' 'extreme,' 'false,' 'full,' 'infinite,' 'perfect,' 'complete,' 'supreme,' 'universal,' 'round,' 'straight,' 'square,' 'lend,' 'correct.'

Many of these Adjectives are compared in colloquial use and even by good writers, and such comparison is allowable on the theory that these adjectives are not used in their strict sense. However, we can generally avoid such comparisons. For example, in place of saying 'more perfect,' say 'more nearly perfect.'

Exercise 24.

Give the COMPARATIVE and the SUPERLATIVE forms of the following ADJECTIVES.

1. Great ; good ; wise ; ill ; little ; short ; bad ; late.
2. Near ; fore ; much ; old ; frugal ; few ; valuable ; many.
3. Patient ; amiable ; high ; low ; pretty ; black ; rich ; heavy.
4. Hot ; dangerous ; fair ; far ; gentle ; bright ; bitter ; green.
5. Calm ; gay ; hard ; useful ; red ; light ; truthful ; swift.
6. Large ; soft ; gentle ; tall ; modest ; merry ; rough ; dark.

IV.—The Adverb.

143. Some ADVERBS are inflected to express degrees of comparison ; as, He calls *oftener* than he writes.

144. The comparison of Adverbs follows the same rules as that of Adjectives ; as, *soon, sooner, soonest, pleasantly, more pleasantly, most pleasantly.*

Many Adverbs, from the nature of their meaning, can not be compared ; as, *then, now, here.*

145. The following Adverbs, like the Adjectives with which they correspond, are *irregularly* compared : *well, ill, badly, much, little, far, forth.*

The Adverb *rather* is the comparative of an Old English Adjective *rathe*, meaning early ; thus—

The *rathe* primrose which forsaken dies.—*Milton.*

'Rather' means *earlier* or *sooner* : I should *rather* read than write—that is, *sooner* read than write.

Exercise 25.

A.

Give the COMPARATIVE and the SUPERLATIVE forms of the following ADVERBS :

1. Largely ; plainly ; badly ; wholly ; brightly.
2. Completely ; little ; possibly ; sweetly ; far ; well.

B.

Distinguish between ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS, remembering that adjectives limit nouns, and that adverbs limit verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

1. I have seen *better* faces.
2. He likes this *better*.
3. The *more* mildly I spoke, the *more* insolently he answered, and therefore the *more* punishment he deserves.
4. I have *long* wished to see her.
5. I have a long *letter* from her.
6. *Much* fruit. I love him *much*.

V.—The Verb.

146. The modifications of the VERB are:—*voice, mood, tense, number, and person.*

Some of the modifications of the verb are made by a change in the form of the word ; others are made by *auxiliary* or helping words. An example of the first mode is the change of *walk* to *walked*, to denote past time ; an example of the other mode is the use of *will*, as *will walk*, to denote future time.

1. VOICE.

147. All transitive verbs have two forms, one of which has the word which names the doer of the act for the subject ; the other has the word which names the object of the act for its subject.

First form. Watt [*doer*] invented the steam-engine.

Second form. The steam-engine [*object of action*] was invented by Watt.

148. Voice is the form of the verb by means of which we show whether the subject of the sentence stands for the *doer*, or for the *object* of the action spoken of by the verb.

149. There are two voices, the *Active Voice* and the *Passive Voice*.

150. The *Active Voice* is the form used when the word denoting the doer of the action is the subject of the verb ; as, *The boy strikes the ball*.

151. The *Passive Voice* is the form used when the word denoting the object of the action becomes the subject of the verb ; as, *The ball was struck by the boy*.

152. The *Passive Voice* is formed by means of the helping verb *Be* and the Past Participle of a transitive verb.

(a) An intransitive verb cannot be made *Passive*, for the reason that such a verb can have no object, and only the object of a transitive verb can become the subject of the *Passive Voice*.

The sun shines —
—is shone by the sun.

What 'is shone?' Compare this with 'Watt invented the steam-engine,' 'The steam-engine was invented by Watt,'

and you will see that, *shines* being an intransitive verb, there is nothing to become its subject in the Passive.

153. When an intransitive verb is followed by a phrase made up of a preposition and a noun, the intransitive verb may be used in the passive voice with the preposition as an adverbial adjunct; as, 'I hope for reward,' 'Reward is hoped for.'

154. Some intransitive verbs have their perfect tenses formed by means of the verb *be*, followed by the past or perfect participle; as, 'I *am* come,' 'He *is* arrived.' These forms must not be mistaken for passive verbs. The passive voice must have the *past participle of a transitive* verb, joined to the verb *to be*.

2.—MOOD.

155. There are several ways or modes in which we may speak of an action in connection with its agent or doer. Thus we may say:

John *writes* ; John *may write* ;
If John *write* ——; John, *write* ;
John is learning *to write*.

This modification of the verb by which we speak of an action, in these different ways, is called *mood*, that is mode or manner.

156. **Mood** is that modification of the verb which marks the mode in which the action is viewed or stated.

Verbs have *five* moods :—

<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive.</i>	<i>Potential.</i>
	<i>Imperative.</i>	<i>Infinitive.</i>

157. **The Indicative Mood** includes those forms of the verb used in speaking of an event or state of things regarded as *actual*, and not as merely thought of; as, *John writes*.

This mood is also used in asking questions.

158. **The Potential Mood** is used to show that an action is possible, or that the agent is under some obligation to act; as, *John can write, John must write*.

This mood is made up of the infinitive, without the sign *to*, preceded by the auxiliaries, *may, can, must, might, could, would, should*.

159. Some grammarians give no potential mood, but regard the so-called auxiliaries as principal verbs. They would thus parse — *can go* in the same manner as *dare go*. This is, indeed, the more correct method. *I can go* means *I am able to go*.

160. **The Subjunctive Mood** represents an event or state of things as something merely thought of, and not as matter of fact; as, ‘*Were John here he would act differently.*’ ‘*If he go, he will regret it.*’

This mood generally supposes some condition on which a state of things expressed by another verb in the sentence depends, and it is often preceded by such conjunctions as, *if, though, that*.

161. With the exception of the second and third persons singular of the *present* and the *present perfect* tenses, and of the *present* and *past* tenses of the verb *be*, the subjunctive mood corresponds in form with the indicative. The different forms are thus shown :

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Thou <i>lovest</i> , He <i>loves</i> .	If thou <i>love</i> , If he <i>love</i> .
Thou <i>hast loved</i> , He <i>has loved</i> .	If thou <i>have loved</i> , If he <i>have loved</i> .

I am, Thou art, &c. *If I be, If thou be, &c.*
I was, Thou wast, &c. *If I were, If thou were, &c.*

162. The subjunctive mood can generally be changed into the indicative or the potential by supplying *shall, should, &c.* Thus, *If he go*, may be changed to, *If he shall go*.

163. **The Imperative Mood** is that form of the verb used in stating a command or request ; as, *Go to bed, Lend me a knife.*

The imperative mood has only the present tense, and it has no change in form for singular and plural. As a direct command must be addressed to the person who is to obey it, the imperative mood can be used only in the second person. In such sentences as, 'Let us pray,' *let* is in the imperative mood, and *pray* is in the infinitive.

In such expressions as, 'Some angel guide my pencil,' supply *let, may,* or some word evidently implied.

164. **The Infinitive Mood** is that form of the verb which is used when the action or state that is denoted by the verb is spoken of without reference to number or person.

The Infinitive is generally preceded by *to* ; as, 'Boys love *to play.*' The Preposition *to*, as the sign of the infinitive, is omitted after certain verbs ; as, *bid, dare, need, make, let* ; thus, 'Let him *go,*' 'Bid him *rise.*'

Strictly speaking, the Infinitive is not a *Mood* at all. This form of the verb has no limitations of number, person, or time. It can not make a statement. It has the force of a noun, and it may be used either as the subject or as the object of another verb ; as, 'To read well is an accomplishment.' 'John loves to read.'

165. The Infinitive has two tenses—the Present and the Perfect.

Participles and Gerunds.

166. There are certain forms of the verb, called *Participles* and *Gerunds*, which, in addition to their verbal character, partake of the nature of other parts of speech.

167. **Participles are verbal adjectives, which as verbs may require an object, and as adjectives may qualify nouns;** as *Trees darkening* the waters on each side; *Man is a cooking* animal. A *burnt* child dreads the fire.

168. There are two Participles formed by inflection—the Present or *incomplete* participle, as *walking, drawing*; and the Past, or *complete* participle, as, *walked, drawn*.

NOTE.—The auxiliary *having*, joined with the Past Participle, forms the Perfect Participle of the active voice, and *having been*, joined with the Past Participle, forms the Perfect Participle of the passive voice.

169. The Present Participle in all verbs is made by suffixing *ing* to the root; as, *walk-ing*.

170. The Past Participle of all Regular Verbs (see ¶ 218) is formed by suffixing *ed* to the root; as, *walk-ed*. The Past Participle of Irregular Verbs is formed in some other way; as, *struck, taken, cut*. (See list of Irregular Verbs, ¶ 224.)

171. In transitive verbs, the present participle is active, as, *dragging, pushing*; while the past participle is passive, as, *dragged, pushed*. In intransitive verbs the only difference of meaning is that of *incomplete* and *complete*.

172. The Gerund is a verbal noun, ending in *ing*. It is sometimes equivalent to an infinitive. Thus :—‘ *Walking* is better than *running*,’ is equal to ‘ *To walk* is better than *to run*.’

173. The Gerund differs from the participle of the same form in being, like a noun, the subject or the object of a sentence. It may be qualified by an adjective, and it may be preceded by a possessive : ‘ *Your walking* is as fast as *my running*.’ While governed by a preposition (like a *noun*), it may in turn take a noun *object* (like a *verb*) ; as, ‘ *In writing a letter*, attention should be paid to punctuation.’

The word *gerund* signifies *carrying on* (Latin *gerere*).

3.—Tense.

174. Tense is a modification of the verb, indicating partly the time to which an action or event is referred, and partly the completeness or incompleteness of the action or event at the time indicated.

175. Tense is sometimes formed by a change in the word, as *walk, walked* ; *write, wrote* ; and sometimes by using auxiliary words, as *have walked, shall walk*.

176. There are three natural divisions of time—the *present*, the *past*, and the *future*. There are, therefore, three primary *tenses*—the *Present Tense*, the *Past Tense*, and the *Future Tense*.

177. The present, past, and future tenses speak of an event in an indefinite manner, without reference to other events, with regard to which it is complete or incomplete. An action or event may also be spoken of as complete with reference to some other action or event. A tense which indicates this is called a *perfect tense* ; as, ‘ *John has finished his work (now)*’ ;

'James *had* left the house before I arrived'; 'I *shall* have gone when the train arrives.'

178. There are three tenses to express the completeness of the action or event with respect to some other action or event—the *Present Perfect*, the *Past Perfect*, and the *Future Perfect*.

The verb has six tenses :—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present Perfect.</i>
<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Perfect.</i>
<i>Future.</i>	<i>Future Perfect.</i>

179. An action or state may also be spoken of as incomplete, or still going on in the past, present, or future. This is denoted by the *Progressive Form* of the verb, as, *I was walking*; *I am walking*; *I shall be walking*.

FORMATION OF TENSES.

Indicative Mood.

180. The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses.

181. The **Present** is the simple form of the verb; as, *walk*.

182. The **Past** is generally formed by adding *ed* to the present, as, *walk-ed*. Some verbs form their past tense by changing the vowel of the simple form or root; as, *write, wrote*.

183. The **Future** is formed by placing the auxiliary *shall* or *will* before the present infinitive; as, *shall walk, will walk*.

184. The **Present Perfect** is formed by placing the auxiliary *have* before the past participle ; as, *have walked*.

185. The **Past Perfect** is formed by placing the auxiliary *had* before the past participle ; as, *had walked*.

186. The **Future Perfect** is formed by placing the auxiliary *shall have* or *will have* before the past participle ; as, *shall have walked, will have walked*.

Potential Mood.

187. The Potential Mood has four tenses,—*present, past, present perfect, past perfect*.

188. The **Present** is formed by placing the auxiliary *may, can, or must* before the present infinitive ; as, *may walk, can walk, must walk*.

189. The **Past** is formed by placing the auxiliary *might, could, would, or should* before the present infinitive ; as, *might walk, &c.*

190. The **Present Perfect** is formed by placing the auxiliary *may have, can have, or must have*, before the past participle ; as, *may have walked, &c.*

191. The **Past Perfect** is formed by placing the auxiliary *might have, could have, would have or should have* before the past participle ; as, *might have walked, &c.*

Subjunctive Mood.

192. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are the same in form as the corresponding tenses of the Indi-

cative Mood, with the exception of the second and third singular of the present and present perfect. Thus:—

Indicative.

Present { Thou lovest.
He loves.

Present Perfect { Thou hast loved.
He hast loved.

Subjunctive.

Present { (if) Thou love.
(if) He love.

Present Perfect { (if) Thou have loved.
(if) He have loved.

193. The explanation of these differences is, that in what is called the Subjunctive Mood there is an auxiliary left out ; such as, *will, may, can, should*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. If he *see* the signal, he will come, is the same as, If he *shall* see the signal, etc.
2. Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him, is the same as, Though he *may* slay me.

194. Hence we see that the Subjunctive Mood is really an abbreviated form, either of the *Indicative* Mood (if *SHALL*, is the word omitted) or of the *Potential* Mood (if *MAY, CAN, OR SHOULD*, is understood).

195. In modern English, but little regard is paid to the nice distinctions formerly made between such forms as 'if he loves' and 'if he love.' In fact, the Subjunctive Mood is rapidly disappearing from our language.

196. The Subjunctive of the verb *be* has forms of

its own in all the parts of the present tense, and in the singular of the past tense, as,

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Singular	(if) I be (if) thou be. (if) he be	(if) I were. (if) thou wert. (if) he were.
Plural	(if) we be. (if) you be. (if) they be.	(if) we were. (if) you were. (if) they were.

Imperative Mood.

197. The Imperative Mood has but one tense: the Present, which has the same form as the Present Indicative.

Infinitive Mood.

198. The Infinitive Mood has two tenses: the Present, which has the same form as the Present Indicative, and the Present Perfect, which is formed by placing the auxiliary *have* before the past participle; as, *to have loved*.

The Participle.

199. The Participle has three tenses: the Present, formed by adding *ing* to the simple form of the verb, as *walk-ing*; the past, generally formed by adding *ed* to the simple form, as, *walked*, but sometimes formed irregularly, as, *go. gone*; *write, written*; and the present perfect, formed by prefixing *having* to the past participle, as, *having walked, having gone*.

USE OF THE TENSES.

200. THE PRESENT INDICATIVE.

(1.) The Present Tense expresses what *is*, or what is taking place when the statement is made; as, I read.

- (2.) This tense is also used to express a fact universally true ; as, The Greeks did not know that the earth *is* round.
- (3.) It has sometimes a future meaning ; as, Duncan *comes* here to-night.
- (4.) The historic present is used when we wish to describe vividly a past event as taking place in present time ; as, Caesar *crosses* the Rhine.

201. THE PAST INDICATIVE.

The Past Tense states a fact in a general way as belonging to the past ; as, Columbus discovered America.

202. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

Shall is used in the first person to express intention ; thus, I shall write a letter, means I *intend* to write a letter. To express *intention* in the second and third person, *will* is used ; as, You or he will write a letter, *i.e.*, intend to write a letter. *Will*, in the first person, denotes determination ; as, I *will* go to New York, means I am *determined* to go to New York. Determination, in the second and third persons, is expressed by *shall* ; as, You shall go home.

[For a fuller explanation of 'shall' and 'will,' see Syntax.]

203. PRESENT PERFECT INDICATIVE.

The present perfect tense represents a past action with reference to present time. I have lost my knife means that I, at the present moment, *am* in the condition of *having* lost my knife. Hence, when there is any reference of a past action to past time, the past tense, and not the present perfect, should be used. This tense implies double time, that is, the auxiliary expresses *present* time, and the participle denotes the finishing of the act.

204. PAST PERFECT INDICATIVE.

The past perfect tense represents a past event with reference to past time ; as, I *had eaten* my dinner before he arrived. This tense may be called a *correlative*, because it is used only in connection with a modifying statement.

205. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

The future perfect tense denotes an action that will happen before some other future action ; as, Dear brother, *I shall have gone* to Europe before you reach home. This tense, also, is correlative.

206. Of these six Tenses of the Indicative, three express *simple* time, and three denote *two kinds* or *points* of time.

SIMPLE TIME.

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Forms.</i>
---------------	---------------

Present : as.....I write.

Past : "I wrote.

Future : " I shall write.

TWO KINDS OR POINTS OF TIME

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Forms.</i>
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Present Perfect.....I have written.

Past Perfect.....I had written.

Future Perfect.....I shall have written.

The three Compound Tenses all involve a double notion of time, and are therefore correlative tenses. The Present Perfect means that an action begun in *Past* time is finished at the Present time. The Past Perfect is used when we are thinking of *two points of Past time*. The Future Perfect is used when we are thinking of *two points of Future time*.

207. POTENTIAL PRESENT.

- (1.) The present potential asserts chiefly power or leave to do something. It also implies a notion of *futurity*: as, *I may go* to town. This comes from the literal meaning of the old verb from which *may* is derived, and which means *to have the power*. *I may go* to town literally signifies that I have the *power* of going to town.
- (2.) The auxiliary *must* (from the same root as *may*) also conveys the notion of *force* or *power*, but it is force *outside of me*. *I must go* to town implies *force* that compels me to go ; hence the idea of *duty*.

208. POTENTIAL PAST.

Might is originally the past tense of *may*; *could* of *can*; *would* of *will*; and *should* of *shall*.

- (1.) Observe that when a sentence contains a verb in the past potential, it will always have a conditional clause introduced by a conditional conjunction, and the conditional clause will always be in the past tense.
- (2.) In the conditional form of the past potential, it often happens that the conjunction *if*, etc., is omitted: thus, *Should I go to town* = *if I should go to town*. Note that in this construction the subject comes after the verb.
- (3.) The past potential frequently implies *futurity*; thus, *I should return next week if I were to leave to-day*.

209. POTENTIAL PAST PERFECT.

There is a peculiar construction by which the past perfect of the *indicative* serves to convey the sense of the past perfect *potential*: thus, *If thou hadst been here my brother had not died* (that is, *would not have died*).

NUMBER AND PERSON.

210. Number and Person are modifications of the verb, to correspond with the number and person of its subject.

The verb is said to be of the *singular* or of the *plural* number according as its subject is singular or plural.

In the sentence, *The dog barks*, *barks* is said to be singular to agree with its subject *dog*; and in the sentence, *The dogs bark*, *bark* is said to be plural to agree with its subject *dogs*.

211. The verb is said to be of the *first* person, *second* person, or *third* person, according as its subject is *1st*, *second*, or *third* person.

In the sentence, I walk, *walk* is said to be of the first person to agree with *I*. There are three persons in each number.

212. The inflections of the verb for number and person in the present, past, and future tenses of the Indicative Mood are thus shown :—

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I walk.	1. We walk.
2. Thou walkest.	2. You walk.
3. He walks.	3. They walk.

PAST.

1. I walked.	1. We walked.
2. Thou walkedst.	2. You walked.
3. He walked.	3. They walked.

FUTURE.

1. I shall <i>or</i> will walk.	1. We shall <i>or</i> will walk.
2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt walk.	2. You shall <i>or</i> will walk.
3. He shall <i>or</i> will walk.	3. They shall <i>or</i> will walk.

NOTE.—Observe that in some of the tenses the only change or inflection for number and person is in the second person singular, and in other tenses in the second and the third singular.

213. The common form of our second person singular is You love, and of our third person singular, He loves; but we retain from Old English the forms, Thou lovest, He loveth. These are used in poetry and prayer, and are called the solemn or ancient style. The inflections *est* and *eth* are remains of the Saxon inflections *ast* [2d. pers. sing.] and *ath* [3d. pers. sing.]

Exercise 26.

Write the present, past, and future tenses, singular and plural, first, second, and third persons of the following verbs.

Learn, Talk, Love, Sail, Play, Chop.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

214. The verbs used to assist in forming certain moods and tenses, called *auxiliary* verbs are *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*. They are thus inflected in the present and past tenses.

Have.**PRESENT.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have,		1. We have,
2. Thou hast,		2. You have,
3. He has.		3. They have.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had.		1. We had.
2. Thou hadst.		2. You had.
3. He had.		3. They had.

Shall.**PRESENT.**

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I shall.		1. We shall.
2. Thou shalt.		2. You shall.
3. He shall.		3. They shall.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I should.		1. We should.
2. Thou shouldst.		2. You should.
3. He should.		3. They should.

Will.

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will.		1. We will.
2. Thou wilt.		2. You will.
3. He will.		3. They will.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I would.		1. We would.
2. Thou wouldst.		2. You would.
3. He would.		3. They would.

May.

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may.		1. We may.
2. Thou mayest.		2. You may.
3. He may.		3. They may.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might.		1. We might.
2. Thou mightest.		2. You might.
3. He might.		3. They might.

Can.

PRESENT.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I can.		1. We can.
2. Thou canst.		2. You can.
3. He can.		3. They can.

PAST.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I could.		1. We could.
2. Thou couldst.		2. You could.
3. He could.		3. They could.

Must.

This verb has no changes of form for tense, number, or person.

CONJUGATION.

215. **Conjugating a verb is stating all its forms, so as to show its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.**

216. The principal parts of a verb are :

- I. *Present Indicative* ; II. *Past Indicative* ;
III. *Past Participle*.

The present indicative is the simple form or root, from which the other parts are derived.

ILLUSTRATION.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Write.	Wrote.	Written.

217. Verbs are divided into two great classes, distinguished by the way in which they form the past tense and the past participle. These are :

- I.—Regular Verbs. II.—Irregular Verbs.

218. **A Regular Verb is one whose past tense and past participle are formed by adding *ed* to the root or present indicative ; as**

<i>Present Indicative.</i>	<i>Past Indicative.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Walk.	Walked.	Walked.

(1.) When a verb ends in *e*, this letter is omitted before *ed*, as *love*, *lov-ed* ; and the vowel *y*, after a consonant, is changed into *i* before *ed*, as *pity*, *piti-ed*. Some verbs ending in a consonant double the final consonant before *ed*, as *rob*, *robbed*.

(2.) Of the four thousand verbs in the English language, all but about one hundred and fifty form their past tense according to the general rule, that is, by suffixing *-ed*, and hence are *regular*.

(3.) The suffix *ed*, which is the inflection of the Past Tense, is a contraction of the word *did*. Thus, *loved* is 'I love-did,' or, as we still say, 'I *did* love.'

219. An Irregular Verb is one that forms its past tense and past participle, or either of these parts, in some other mode than by adding *ed* to the present indicative; as

<i>Present Indicative.</i>	<i>Past Indicative.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Know,	Knew,	Known.

For the list of Irregular Verbs, with their principal parts, see page 86.

220. Many grammarians use the terms *Weak Verbs* and *Strong Verbs*, in place of Regular and Irregular.

221. Weak Verbs include—

1. All regular verbs—that is, all verbs that form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed*.
2. Those that change the vowel of the root, and add *d* or *t*, as *flee, fled; creep, crept; tell, told*.
3. Those that simply shorten the vowel of the root, as *feed, fed*.
4. Those that have the same form in the three principal parts, or such as merely change *d* of the present into *t* in the past tense and past participle; as *cast, cut, build*.

222. Strong Verbs are such as form their past tense by changing the vowel of the present; as, *write, wrote; begin, began*.

The past participle of Strong Verbs formerly ended in *en*; as *drunken, driven*. This ending has for the most part been dropped.

CONJUGATION OF A REGULAR VERB.

The learner can omit the Passive Voice until he has conjugated the verb *To Be*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I love.	1. We	} love.
2. Thou lovest.	2. You	
3. He loves.	3. They	

PASSIVE.

1. I am loved.	1. We	} are loved.
2. Thou art loved.	2. You	
3. He is loved.	3. They	

Past Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I loved.	1. We	} loved.
2. Thou lovedst.	2. You	
3. He loved.	3. They	

PASSIVE.

1. I was loved.	1. We	} were loved.
2. Thou wast loved.	2. You	
3. He was loved.	3. They	

Future Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I shall <i>or</i> will love.	1. We	} shall <i>or</i> will love.
2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt love.	2. You	
3. He shall <i>or</i> will love.	3. They	

PASSIVE.

1. I shall <i>or</i> will be loved.	1. We	} shall <i>or</i> will be loved.
2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt be loved.	2. You	
3. He shall <i>or</i> will be loved.	3. They	

Present Perfect Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I have	}	loved.	1. We	}	have	
2. Thou hast			2. You			} loved.
3. He has			3. They			

PASSIVE.

1. I have	}	been	1. We	}	have	
2. Thou hast			2. You			} been
3. He has			3. They			

Past Perfect Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I had	}	loved.	1. We	}	had	
2. Thou hadst			2. You			} loved.
3. He had			3. They			

PASSIVE.

1. I had	}	been	1. We	}	had	
2. Thou hadst			2. You			} been
3. He had			3. They			

Future Perfect Tense.

ACTIVE.

1. I shall <i>or</i> will	}	have	1. We	}	shall	
2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt			2. You			} have
3. He shall <i>or</i> will			3. They			

PASSIVE.

1. I shall <i>or</i> will	}	have	1. We	}	shall <i>or</i>	
2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt			2. You			} will have
3. He shall <i>or</i> will			3. They			

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Teachers who prefer a simpler mode of conjugation can omit the Potential Mood ; and in parsing consider the auxiliary as a principal verb, and the verb following as an infinitive without the sign *to*.

*Present Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

1. I may, can, *or* must
2. Thou mayest, canst, *or* must
3. He may, can, *or* must

} love.

PLURAL.

1. We
2. You
3. They

} may, can, *or* must love.*Passive.*

SINGULAR.

1. I may, can, *or* must
2. Thou mayest, canst, *or* must
3. He may, can *or* must

} be loved.

PLURAL.

1. We
2. You
3. They

} may, can, *or* must be loved.*Past Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should
2. Thou mightest, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst
3. He might, could, would, *or* should

} love.

PLURAL.

1. We
2. You
3. They

} might, could, would, *or* should love.

Passive.

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. I might, could, would <i>or</i> should | } be loved. |
| 2. Thou mightest, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst | |
| 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should | |

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---------|---|
| 1. We | } might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved. |
| 2. You | |
| 3. They | |

*Present Perfect Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. I may, can, <i>or</i> must | } have loved. |
| 2. Thou mayest, canst, <i>or</i> must | |
| 3. He may, can, <i>or</i> must | |

PLURAL.

- | | |
|---------|--|
| 1. We | } may, can, <i>or</i> must have loved. |
| 2. You | |
| 3. They | |

Passive.

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I may, can, <i>or</i> must | } have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mayest, canst, <i>or</i> must | |
| 3. He may, can, <i>or</i> must | |

PLURAL.

- | | | |
|---------|----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. We | } may, can, <i>or</i> must | } have been loved. |
| 2. You | | |
| 3. They | | |

*Past Perfect Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should | } have loved. |
| 2. Thou mightest, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst | |
| 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should | |

PLURAL.

- | | | |
|---------|--|---------------|
| 1. We | } might,
} could,
} would,
} should | } have loved. |
| 2. You | | |
| 3. They | | |

Passive.

SINGULAR.

- | | | |
|---------|---|------------------------------|
| 1. I | might, could, would, or should | } have
} been
} loved. |
| 2. Thou | mightest, couldst, wouldst or
shouldst | |
| 3. He | might, could, would, or should | |

PLURAL.

- | | | |
|---------|--|--------------------|
| 1. We | } might,
} could,
} would,
} should | } have been loved. |
| 2. You | | |
| 3. They | | |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|------------|---------|
| 1. If I | } love. |
| 2. If thou | |
| 3. If he | |

PLURAL

- | | |
|------------|---------|
| 1. If we | } love. |
| 2. If you | |
| 3. If they | |

Passive.

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| 1. If I | } be loved. |
| 2. If thou | |
| 3. If he | |

PLURAL.

- | | |
|------------|-------------|
| 1. If we | } be loved. |
| 2. If you | |
| 3. If they | |

*Past Tense.**Active.*

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|------------|----------|
| 1. If I | } loved. |
| 2. If thou | |
| 3. If he | |

Passive.

SINGULAR.

- | | |
|------------|---------------|
| 1. If I | } were loved. |
| 2. If thou | |
| 3. If he | |

PLURAL.			PLURAL.	
1. If we	} loved.		1. If we	} wereloved.
2. If you			2. If you	
3. If they			3. If they	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Active.</i>			<i>Passive.</i>	
2. Love (thou or ye)		2. Be (thou or ye)	loved.	

INFINITIVES.

<i>Present.</i> To love.		To be loved.
<i>Perfect.</i> To have loved.		To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i> Loving.		<i>Past.</i> Loved.
<i>Perfect.</i> Having loved.		Having been loved.

GERUNDS.

Loving.	Having loved.		Having been loved.
---------	---------------	--	--------------------

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *To Be.*

Auxiliary of the Passive Voice, and of the Progressive Form.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Am.	Was.	Been.
------------	-------------	--------------

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I am,		1. We are,
2. Thou art,		2. You are,
3. He is.		3. They are.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
1. I was,		1. We were,
2. Thou wast,		2. You were,
3. He was.	6	3. They were.

Future Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,
3. He shall *or* will be.

PLURAL.

1. We shall *or* will be,
2. You shall *or* will be,
3. They shall *or* will be.

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I have been,
2. Thou hast been,
3. He has been.

PLURAL.

1. We have been,
2. You have been,
3. They have been.

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been.

PLURAL.

1. We had been,
2. You had been,
3. They had been.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall *or* will have been,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have been,
3. He shall *or* will have been.

PLURAL.

1. We shall *or* will have been,
2. You shall *or* will have been,
3. They shall *or* will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I may, can, *or* must be,
2. Thou mayest, canst, *or* must be,
3. He may, can, *or* must be.

PLURAL.

1. We } may,
2. You } can, *or*
3. They } must be.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.				
1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be,	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>1. We</td> <td rowspan="3">} might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. You</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. They</td> </tr> </table>	1. We	} might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be.	2. You	3. They
1. We		} might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be.			
2. You					
3. They					
2. Thou mightest, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst be,					
3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be.					

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.				
1. I may, can, <i>or</i> must have been.	<table border="0"> <tr> <td>1. We</td> <td rowspan="3">} may, can, <i>or</i> must have been.</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. You</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. They</td> </tr> </table>	1. We	} may, can, <i>or</i> must have been.	2. You	3. They
1. We		} may, can, <i>or</i> must have been.			
2. You					
3. They					
2. Thou mayest, canst, <i>or</i> must have been,					
3. He may, can, <i>or</i> must have been.					

Past Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.
1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been,
2. Thou mightest, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst have been,
3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been.

PLURAL.

1. We	} might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have been.
2. You	
3. They	

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be,	3. If they be.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. If I were,
2. If thou were *or* wert,
3. If he were,

PLURAL.

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be (thou—you).

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

To be,

Present Perfect.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.

Being,

Past.

Been,

Present Perfect.

Having been.

GERUNDS.

Being,

Having been.

The learner may revise sections 147-152, and learn the *passive voice* of the verb *to love*.

Exercise 27.

Write the conjugation, active and passive voices, of the verbs—

Wash,

Like,

Study.

MODEL FOR THE CONJUGATION OF IRREGULAR OR STRONG VERBS.

To Write.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Write ; Wrote ; Written.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>
I We } write. You } They } Thou writest He writes	I He } wrote. We } You } They }	I He } shall (will) write. We } You } They } Thou shalt or wilt write.
	Thou wrotest	

<i>Present Perfect.</i>	<i>Past Perfect.</i>	<i>Future Perfect.</i>
I We } have You } written. They } Thou hast written. He has written.	I He } had We } written. You } They }	I He } shall (will) We } have written. You } They }
	Thou hadst written.	Thou shalt or wilt have written.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Present Perfect Tense.</i>	<i>Past Perfect Tense.</i>
I He } may We } write. You } They }	I He } might We } write. You } They }	I He } may We } have You } written. They }	I He } might We } have You } writt'n They }
Thou mayest write.	Thou mightest write.	Thou mayest have written.	Thou mightest have written.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The subjunctive mood has the same form as the indicative, except in the second and third persons singular of the present and of the present perfect tense.

(If) thou write. (If) thou have written.
Present : (If) he write. *Present Perfect* : (If) he have written.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Write.

INFINITIVES.

Present : To write. *Perfect* : To have written.

PARTICIPLES.

Present : Writing. *Perfect* : Having written.

GERUNDS.

Writing, Having written.

223. The passive voice is formed by placing the past participle *written* after the various parts of the verb *to be*.

LIST OF IRREGULAR, OR STRONG VERBS.

224. The following list contains most of the Irregular Verbs in English, grouped according to the nature of their internal changes.

I.

Root-vowel modified for Past, and -en or -n added for PARTICIPLE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bid	bade (bad)	bidden (bid)
Forbid*		
Bite	bit	bitten (bit)
Break	broke	broken (broke)
Speak		
Bear (carry)	bore	borne
Forbear		
Bear (give birth)	bore (bare)	born
Wear, swear, tear		
Blow	blew	blown
Fly, grow, throw know		
Chide	chid	chidden (chid)
Hide		
Choose	chose	chosen
Drive	drove	driven
Strive, thrive		
Draw	drew	drawn
Eat	eat or ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got (gotten)
Forget, beget		
Give	gave	given
Forgive		
Hold	held	held (holden)
Lie	lay	lain

*The Verbs indented are conjugated like those which they immediately follow.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Ride	rode	ridden
Stride		
Rise	rose	risen
Arise		
Shake	shook	shaken
Take, forsake		
Shrink	shrank (shrunk)	shrunk (shrunken)
Smite	smote	smitten (smit)
Write		
Steal	stole	stolen
Strike	struck	struck (stricken)
Slay	slew	slain
Tread	trod	trodden
Weave	wove	woven (wove)

Root-vowel modified for Past Tense, and no suffix in Participle.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Awake*	awoke	awoke
Wake		
Begin	began (begun)	begun
Spin (no a)		
Behold	beheld	beheld
Bind	bound	bound
Wind, grind, find		
Bleed	bled	bled
Lead, feed, breed		
Cling	clung	clung
Wring, swing, sting,	slung, fling	
Come	came	come
Dig	dug	dug
Drink	drank (drunk)	drunk
Slink (no a), stink, sink		
Fight	fought	fought
Meet	met	met
Read	read	read
Ring	rang (rung)	rung
Spring, sing		
Shine	shone	shone
Shoot	shot	shot
Sit	sat	sat
Spit		

*Those marked with an asterisk are also *weak*.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Slide	slid	slid
Stand	stood	stood
Stick	stuck	stuck
Win	won	won
Hang*	hung	hung
Light*	lit	lit

III.

Root-vowel modified, and -t or -d added for Past Tense and Past Participle.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bereave*	bereft	bereft
Reave, leave, cleave (split)		
Beseech	besought	besought
Work, * think, seek, buy, bring		
Catch	caught	caught
Teach		
Creep	crept	crept
Weep, sweep, sleep, keep		
Deal	dealt	dealt
Mean, * leap, dream*		
Feel	felt	felt
Kneel*		
Flee	fled	fled
Hear	heard	heard
Lose	lost	lost
Say	said	said
Sell	sold	sold
Tell		
Shoe	shod	shod

IV.

Weak in Past Tense ; strong in Past Participle.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Heave (to throw)	heaved	hoven (heaved)
Lade	laded	laden
Mow	mowed	mown
Sew, * show, * sow, * strew, * strow*		
Saw*	sawed	sawn
Rive	rived	riven

* Those marked with an asterisk are also regular.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Wax	waxed	waxed (waxen)
Grave	graved	graved (graven)
Swell	swelled	swelled (swollen)
Seethe	seethed	seethed (sodden)

V.

No Inflections.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bid (offer to buy).	bid.	bid.

Bet,* burst, east, eat, durst, hit, hurt, knit,* let, put, rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, spread, thrust, wed,* beat (past part, also heaten).

VI.

SOME PECULIAR IRREGULAR VERBS.

<i>Present Indicative.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
1. Go,	went,	gone.

The past indicative *went* is not formed from the root *go*: it is really a contraction of *wended*, the past tense of the Saxon verb *wendan*, to wend or go; thus, he *went* his way = he *wended* his way.

2. Have,	had,	had.
----------	------	------

The past tense *had* is a contraction of *haved* (Anglo-Saxon *haefde*).

3. Do,	did,	done.
--------	------	-------

With other verbs, *do* is used (1) to express *emphasis*; as, I *do* believe. (2) In *negation*; as, I *do not think* so. (3) In *interrogation*; as, *Do you travel by rail?*

Do, as used in the expression, How do you *do*? is a totally different verb: this 'do' comes from the Anglo-Saxon verb *dugan*, to profit or prosper. Hence, How do you *do*? means How do you *prosper*?

4. Make,	made,	made.
----------	-------	-------

*Those marked with an asterisk are also regular.

The past tense 'made' is a contraction of the Anglo-Saxon *macode*, that is, *maked*.

225. All Verbs of recent introduction into the language are of the *regular* or *weak* Conjugation; indeed the present tendency of the language is to convert irregular verbs into regular.

VII.

Defective Verbs.

226. Verbs that are deficient in any of their simple forms are called *Defective Verbs*; as,

<i>Infinitive.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
1. —	shall	should	—
2. —	will	would	—
3. —	may	might	—
4. —	—	must	—
5. —	can	could	—
6. Wit	wot	wist	—
7. Owe	owe	ought	—
8. —	(me)-thinks	(me)-thought	—
9. List	list	—	—

10. Weather-verbs, such as *it freezes, snows, hails, rains, thunders*, etc., may be called 'unipersonal verbs,' because they are used only in the third person singular. The subject *it*, is very indefinite, being merely a term used to introduce the statement.

NOTES ON THE DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. *Shall*: This verb is found only in the present and in the past tense. Its original meaning was to *owe*; thus we use *should* in the sense of *ought*: he *should* do so = he *ought* to do so. Hence *shall* as an auxiliary, implies obligation or necessity, as opposed to free-will or determination expressed by *will*. *Should*, in the conditional, expresses contingent futurity; in the *Subjunctive*, a future condition.

2. *Will*: This verb has two separate meanings and uses: (1) As an auxiliary, it expresses determination with respect to the future. (2) As a principal verb, it denotes the exercise of *will*; as, I *will*, be thou clean.

(1) As an auxiliary, it is found only in the present and past; as, *will, would*.

(2) As a principal verb, it is regular and complete: *I will, I willed, willed, to will, willing*.

Would, in the conditional, expresses contingent determination.

3. *May*: This verb is found only in the present and past; 2d pers., *mayst*, and *mightest* or *mightst*; 3d pers., sing., present, *may*. In conjunction with another verb, *may* expresses (1) *permission*; as, 'you *may* go;' (2) *concession*; as, he *may* slay me, but I will trust in him; (3) with the subject transposed, *desire*; as *may* they be happy.

4. *Must*: Only one form of this verb is used; it is the past tense; but it is also used with a present and a future signification; as, I *must* yield *now*; I *must* go *to-morrow*. Under various modifications, *must* expresses the general idea of *necessity*; as, he *must* go. With the first person this often implies *determination*; I *must* advance (I am so situated that I am *determined* to advance). When it relates to a fact, it implies *certainly*; as, It *must* be so: Plato, thou reasonest well.—*Addison*.

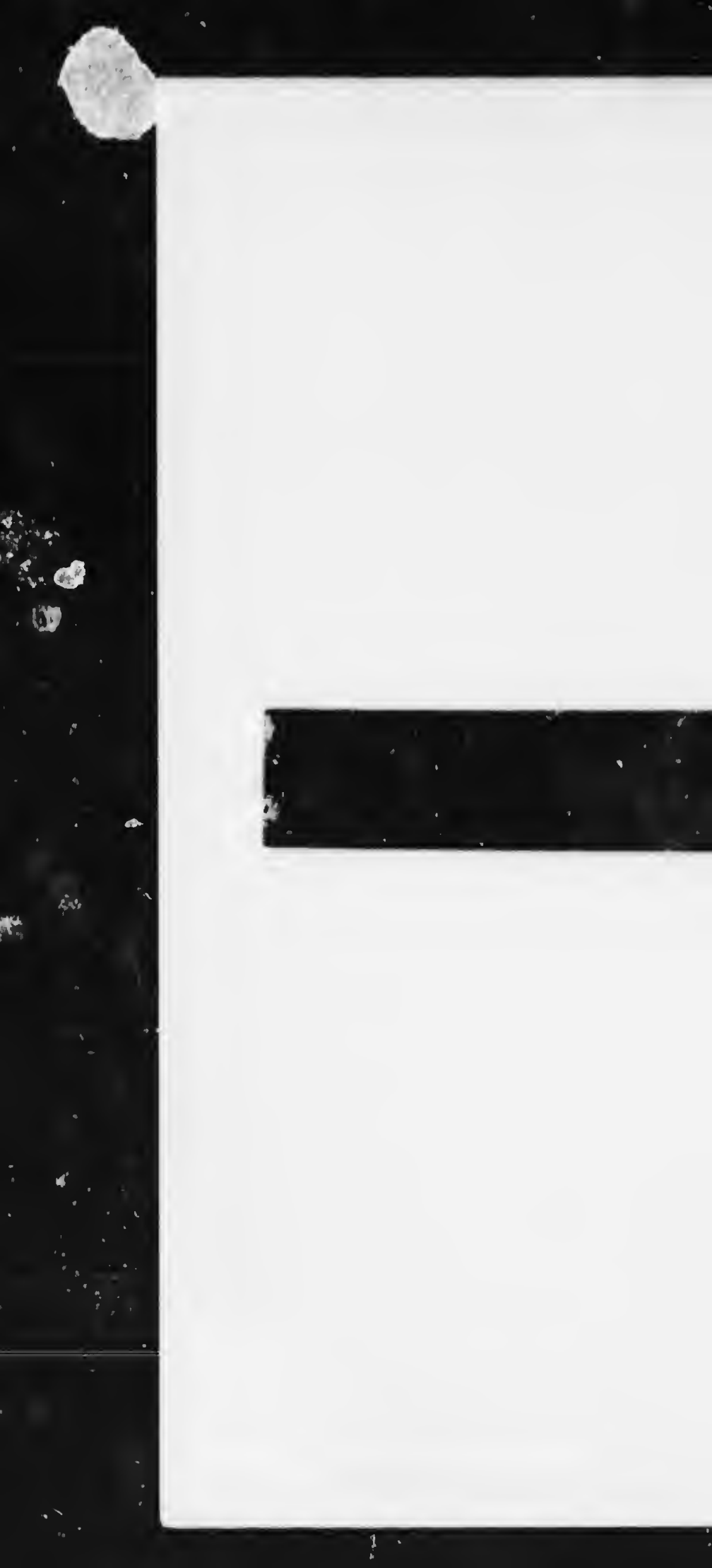
5. *Can*, Like *shall* and *may*, is found only in the present and in the past tense. The *l* is inserted in *could* in imitation of *would* and *should*, but it is a false analogy. The old form is *coude*. *Can*, with another verb, expresses ability; I *can* draw=I *am* able to draw.

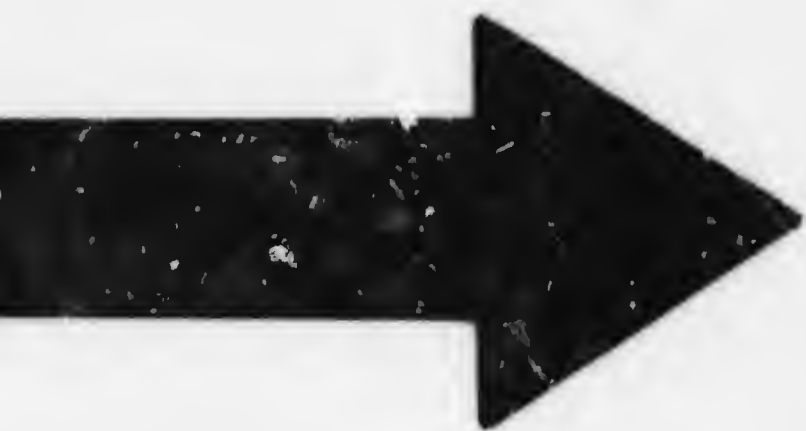
6. *Wit*, means to *know* (A.S. *wit-an*). It is used in the infinitive, *to wit*=namely. The present, *wot*, is found repeatedly in the English Bible, in both numbers and in all persons: "I *wot* that he whom thou blessest is blessed." "My master *wotteth* not what is with me in the house." And in Shakspeare, "More water glideth by the mill than *wots* the miller of." The past, *wist*, is also found in the English Bible; as, "Moses *wist* not that his face shone." And in Shakspeare, "And if I *wist*, he did; but let it rest."

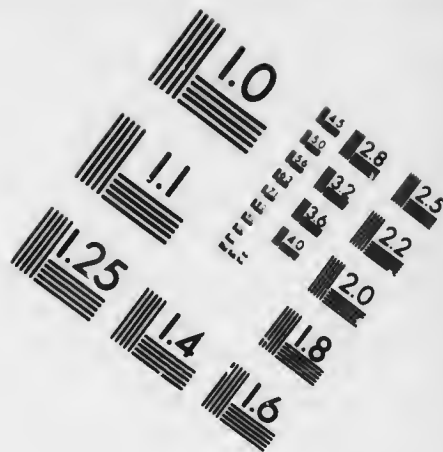
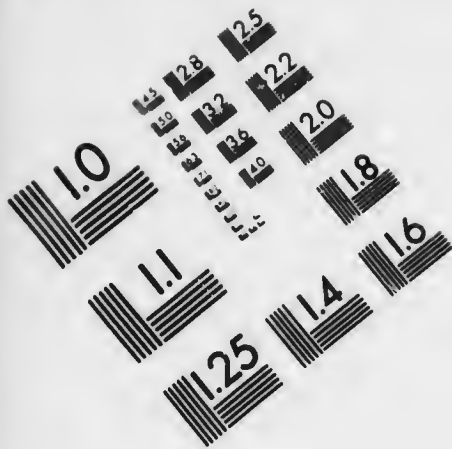
7. *Owe*: The earlier meaning of this word is to *own*, to have; as, to throw away the dearest thing he *owed*.—*Shakspeare*.

Like *have*, it is also used in the sense of *get*; as,

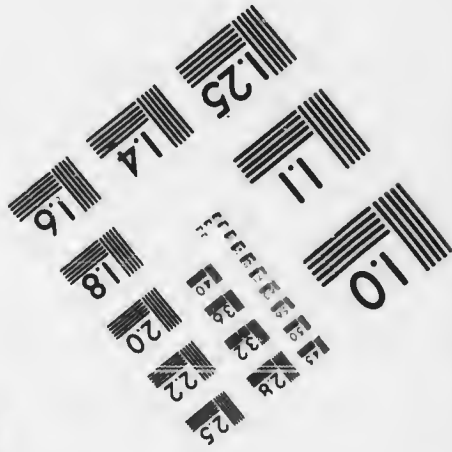
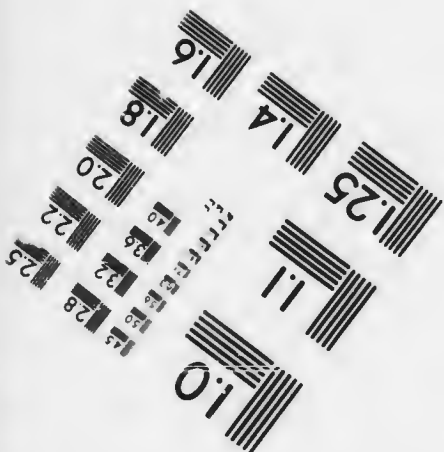
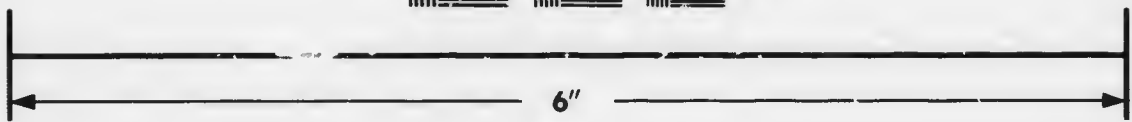
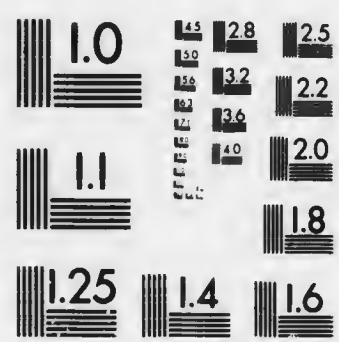
Say from whence
You *owe* this strange intelligence.—*Shakspeare*.







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2



But what we *have got* from another we are indebted for ;
hence arises the modern sense of the word *to be indebted* ; as,

What we shall say we have, and what we *owe*.—*Shakspeare*.

Ought is the proper past tense of *owe* ; but 'I ought' has come to be used as an independent verb (like *must*, without distinctions of person, number, or tense) with the meaning, it is my *duty* (what is *due* by me) The ordinary past of *owe* is *owed*.

8. *Methinks* : The prefix *me* is the dative of the pronoun. The subject of *thinks* is the clause following it. The word *thinks* means *seems* (A.S. *thincan*, to seem).

9. *List* means to *please* ; The wind bloweth where it *listeth*. It is found only in the present tense.

VI.—VARIOUS FORMS OF THE VERB.

227. Besides the simple forms of the verb, many of the Tenses assume other forms—*Progressive*, *Emphatic* or *Expletive*, *Interrogative*, *Negative*.

1. The *Progressive Form*, which expresses the action as *going on*, is made by putting the *Present Participle Active* after the parts of the Verb *Be* ; as, I *am striking* ; he *has been striking*, etc.

2. The *Emphatic Form*, which is confined to the Tenses without auxiliaries, that is the Present and the Past Indicative, is made by putting *do* or *did* before the *Infinitive* ; as, I *do strike* ; He *did go*.

We make the other Tenses emphatic by laying stress on the auxiliary ; as, We *may* see him ; He *might* have come.

3. The *Interrogative Form* is two-fold ,

(a) The older and more formal question in the Present and Past Indicative simply places the Verb before the Nominative ; as, *Lovest thou me? Ask we for flocks these shingles dry?*

(b) The common way of asking a question, if there be no auxiliary, places *do* or *did* before the Nominative ; as, *Do I look pale? Did you see him?*

If there be an auxiliary, it is simply placed first ; as, *Am I looking pale? Will you take this?*

4. The *Negative Form* is also two-fold :

(a) The older and more formal way, when there is no auxiliary, places *not* after the Verb ; as, *I saw not ; He opened not his eyes.*

(b) The common way of denying, if there be no auxiliary, uses *do* or *did* with *not* after it, between the Nominative and the Verb ; as, *I do not know him.*

If there be an auxiliary already in the Tense, *not* is inserted after it ; as, *I shall not see him.*

SYNOPSIS OF A VERB CONJUGATED.

1. NEGATIVELY ; 2. INTERROGATIVELY ; 3. NEGATIVE-INTERROGATIVELY.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	1.	2.	3.
<i>Present.</i>	I do not move.	Do I move?	Do I not move?*
<i>Present Progressive.</i>	I am not moving.	Am I moving?	Am I not moving?
<i>Past emphatic.</i>	I did not move.	Did I move?	Did I not move?

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	1.	2.	3.
<i>Past progressive.</i>	I was not moving.	Was I moving?	Was I not moving?
<i>Perfect.</i>	I have not moved.	Have I moved?	Have I not moved?
<i>Perfect progressive.</i>	I have not been moving.	Have I been moving?	Have I not been moving?
<i>Past perfect.</i>	I had not moved.	Had I moved?	Had I not moved?
<i>Past perfect progressive.</i>	I had not been moving.	Had I been moving?	Had I not been moving?
<i>Future.</i>	I shall not move.	Shall I move?	Shall I not move?
<i>Future progressive.</i>	I shall not be moving.	Shall I be moving?	Shall I not be moving?
<i>Future perf.</i>	I shall not have moved.	Shall I have moved?	Shall I not have moved?
<i>Future perf. progressive.</i>	I shall not have been moving.	Shall I have been moving?	Shall I not have been moving?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

	1.	2.	3.
<i>Present.</i> —I may, can, must	} not move.	May, Can, Must	} I move?
			May, Can, Must
			} I not move?
<i>Past.</i> —I might, could, would, should	} not move.	Might, Could, Would, Should	} I move?
			Might, Could, Would, Should
			} I not move?

*There is another mode of placing the negative; thus: 'Do not I move?' contracted into 'Don't I move?' This runs through all the tenses. A distinction exists: If the negative is *before* 'I,' the phrase is conversational or familiar; as 'Do not I move?' or 'Don't I move?' If the negative is *after* 'I,' the phrase is energetic or emphatic: 'Do I not move?'

<i>Pres.</i>	I may, can, must	} not have moved.	Can	} I have moved.	May, Can,	} I not have moved.
<i>Perf.</i>						
<i>Past</i>	I might, could, would, should	} not have moved.	Might, Could, Would, Should	} I have moved.	Might, Could, Would, Should	} I not have moved?
<i>Perf.</i>						

Exercise 28.**A.**

Write the following Verbs in the 3d person, Singular Number, Active Voice, Indicative Mood.

Speak ; think ; eat ; laugh ; sit ; sleep ; cry.
Dress ; rise ; sit.

B.

Write the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the following Verbs.

Fall ; loose ; sing ; work ; shine ; tell.
Ride ; put ; steal ; catch ; mean ; wear.
Hurt ; come ; go ; play ; tear ; set ; fly ; hear.

C.

Put the verbs in the following Sentences first into PAST, and secondly into FUTURE Tenses :

1. The sun gradually sinks below the horizon.
2. The grain is ready to be harvested.
3. The steam-ship is sailing across the Pacific Ocean.
4. I have come to say good-by to my friends.
5. It thunders and lightens terribly in the valley of the Platte River.

D.

Write the following Verbs in the Indicative Mood, 3d Person, Singular Number, Passive Voice :

Strike ; eat ; catch ; lose ; hear ; pet ; choose ; bind.

E.

In the following Sentences, transform the INDICATIVE Moods into POTENTIAL Moods :

1. No one becomes a scholar without hard study.
2. Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow.

3. We are going to Yokahama in the great steam-ship *Colorado*.
4. I shall go to school to-morrow.
5. Right whale are not able to cross the line of the equator.
6. It was impossible for me to go.
7. By the death of his father it was made impossible for him to remain at school.

F.

Change the following Verbs from the ACTIVE to the PASSIVE voice, making the object of the active voice the subject of the passive, and preserving the full sense :

1. Dr. Livingstone has explored a large part of Africa.
2. Paul Revere carried to Lexington the news of the intended attack by the British.
3. The first fresh dawn awoke us.
4. The people of Lynn manufacture great quantities of shoes.
5. No one has yet reached the North Pole.

G.

Tell the MOOD of each Verb.

1. I hear thee speak of the better land.—*Hemans*.
2. I hear a knocking at the south entry.—*Shakspeare*.
3. Get on your nightgown, lest occasion call us
And show us to be watchers.—*Shakspeare*.
4. If my standard-bearer fall
Press where ye see my white plume shine.—*Macaulay*.
5. Where shall poverty reside,
To 'scape the pressure of contiguous pride?—*Goldsmith*.
6. Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done.—*English Bible*.
7. They that be whole need not a physician, but they that
are sick.—*English Bible*.

8. He made his final sally forth upon the world, hoping all things, believing all things, little anticipating the checkered ills in store for him.—*Irving*.
9. Would I describe a preacher, such as Paul—
Were he on earth—would hear, approve, and own,
Paul should himself direct me.—*Cowper*.
10. Part we in friendship from your land,
And, noble earl, receive my hand.—*Scott*.

H.

Tell the MOODS and the TENSES in the following Sentences :

1. The general had taken his departure before the mail arrived.
2. If nothing unforeseen occur, I shall leave home to-morrow.
3. I have heard you say that we shall see and know our friends in heaven.
4. Had any thing unforeseen occurred, he would have written.
5. Let all the ends thou aimest at be thy God's, thy country's.
6. To be or not to be, that is the question.

VIII. UNINFLECTED PARTS OF SPEECH.

228. The *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection* have no inflections.

(a) The *Preposition* and the *Conjunction* express relations which do not admit of their being modified.

(b) The *Interjection*, from its nature as a mere outcry, is free from all grammatical restraints.

Tabular Review.

Nouns and Pronouns have	}	<i>Number...</i>	{ Singular. Plural.	
		<i>Gender ..</i>	{ Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.	
			<i>Person....</i>	{ First. Second. Third.
		<i>Case</i>		{ Nominative. Possessive. Objective.
Adjectives Adverbs }	have.....	<i>Comparison.</i>	{ Positive. Comparative. Superlative.	
Verbs, have.....	}	<i>Voice....</i>	{ Active. Passive.	
			<i>Mood.....</i>	{ Indicative. Potential. Subjunctive Imperative. Infinitive.
		<i>Tense.....</i>		{ Present. Past. Future. Present Perf. Past Perfect. Future Perf.
				<i>Number...</i>
			<i>Person....</i>	

PARSING.

229. Complete parsing comprises a statement of the *etymology* and *syntax* of each word, the *etymology*

including the *class*, *sub-class*, and *Inflection*, and the **syntax** including the *relation* or use of the word and the *rule*.

NOTE.—Whilst any particular order of Parsing may be in itself no better than another that might be chosen, it is important that some order be adopted and closely followed. The learner will thus be trained in a systematic way of doing things; he will acquire the habit of going on from one step to another without being constantly prompted by such questions as, "What next?" "What number is the word?" "What does it agree with?" &c., &c.; and he will know when he has fully parsed the word. Further, by having a uniform method of parsing in our schools, a new teacher will not require to spend weeks in teaching children to unlearn what his predecessor has taught them.

ORDER OF PARSING.

1.—THE NOUN.

1. SUB-CLASS.—Common or proper.
2. NUMBER.—Singular or plural.
3. PERSON.—First, second, or third.
4. GENDER.—Masculine, feminine, or neuter.
5. CASE.—Nominative, possessive, or objective.

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 6. RELATION. | } | If nominative, name the verb of which it is the subject; or state how used.
If possessive, name the word which it limits.
If objective, name the verb or preposition on which it depends. |
| 7. RULE.—State the rule which regulates the form or use. | | |

2.—THE PRONOUN.

1. SUB-CLASS.—Personal or relative.
2. 3, 4, 5.—Like the noun.

- | | | |
|---------------|---|--|
| | } | (a). Name the noun or antecedent with which it agrees. |
| 6. RELATION. | | (b). If nominative, possessive, or objective, proceed as with the noun of the same case. |
| | } | (a.) State the rule for agreement. |
| 7. RULES..... | | (b.) State the rule for the case. |

3.—THE ADJECTIVE:

1. SUB-CLASS.—Qualitative, limiting, or demonstrative.
2. DEGREE.—Positive, comparative, or superlative.
— If not compared, say *invariable*.
3. RELATION.—Name the noun limited.
4. RULE.—State the rule for the use of adjectives.

4.—THE ADVERB.

1. SUBCLASS.—Simple or relative.
2. DEGREE.—State the degree only when comparative or superlative.
3. RELATION.—Name the verb, adjective, or adverb which it describes.
4. RULE.—State the rule for the use of adverbs.

5.—THE VERB.

- | | | |
|----------------|---|----------------------------------|
| 1. SUB-CLASS.— | } | (a). Transitive or intransitive. |
| | | (b). Regular or irregular. |

Principal Parts..... Present, Past, Past Participle.

2. VOICE.—Active or passive.
3. MOOD.—

}	Indicative, potential, subjunctive, or
	infinitive.
	participle or gerund.

4. TENSE.— } Present, past, future, present perfect,
 } past perfect, or future perfect.
5. NUMBER.—Singular or plural.
6. PERSON.—First, second, or third.
7. RELATION.—Name the subject. If infinitive, state how governed. If participle, name the noun to which it relates. If gerund, state case and government.
8. RULE.—State the rule for the agreement or government.

6.—THE PREPOSITION.

1. OFFICE.—Name the words which it joins.
2. RULE.—State the rule for use of the prepositions.

7.—THE CONJUNCTION.

1. SUB-CLASS.—Co-ordinative or sub-ordinative.
2. OFFICE.—State the clauses or words connected.
3. RULE.—Give the rule for the use of conjunctions.

8.—THE INTERJECTION.

Simply state that it is an interjection.

ABBREVIATIONS.

In written parsing use the following abbreviations :

Active, <i>act.</i>	Conjunction, <i>conj.</i>
Adjective, <i>adj.</i>	Demonstrative, <i>demon.</i>
Adverb, <i>adv.</i>	Future, <i>fut.</i>
Antecedent, <i>ant.</i>	Gerund, <i>ger.</i>
Apposition; <i>app.</i>	Imperative, <i>imper.</i>
Comparative, <i>compar.</i>	Indicative, <i>indic.</i>

Infinitive, <i>inf.</i>	Preposition, <i>prep.</i>
Interjection, <i>interj.</i>	Present, <i>pres.</i>
Intransitive, <i>intrans.</i>	Pronoun, <i>pron.</i>
Irregular, <i>irreg.</i>	Qualitative, <i>qual.</i>
Limiting, <i>limit.</i>	Quantitative, <i>quant.</i>
Nominative, <i>nom.</i>	Regular, <i>reg.</i>
Objective, <i>obj.</i>	Relative, <i>rel.</i>
Part.ciple, <i>part.</i>	Singular, <i>sing.</i>
Passive, <i>pass.</i>	Subject, <i>subj.</i>
Plural, <i>pl.</i>	Subjunctive, <i>subjunc.</i>
Positive, <i>pos.</i>	Superlative, <i>superl.</i>
Possessive, <i>poss.</i>	Transitive, <i>trans.</i>
Potential, <i>pot.</i>	

VARIOUS USES OF A WORD.

230. In classifying words the learner must remember that the way in which a word is used determines the class to which it belongs, and as the same word may be used in different ways it is variously classified according to its use. Thus the word *calm* may be used,

1. As a *noun*—*A great calm fell on the sea.*
2. As an *adjective*—*It was a calm, bright day.*
3. As a *verb*—*I did it to calm his fears.*

The following words are variously classified:—

But is originally a preposition, derived from the imperative phrase *be-out*—that is, *take out*, or *except*. It is also used as an adverb and a conjunction; as,

Prep. All *but* him had fled=*except*.

Adv. I have *but* three left=*only*.

Conj. He heard it, *but* he heeded not.

For and **Since** are also prepositions, conjunctions, or adverbs, according to their use.

Model of Parsing in Tabular Form.

ETYMOLOGY.				SYNTAX.	
WORD.	CLASS.	SUB-CLASS.	INFLECTION.	RELATION.	RULE.
James	noun	prop.	sing., third, mas. nom.	subj. of <i>rose</i> .	I.
rose	verb	(1) intrans. (2) irreg.	<i>rise, rose, risen</i> . indic., past, sing., third.	agrees with subj. <i>James</i> .	IX. XII. XII.
very	adv.	manner	invar.	“ <i>rose</i> .	XI.
early	adv.	time	invar.	“ <i>morning</i> .	XI.
one	adj.	limit.	pos.	“	XI.
particular	adj.	qual.	sing., third, neut., obj.	govd. by prep. <i>on</i> (understood).	IV.
morning	noun	com.	sing.	limits <i>summer</i> .	XI.
this	adj	demon.	sing., third, neut., obj.	governed by prep. <i>during</i>	IV.
summer	noun	com.		(understood).	
and	conj.	co-ord.		joins <i>James rose, etc.</i>	XIV.
took	verb	(1) trans. (2) irreg.	<i>take, took, taken</i> . act. indic. past, sing. third.	and (<i>James</i>) <i>took a walk, etc.</i>	
a	adj.	limit.	invar.	agrees with subject <i>James</i> .	IX.
walk	noun	com.	sing., third, neut., obj.	limits <i>walk</i> .	XI.
to divert	verb	(1) trans.	<i>divert, diverted, diverted</i> .	governed by <i>took</i> .	III.
himself	pron.	(2) reg. comp. pers.	act., influ., pres. sing., third, mas., obj.	governed by <i>walk</i> .	XV.
				agrees with <i>James gov. by to divert</i> .	X. & III.

nimself | pron. | comp. pers. | sing, third, mas., obj. | agrees with *James* gov. by *to divert*. | X. & III.

Model of Parsing in Tabular Form.—Continued.

ETYMOLOGY.				SYNTAX.	
WORD.	CLASS.	SUB-CLASS.	INFLECTION.	RELATION.	RULE.
in	prep.	demon.	invar.	joins <i>meadows</i> and <i>to divert</i> limits <i>meadows</i> . governed by <i>in</i> . joins <i>took a walk, &c.</i> and <i>the green was, &c.</i> limits <i>green</i> . subj. of <i>was</i> . agrees with <i>green</i> .	XIII.
the	adj.	com.	plu., third, neut., obj.		XI.
meadows	noun	connect			IV.
while	adv.				XII Note 2.
the	adj.	demon.	invar.	limits <i>green</i> . joins <i>green was new, &c.</i> and <i>the flowers were, &c.</i> limits <i>flowers</i> . subject of <i>were</i> . agrees with <i>flowers</i> .	XI.
green	noun	com.	sing., third, neut., nom.		I.
was	verb	(1) intrans. (2) irreg.	<i>am, was, been</i> . indic., past, sing., third. pos.		IX.
new	adj.	qual.		limits <i>green</i> . joins <i>green was new, &c.</i> and <i>the flowers were, &c.</i> limits <i>flowers</i> . subject of <i>were</i> . agrees with <i>flowers</i> .	XI.
and	conj.	co-ord.			XIV.
the	adj.	demon.	invar.	joins <i>bloom to were</i> . agrees with <i>flowers</i> . limits <i>bloom</i> . governed by <i>in</i> .	XI.
flowers	noun	com.	plu., third, neut., nom.		I.
were	verb	intrans. irreg.	<i>am, was, been</i> . indic., past, plu., third.		IX.
in	prep.	pers.	plu., third, neut., poss.	joins <i>bloom to were</i> . agrees with <i>flowers</i> . limits <i>bloom</i> . governed by <i>in</i> .	XIII.
their	pron.				X. & V.
bloom.	noun	com.	sing., third, neut., obj.		IV.

Exercise 29.

Sentences for PARSING.

The relation and the rule can be omitted at this stage.

A.

1. Holy and heavenly thoughts shall counsel her.—*Shakespeare.*
2. Then rose from sea to sky the wild farewell.—*Byron.*
3. The better part of valor is discretion.—*Shakspeare.*
4. The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but him had fled.—*Hemans.*
5. The steed along the drawbridge flies.—*Scott.*
6. I could hear my friend chide him for not getting out some
work, but at the same time saw him put his hand in his
pocket and give him sixpence.—*Spectator.*
7. I long for a repose which ever is the same.—*Wordsworth.*
8. Thou knowest my praise of nature most sincere,
And that my raptures are not conjured up
To serve occasions of poetic pomp,
But genuine, and art partner of them all.—*Cowper.*
9. There were two fathers in this ghastly crew.—*Byron.*
10. When he read the note from the two ladies, he shook his
head, and observed that an affair of this sort demanded
the utmost circumspection.—*Goldsmith.*

B.

1. The gushing flood the tartans dyed.—*Scott.*
2. None but the brave deserves the fair.—*Dryden.*
3. The nurse sleeps sweetly, hired to watch the sick
Whom snoring she disturbs.—*Cowper.*
4. Forth in the pleasing spring thy beauty walks.—*Thomson.*
5. Not to know me argues yourself unknown.—*Milton.*
6. The night had closed in before the conflict on the boom
began.—*Macaulay.*

7. When kindness had his wants supplied,
And the old man was gratified,
Began to rise his minstrel pride.—*Scott*.
8. ...t every draught more large and large they grew,
A bloated mass of rank, unwieldy woe ;
Till sapp'd their strength, and every part unsound,
Down, down they sink, and spread a ruin round.—*Mac-
aulay*.
9. The friends thou hast and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hooks of steel ;
But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
Of each new-hatch'd unfledged comrade.—*Shakspeare*.

PART II.

Syntax.

231. **Syntax** (from Greek *sun*, together, and *taxis*, a putting in order) treats of the Agreement, Government, and Arrangement of words in sentences.

As the English language has but few inflections, words have but little variety of form dependent on agreement and government, and the possibility of error in this respect is proportionally limited.

Syntax of the Noun.

I.—HOW TO PARSE NOUNS.

232. There are *eight* functions that a Noun may perform in a sentence.

It may be—

1. Subject of a Verb ;
2. Complement of an Intransitive or a Passive Verb ;

3. Object of a Transitive Verb ;
4. In the Objective Case after a Preposition ;
5. In the Possessive Case ;
6. In Apposition ;
7. Case Independent ;
8. Case Absolute.

These are all the *possible* uses of the noun in a sentence. It must have *one* of these uses. The following models will show how to parse it when in any of these relations. As the pronoun represents the noun it may perform the same functions.

Noun, Subject of a Verb.

RULE I.—The subject of a Verb is in the Nominative Case.

ILLUSTRATION.

My *uncle* is here ; *he* came yesterday.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Uncle...A noun, common, singular, third, neuter, nominative, subjective of the verb "is," according to Rule I.

He.....A pronoun, personal, singular, third, masculine, nominative, subjective of "came," according to Rule I.

The complete parsing of the pronoun can not be shown until the rule for its agreement has been given. (See Rule X.)

NOTE.—A noun, the subject of an infinitive, is construed in the objective case. **EXAMPLE:** The Queen perceived *Columbus* to be an enthusiast. Here 'Columbus' is parsed as in the objective case, though the *form*, of course, is the same as the nominative. If a pronoun were used as the subject of an infinitive, the *form* of the pronoun would mark it as in the objective case. Thus, the queen perceived *him* to be an en-

thusiasm. This construction is not, strictly speaking, English; it is an imitation of a Latin idiom. Our English idiom would turn such sentences thus: 'The queen perceived *that Columbus was,*' 'that he was,' etc.

Exercise 30.

Parse the SUBJECTS in the following sentences:

1. Water consists of two gases.
2. Napoleon went to Egypt with forty sail of the line.
3. Life's but a walking shadow.
4. The bugle's note and cannon's roar the deathlike silence broke.
5. Seasons return, but not to me returns
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine.
—Milton.

233.—Rule I. is often violated by using the objective.

ILLUSTRATION.

May John and *me* bring some water, should be,
May John and *I* &c.

This is a man *whom* I think deserves encouragement.

EXPLANATION.—Transposing the parenthetical expression, *I think*, we have the sentence, 'I think this is a man *whom* deserves encouragement.' You see, of course, that this is wrong: *whom* is designed to be subject of the verb *deserves*, and hence it should be *who* deserves.

234. Violations of this rule most frequently occur in elliptical sentences when the verb is omitted.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Is *she* as tall as *me*?—Shakspeare.

2. She suffers hourly more than *me*.—*Swift*.
3. The nations not so blessed as *thee*.—*Thomson*.
4. It is not for such as *us* to sit with the rulers of the land.—*Sir Walter Scott*.
5. She was neither better nor wiser than you or *me*.—*Thackeray*.

EXPLANATION.—The above sentences, each by a famous author, all violate the rule. The blunder becomes very plain when we supply the ellipsis—thus, (1) ‘as tall as *me am*,’ (2) ‘more than *me do*,’ (3) ‘not so blessed as *thee art*,’ (4) ‘such as *us are*,’ (5) ‘than you or *me are*.’

Exercise 31.

- Correct the following*.—1. Is James as old as *me*?
 2. Such a man as *him* could never be President. 3.
 He runs faster than *me*.

235. When a noun designed to be the subject of a verb is employed, see that that noun has a verb of which it is the subject.

ILLUSTRATION.

“Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.”

EXPLANATION.—The writer begins with the noun ‘substantives,’ which is so placed that it can be only the subject of a verb; but, before he gets through, the word ‘former’ comes in as the subject of the verb *must be*. The word *of* at the beginning of the sentence—‘*Of* two substantives,’ etc.—would rectify the error.

236. Do not use both a noun and its pronoun as the subject of the same verb.

In poetry the subject is sometimes repeated in the form of a pronoun used along with the noun; as, The count *he* was

left to the vulture and hound ; *To be or not to be* [phrase subject], *that* [pronoun-subject] is the question. But this is not allowable in prose except where special emphasis is designed.

'My father *he* said that I must go' is incorrect. We might however, say, 'A man that wears the livery of heaven to serve the devil in, *he* is not to be trusted,' because here special emphasis is desired.

Predicate Nominative.

RULE II.—A noun or a pronoun used as the complement of an intransitive or a passive verb, and referring to the same thing as the subject, is in the nominative case.

ILLUSTRATION.

Tennyson is a *poet*.

He was made *poet-laureate*.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Poet.—A noun, common, singular, third, masculine, nominative, complement of 'is,' according to Rule II.

Poet-laureate.—A noun, common, singular, third, masculine, nominative, complement of 'was made,' according to Rule II.

NOTE.—This nominative is often called the *predicate-nominative*.

Exercise 32.

Parse the PREDICATE-NOMINATIVES.

1. He was a *man*, take him for all in all, I shall not look upon his like again.
2. Our world is a *planet*.
3. It was *he* that secured our liberty.
4. Though a prisoner, Mary seemed still a *queen*.
5. King William of Prussia became *Emperor* of Germany in 1871.

237. Do not violate Rule II. by using the objective case of the pronoun instead of the nominative.

In violation of this rule we often hear, in the ordinary conversation of all classes of society, such expressions as, 'Who is it *me*?' 'It was *her*;' 'It is *them*;' 'It is *us*.' Indeed, some grammarians (as Dean Alford and Mr. Bain) defend these forms as allowable, but there seems to be no sufficient justification for these wide departures from the regular syntax of our language.

Exercise 33.

Point out the violations of this rule in the following: 1. It is not me whom you are in love with.—*Addison*. 2. If there is one character more base than another, it is him who, etc.—*Sydney Smith*. 3. It could not have been her. 4. Whom say ye that I am?

SPECIAL RULE.—A noun or pronoun used as the complement of the infinitive mood of an intransitive verb, or of the infinitive mood of a transitive verb in the passive voice, agrees in case with the noun or pronoun that precedes the infinitive referring to the same thing.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. We know him to be a good man.
2. I supposed the man to be him.
3. He wished Brown to be chosen mayor.

In sentence (1) *man* is in the objective case, agreeing with *him*; in sentence (2) *him* is in the objective, agreeing with *man*; and in sentence (3) *mayor* is in the objective, agreeing with *Brown*.

NOUN OBJECT OF A TRANSITIVE VERB.

NOTE.—Remember that transitive verbs are incomplete, and require a noun or the equivalent of a noun in order to make full sense. The noun that is used as the complement of a transitive verb is called its *object*.

RULE III.—The object of a transitive verb is in the

ILLUSTRATION.

The hunter blew his *horn*.

The dogs heard *him*.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Horn.—A noun, common, singular, third, neuter, objective, object of the verb 'blew,' according to Rule III.

Him.—A pronoun, personal, singular, third, masculine, objective, object of 'heard,' according to Rule III.

Exercise 34.

Parse the SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS in the following Sentences.

1. Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke.—*Gray*.
2. Beaux banish beaux, and coaches coaches drive.—*Pope*.
3. The gushing flood the tartans dyed.—*Scott*.
4. The plowman homeward plods his weary way.—*Gray*.
5. Me he restored to mine office, and him he hanged.
6. Whom have you seen?

NOTE 1.—Some transitive verbs admit of two objects, one *direct* and one *indirect*.

ILLUSTRATION.

He promised *him* (indirect) a *knife* (direct).

NOTE 2.—Verbs that admit of two objects in the active voice are followed by the direct object in the passive voice.

ILLUSTRATION.

He was promised *apples*, (direct object); then he was denied *them* (direct object).

238. Rule III. is often violated by using the nominative case of the pronoun instead of the objective case.

NOTE.—This rule is seldom violated when the pronoun immediately follows the verb. It is only when the object is at some distance from the verb, or when the sentence is elliptical, that the nominative form of the pronoun is liable to be used, 'He that flatters too much, do not believe,' for 'him that flatters,' etc. Here *him* is the object of the verb 'believe.'

Exercise 35.

Point out the violations of this rule in the following :

1. My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him.
2. Let you and she advance.
3. Who should I meet but him.
4. I told somebody, but I do not know who.

NOUN WITH A PREPOSITION.

RULE IV.—A noun or pronoun depending on a preposition is in the objective case. Or—prepositions govern the objective case.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

And here upon the *ground* I sit,
I sit and sing to *them*.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Ground. . A noun, common, singular, third, neuter, objective, depending on the preposition "upon," according to Rule IV.

Them.....A pronoun, personal; plural, third, common gender, objective, depending on the preposition "to," according to Rule IV.

Exercise 36.

Parse the NOUNS governed by PREPOSITIONS, and the NOUN SUBJECTS and NOUN OBJECTS in the following Sentences :

1. The smiling daisies blow beneath the sun.
2. The army crossed the river by a bridge made of pontoons.
3. Forth in the pleasing spring thy beauty walks.—*Thomson.*
4. He went to California on account of his health.
5. Across his brow his hand he drew.
6. My mind to me a kingdom is.

Correct the following : 1. Between you and I, all is not gold that glitters. 2. Who servest thou under? —*Shakspeare.* 3. So you must ride on horseback after we.

NOUN IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

RULE V.—A noun or a pronoun used to limit another noun signifying a different thing, is in the possessive case.

ILLUSTRATION.

Vainly the fowler's eye
Might mark thy distant flight to do thee wrong.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Fowler's...A noun, common, singular, third, masculine, possessive, limiting "eye," according to Rule V.

Thy: . . . A pronoun, personal, singular, second, common gender, possessive, limiting "flight," according to Rule V.

Exercise 37.

Parse the POSSESSIVES.

1. Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's [ends], thy God's, and truth's.
2. My father and mother's command was obeyed.
3. Quench the timber's falling embers,
Quench the red leaves in December's
Hoary rime and chilling spray.—*Whittier.*
4. Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned,
From wandering on a foreign strand?—*Scott.*

239. The sign of the possessive ('s) is never used in writing the pronoun. Thus we have *my, his, their, whose, &c.*

NOTE.—When two or more nouns in the possessive, referring to the same thing, come together, the sign of the possessive ('s) is used with only one; thus,—

I have read a play of *Shakspeare's* the great English dramatist.

240. When in a succession of nouns, joint possession is meant, the sign of the possessive ('s) is used only with the last; as,—

John, William, and Mary's share was five thousand dollars.

Liddell and Scott's Dictionary.

241. When separate ownership is denoted by each noun, the sign of the possessive is written after each ; as,—

Smith's and Eaton's stores.

Webster's and Worcester's Dictionaries.

242. Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the noun limited by the possessive.

EXAMPLE:—Whose is this image and superscription? They say unto him, *Cæsar's* [image and superscription.]

243. Whenever the possessive phraseology is felt to be awkward, we may avoid it by using the preposition, *of* or *by*.

Thus, instead of saying Alexander the Great's conquest of Babylon, we may say the conquest of Babylon by Alexander the Great. Sometimes these forms of expression have very different meanings ; as,

This is my father's picture.

This is a picture of my father.

A picture of my father means a likeness of himself ; *my father's picture* may mean simply a picture that belongs to him. Sometimes we have the possessive case preceded by the preposition *of* ; as, *a picture of my father's*. This denotes one picture of my father's collection of pictures. The thing spoken of in the singular number is always understood in the plural number after the possessive. 'A house of my uncle's' = a house out of my uncle's *houses*.

244. The possessive inflection is used only when some idea of ownership is present, and hence is limited mainly to nouns denoting persons or personified objects. When we wish to denote merely an accompaniment of an object, we use the phrase-form with the

preposition *of*. Thus we may say 'The man's occupation,' 'Times' hoary locks,' 'The President's message,' 'Death's fatal arrow,' but not 'The house's roof' (the roof of the house), 'The street's width,' (the width of the street).

Exercise 38.

Correct the following Errors :

1. Webster and Woreester's Dictionaries.
2. I purchased the coat at Smith's and Brown's.
3. This opinion is Newton the Astronomer's.
4. They said the goods were their's.

NOUN IN APPPOSITION.

EXPLANATION.—A noun is said to be "in apposition" when it denotes the same person or thing as another noun or pronoun, and when both are in the subject or in the predicate. EXAMPLE: Thomson, the *poet*, was a contemporary of Hume, the *historian*. Here 'poet' explains 'Thomson,' and is said to be *in apposition* with it. So with 'historian' and 'Hume.'

RULE VI.—A noun or pronoun in apposition agrees in case with the noun or pronoun which it is used to explain.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Then out spake brave Horatius,
The *Captain* of the gate.
I, *John*, King of England.

MODEL OF PARSING.

Captain.. A noun, common, singular, third, masculine, nominative, in apposition with "Horatius," according to Rule VI.

John..... A noun, proper, singular, first, nominative, in apposition with "I," according to Rule VI.

Exercise 39.*Parse the Nouns in APPOSITION.*

1. 'Tis I, Hamlet the Dane.
2. Ye eagles, playmates of the mountain storm,
Ye lightnings, the dread arrows of the clouds,
Ye signs and wonders of the elements,
Utter forth God !

Noun Independent.

EXPLANATION.—A noun is said to be *independent* when it has no grammatical relations with the other words in the sentence. EXAMPLE: *Horatius*, saith the consul, as thou sayest, so let it be. Here 'Horatius' has no *grammatical* relation with any other word in the sentence, and hence is said to be *independent*.

RULE VII.—A noun or pronoun denoting a person or thing addressed is in the nominative independent.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

O, save me, Hubert, save me !
Give me three grains of corn, mother.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Hubert. . A noun, proper, singular, second, masculine, nominative, independent, according to Rule VII.

Exercise 40.*Parse the NOUNS INDEPENDENT.*

1. Mary, your lilies are in bloom.
2. False wizard, avaunt !
3. Out, out, brief candle.
4. Give me three grains of corn, mother.
5. And you were all I had, Mary, my blessing and my pride.

Nominative Absolute.

RULE VIII.—A noun or pronoun with a participle, whose case does not depend on any other word in the sentence, is in the nominative absolute.

ILLUSTRATION.

He being absent, nothing could be done.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

He... A pronoun, personal, singular, third, masculine, nominative, absolute, according to Rule VIII.

Exercise 41.

Parse the NOUNS ABSOLUTE.

1. The river not being fordable, we had to make a great detour.
2. Adam, wedded to another Eve, shall live with her enjoying, I (being) extinct.
3. Thou away, the very birds are mute.

NOTE.—Sometimes the *objective* absolute is used ;
as,—

Him destroyed for whom all this was made,
All this will soon follow.—*Milton.*

Syntax of the Verb.

RULE IX.—A Verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I *am* with you once again.
2. Now *fades* the glimmering landscape on the sight.
3. The clouds, which *rise* with thunder, *slake* our thirsty souls with rain.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Am....a verb, intransitive, irregular; *am, was, been*, indicative, present, singular, first, agreeing with its subject "I," according to Rule IX.

Fades...a verb, intransitive, regular; *fade, faded, faded*, indicative, present, singular, third, agreeing with its subject "landscape," according to Rule IX

Rise...a verb, intransitive, irregular; *rise, rose, risen*, indicative, present, plural, third, agreeing with its subject "which," according to Rule IX.

Slake...a verb, transitive, regular; *slake, slaked, slaked*, active voice, indicative, present, plural, third, agreeing with its subject "clouds," according to Rule IX.

245. The subject of a verb may be—

A NOUN, a PRONOUN, an INFINITIVE, a PHRASE, or a CLAUSE.

The *emperor Napoleon* (noun-subject of verb *died*), *who* (pronoun-subject) was banished to St. Helena, died in 1820.

To hesitate (infinitive-subject) is failure.

To reach the Indies, (phrase-subject) was the object of Columbus.

Where De Soto was buried (clause-subject) cannot be determined.

246. Expressions like, 'To reach the Indies' are called *phrases*; those like 'Where De Soto was buried,' are called *clauses*. Such expressions are parsed as in the third person, singular number.

Exercise 42.

Parse the VERBS in the following Sentences.

1. Pleasantly rose next morning the sun on the village of Grand-Pré.
2. Shell-fish cast their shells once a year.
3. English style begins, at the earliest, only about the middle of the fourteenth century.
4. The eagle and the stork on cliffs and cedar-tops their eyries build.
5. The air gets slowly changed in inhabited rooms.
6. In the present day, the binding of a book illustrates the power of machinery.
7. One morn a Peri at the gate of heaven stood disconsolate.
8. The preparations for the trial proceeded rapidly.
9. On either side the river lie long fields of barley and rye.
10. Over the joyous feast the sudden darkness descended.
11. The green trees whispered low and mild.

SPECIAL RULE I.—A collective noun has a singular verb when the individuals denoted by the noun are taken together as one united whole, and a plural verb when they are considered as acting separately.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The fleet *was* seen sailing up the channel.

The council *were* divided in their opinion.

In the first sentence the fleet is considered as a united whole; in the second sentence the idea of separate individuals is made prominent by the term "divided."

SPECIAL RULE II.—When the subject consists of two or more singular Nouns united by 'and,' the Verb must be Plural.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. John and James *are* in the field.

EXPLANATION—Here the subject is 'John' and 'James,' two singular nouns united by *and*. Hence the verb 'are' is plural.

2. Mars and Jupiter *has* been visible this week.

EXPLANATION.—Here the subject consists of two singular nouns connected by 'and;' so the verb should be plural. Hence '*has been*' should be '*have been*.'

SPECIAL APPLICATIONS OF THE PRINCIPLE.

(a) The principle applies equally if the conjunction 'and' be understood. Thus, 'Art, empire, earth itself to change *are* doomed.'

(b) If the two nouns are names for the *same object*, they are not united *copulatively*, but merely in an *explanatory* way; hence there is no *real* plurality of subject, and the verb must be singular. Example: "The spectator and historian of his exploit *has* observed;" that is, a single person who was at once 'spectator' and 'historian' of his exploit. If two persons, the one spectator, the other historian, were intended, the article would be repeated, and then the verb would need to be plural. Thus: 'The spectator and the historian of his exploit *have* observed.'

(c) Note that where two or more singular subjects almost synonymous in meaning are employed for the sake of emphasis, there is still a kind of unity in the subject; hence the singular verb is used; as. "The head and front of his offending *was* this." "To read and write *was* once an honorary distinction."

(d) Sometimes 'and' is not a real conjoiner, but has the sense of the preposition *with*. In such cases there is no plurality of subject, and the verb must be singular. EXAMPLE.—The wheel and axle *was* out of repair; that is, the 'wheel together with the axle.' We may say A needle and a thread *were* given to her, but she could not thread the needle—meaning the needle and thread were given separately; A needle

and thread *was* given to her, but she could not sew on the button—meaning that a *threaded* needle was given her.

(e) Here is a peculiar case: 'The captain with his men *were* taken prisoners.' Grammatically, the subject 'captain' is singular; hence the verb should be *was* taken [prisoner]; but the *sense* requires the plural. The better way in such a case is, if we mean to bring to notice both captain and men, to say, The captain *and* his men *were* taken prisoners; or, if we desire to make the captain alone prominent, The captain *was* taken prisoner with his men.

(f) When two singular nouns are coupled by *as well as*, the verb is singular, as there are in reality two propositions. 'As well as' makes merely an illustrative comparison, so that there is essential unity of subject, and hence the verb must be singular; as, Africa as well as Gaul [after the manner of Gaul] *was* gradually fashioned by imitation of the capital.

(g) When two or more singular subjects connected by *and* are preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no*, the verb is singular; as, Every limb and feature *appears* with its appropriate grace.

SPECIAL RULE III.—Two or more Singular Nouns joined by 'or' or 'nor,' must have a Singular Verb.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. He *or* his brother *has* the book,
2. Neither this *nor* that *is* the thing wanted.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—A singular and a plural subject joined by 'or' or 'nor' require a plural verb, and the plural subject should be next the verb.

ILLUSTRATION.

He *or* his servants *were* to blame.

SPECIAL RULE V.—When a Verb is preceded by two subjects, one affirmative and the other negative, it agrees in Number and in Person with the affirmative subject.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. He, and not I, *is* chosen.
2. I, and not they, *am* to go.
3. Not you, but Mary, *is* the best scholar.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—When the verb 'To Be' is preceded and followed by a nominative, one singular and the other plural, the verb agrees in number with that which is more naturally the subject.

ILLUSTRATION.

His pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds of the sky.

EXPLANATION.—Here the real subject follows the verb.

SPECIAL RULE VII.—When two or more singular subjects of different persons are connected by 'or' or 'nor' it is usual to make the verb agree in person with the subject nearest to it.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

- I or *he is* in the wrong.
Jane or *I have* the book.

The type of sentences exemplified in the preceding cases is not to be commended as illustrating the best usage. Such sentences are common in colloquial use. It is better to write, Either *I am* in the wrong, or *he is*. Neither John *is* right, nor *am I*. Is James or I to go? Better thus, *Is* James to go, or *am I*?

VIOLATIONS OF RULE IX.

247. The verb has so few changes of form on account of number and person, that with a little care error is easily avoided. With the exception of the verb *To Be*, which has more inflections, the present tense has but three forms and the past tense but two.

The forms of these tenses as required by the different numbers and persons are thus shown :

<i>Present.</i>		<i>Past.</i>	
I	}	I	}
We		He	
You		We	
They		You	
Thou walkest.		They	
<i>He walks.</i>		Thou walkedst.	
I am.		I was.	
Thou art.		Thou wast.	
He is.		He was.	
We	}	We	}
You		You	
They		They	
	are		were.

248. Guard against mistaking for the subject of the verb a noun in an adjunct of the subject, standing between it and the verb.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. The union of two great rivers *produces* the Mississippi.

EXPLANATION—Here the verb ‘produces’ is rightly in the *singular* number, because the subject of the verb is ‘union,’ which is singular. It matters not that the subject is followed by the phrase ‘of two great rivers,’ for that is a mere adjunct.

2. His reputation was great, and somewhat more durable than that of similar poets *have* generally been.

EXPLANATION—Here the verb ‘have’ is in the wrong number. Its subject is the pronoun ‘that,’ which is singular, whereas ‘have’ is plural. The cause of the mistake is that the verb ‘have’ is *attracted* into the same number as ‘poets ;’ but as the phrase ‘of similar poets’ is a mere *adjunct* of ‘that’ it can have no influence on the number of the verb.

249. When the immediate subject is a Relative Pronoun, the antecedent of the Pronoun determines the Number of the Verb.

As the relative pronouns have no peculiar form for the plural, these pronouns have an *attributed* number in accordance with the number of the antecedent.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Ye stars, which *are* the poetry of heaven.

EXPLANATION.—Here the immediate subject is the relative pronoun 'which.' This pronoun is construed as plural, because its antecedent 'stars' is plural; therefore the verb takes the plural form.

2. This is one of the most valuable books that *has* appeared in any language.

EXPLANATION.—Here the verb 'has' is in the wrong number. Its subject is the relative pronoun 'that'; but this pronoun is considered as plural, since its antecedent 'books' is plural; therefore 'has appeared' should be 'have appeared.'

When the antecedent consists of a noun and a pronoun in apposition, the relative takes the number and the person of the *pronoun*, and the *verb* agrees with the *relative* in that number and person; as,

It is I, your friend, *who* [1st person singular] tell you to go, But if the relative clause belongs to the *noun* rather than to the pronoun, the relative is considered to be in the third person, and the verb agrees with it in that person; as,

It is I, the *friend that loves you*, who tell you to go.

The first sentence = I (your friend) tell you to go.

The second = I (the friend *that loves you*) tell you to go.

250. No ellipsis of an auxiliary verb should be made when the auxiliary, if supplied, would not agree with its subject.

ILLUSTRATION.

A bundle of papers was produced, and such particulars as the following detailed.

EXPLANATION.—There is an ellipsis of the auxiliary before the participle 'detailed,' but this ellipsis is improper, because, when we come to supply *was* (expressed before 'produced'), we have 'such particulars *was* detailed,' which is ungrammatical. The auxiliary *were* should be supplied.

Exercise 43.

Correct the following, and give the special rule.—

1. The condition of the crops show that the country has suffered from drowth.
2. The trend of the Rocky Mountains are toward the South.
3. The Church have no power to inflict corporal punishment.
4. A detachment of two hundred men were immediately sent.
5. The public is often deceived by false appearances.
6. It is an ill wind that blow nobody good.
7. The strata that contains coal belong to the tertiary era.
8. Ships and steamers goes to sea.
9. A eminent scholar and judicious critic have said.
10. Wherem co sit the dread and fear of kings,
11. This wine-and-water are hot.
12. Sir Richard, with several others, were cited to the Star Chamber.
13. Frankin as well as Otis were born in Massachusetts.
14. Our will and not our stars make us what we are.
15. Every house-top and every steeple show the flag of the republic.
16. A word or an epithet paint a whole scene.
17. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved.

Syntax of the Pronoun.

251. The **Pronoun** has the same functions as the **Noun**; that is, it may be—

1. Subject of a Verb.
2. Nominative after an Intransitive or a Passive Verb.
3. Object of a Transitive Verb.
4. Governed by a Preposition.
5. In the Possessive Case.
6. In Apposition.
7. Independent.
8. Case Absolute.

252. The **Pronoun**, having the same use as the **Noun**, is parsed in the same way as the **Noun**. The

Pronoun also has the additional relation of agreement, as shown by Rule X.

Review How to Parse the Noun.

RULE X.—A Pronoun agrees in number, person, and gender with its antecedent or with the Noun it represents.

NOTE—This is the most important practical principle in the Syntax of Pronouns. It is also the one that is most frequently violated.

ILLUSTRATION.

A man *who* dedicates *his* life to knowledge becomes habituated to pleasure, *which* carries with *it* no reproach.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Who.....A pronoun, relative, singular, third, masculine, nominative, agreeing with "man" and subject of "dedicates," according to Rules X and I.

His.....A pronoun, personal, singular, third, masculine, possessive, agreeing with "man" and limiting "life," according to Rules X and V.

Which....A pronoun, relative, singular, third, neuter, nominative, agreeing with "pleasure" and subject of "carries," according to Rules X and I.

Exercise 44.

Parse the Pronouns in the following lines.

I have seen
A curious child, who dwelt upon a tract
Of inland ground, applying to his ear
The convolutions of a smooth-lipped shell;
To which, in silence hushed, his very soul
Listened intensely ;—

SPECIAL RULE I.—When two or more nouns denoting different things, are connected by *and*, the pronoun used to represent them must be in the plural number.

ILLUSTRATION.

James and William neglected *their* lessons and *they* were kept in.

SPECIAL RULE II.—When two or more Singular nouns are connected by *or*, the pronoun used to represent them must be in the singular number.

ILLUSTRATION.

When he shoots a partridge, a woodcock, or a pheasant, he gives *it* away.

SPECIAL RULE III.—Collective Nouns require singular or plural pronouns according as they convey the idea of unity, or of plurality.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. The clergy began to withdraw themselves.—*Blackstone.*
2. Parliament is now in session ; *it* will rise next week.

REMARKS ON THE USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

253. Such adjectives as *each*, *every*, and *one* are used with nouns in the singular number only, and hence the pronouns which represent such nouns must be singular.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Franklin and Lawrence were distinguished patriots ; *each* served *their* country well.

EXPLANATION.—‘Each’ here belongs to *patriot* or some other singular noun understood, and hence should be represented by a singular pronoun—‘each served *his* country well.’

2. Every person is the architect of *their* own fortune.

EXPLANATION.—Here the pronoun 'their' is used to represent the singular noun 'person,' and hence should be singular—'the architect of *his* own fortune.' What causes the mistake is the notion of plurality in the word 'every'; but 'every' is always grammatically singular.

John and James have been late for a week; if *either* are absent from *their* seat at nine tomorrow *they* will be kept in.

EXPLANATION.—Here the pronouns 'their' and 'they' are used to represent 'either,' which is singular; hence singular pronouns and the singular verb should be used. 'If *either* is absent from *his* seat, *he* will,' etc.

4. *One* is seldom at a loss what to do with *their* money.

EXPLANATION.—As 'one' is the represented word and singular, 'his,' instead of 'their,' should be used.

5. Every boy and girl must learn *their* lesson.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence represents a peculiarity. Under the verb we saw that two singular nouns coupled by 'and' do not take the plural verb when preceded by *every*. Hence the pronoun representing them should be singular also, and the sentence should read, 'Every boy and girl has learned his lesson.' But the sentence presents a further peculiarity; there are two genders to be represented. Now in English we have no pronouns of the common gender in the third person singular. In such cases it is customary to make the masculine pronoun stand for both genders.

6. Every teacher is required to make *his* or *her* report.

EXPLANATION.—When we wish specially to distinguish the sexes we use the above form; but all difficulty may be avoided by employing the plural form of the noun and the pronoun—thus, 'All *teachers* are required to make *their* reports.'

254. The following examples illustrate improper use of the pronoun :—

1. Had *the opinion* of my censurers been unanimous, *it* might have upset my resolutions ; but since I find them at variance with each other, I can, without scruple, neglect *them* [*it*], and follow my own imagination.—*Dr. Johnson.*

EXPLANATION.—Notice the pronoun *them*, and see if you can tell what noun it is meant to represent. A careful reading of the sentence will show that the pronoun *them* was designed to stand for the word ‘opinion.’ It is *the opinion* that was not unanimous : hence the writer correctly says ‘it [*i. e.*, the opinion] might have upset my resolutions.’ It was this ‘opinion’ that he could neglect, not his ‘censurers,’ which he carelessly makes the represented noun, and hence uses ‘them’ instead of ‘it.’

2. When a verb governs a relative pronoun, *it* is placed after *it*—*Chambers’s Grammar.*

EXPLANATION.—This sentence illustrates a careless use of the pronoun. It is not easy to tell which *it* represents ‘verb’ and which ‘pronoun.’

3. Men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that *their* reputation obscures *them*, and that *their* commendable qualities do stand in *their* light ; and therefore *they* do what *they* can to cast a cloud over *them*, that the bright shining of *their* virtues may not obscure *them*.—*Bishop Tillotson.*

EXPLANATION.—The above sentence has two subjects, and we can not tell from the construction to which of the two the pronouns refer. In fact, the multiplicity of pronouns throws the sentence into utter confusion.

The Pronoun ‘It.’

255. The fact that the pronoun *it* has two distinct

uses—its ordinary use and its idiomatic use in introducing a sentence—is a frequent cause of ambiguity.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I am going to mention the matter. *It* is right that *it* should be mentioned.

EXPLANATION.—The first *it* here introduces the sentence (idiomatic use); the second refers to 'the matter,' and some confusion results from the double reference.

2. It is a sign of great prudence to be willing to receive instruction; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it*.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence would be better thus—using a noun in place of the first 'it': 'Willingness to receive instruction is a sign of great prudence; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it*.'

Each Other and One Another.

256. 'Each other' is used when we are speaking of *two* persons; 'one another' when we speak of *more than two*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Righteousness and peace have kissed *each other*.
2. If God so loved us, we ought to love *one another*.

Politeness in Pronouns.

257. In using singular pronouns of different persons, put *he* or *she* before *I*, and *you* before *I*, or *he*, or *she*; as, *He* and *I* will go. *You* and *he* will go. My cousin and *I* will go. *You* or James will go.

258. With the plural pronouns, *we* has the first place, *you* the second, and *they* the third; as, *we* and *they* start to-morrow.

EXPLANATION.—The reason of the difference in the position of the singular and of the plural pronouns is this: In the singular number, the speaker (*I*) puts himself after the person spoken to and the person spoken of, as a matter of politeness. But in the plural number, for the same reason, he puts those who are most intimately associated with him in the first place (unavoidably including himself and making 'we'), then the persons spoken to, and then those spoken of.

Exercise 45.

Correct the errors in the following sentences :

1. The multitude, with all *its* means of instruction.
2. The army dragged *themselves* along through the mud.
3. Every one must judge of their own feelings.—*Byron*.
4. Had the doctor been contented to take my dining-tables, as any body in their senses would have done.—*Miss Austin*.
5. Not on outward charms should man or woman build their pretensions to please.—*Opie*.
6. Man is not such a machine as a watch or a clock, which move merely as they are moved.
7. As Time devours his children, so they endeavour to devour each other.—*Bacon*.
- 8.—Did we (mankind) but love each other, it would be something.—*Goldsmith*.

SPECIAL RULES FOR THE USE OF RELATIVES.

SPECIAL RULE I.—To prevent ambiguity, the relative pronoun should be placed as near as possible to its antecedent.

In ordinary cases the first noun that precedes the relative should be its antecedent.

ILLUSTRATION.

The soldier who disobeyed his officer was punished for the offence.

EXPLANATION.—The antecedent of 'who' is 'soldier,' and the pronoun is correctly placed next to that antecedent; but the sentence would be inelegant if we should say, 'The soldier was punished for the offence, who disobeyed his officer.'

SPECIAL RULE II.—When an adjunct noun, or a noun in apposition, is likely to cause ambiguity as to the real antecedent, *who* or *which* refers to the principal noun, and *that* to the adjunct noun.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Solomon, the son of David, *who* built the Temple.

EXPLANATION.—The noun immediately preceding the relative 'who' is *David*; but the real antecedent is *Solomon*, not *David*.

Now, if we wish to make a reference to the explanatory word, the pronoun 'that,' may be used instead of *who*; as, Solomon, the son of David that slew Goliath, built the Temple; or use *who*, following its antecedent without the intervention of a comma.

The Indians constructed huts covered with the skins of wild animals, which formed their rude habitations.

EXPLANATION.—The noun immediately preceding the relative *which* is 'animals;' but the real antecedent is *huts*, not 'animals.'

If we wish to make the relative refer to the adjunct nouns, we must use *that* instead of *who* or *which*. Thus we might say, 'The Indians constructed huts covered with the skins of wild animals that they killed in the chase.' In such cases, do not separate 'that' from its antecedent by a comma.

SPECIAL RULE III.—*Who* relates to persons only; *which* relates to the lower animals and things without life.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The boy *who* had the pitcher shook his head.

That sorrow *which* leaves no hope was in his look.

NOTE.—*Which*, and not *who*, is used when the antecedent is a collective noun expressing *unity* of idea ; as,

The party *which* he entertained yesterday was very numerous.

NOTE 2.—*Whose*, properly the possessive of *who*, is often used, especially in poetry, as the possessive of *which*, the latter having no possessive of its own.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

That undiscovered country
From *whose* bourne no traveller returns.—*Shakspeare*.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—The relative *that* is used instead of *who* or *which* in the following constructions :—

1. *That* is used when there are two antecedents, one denoting persons, the other animals or things ; as,

The *man* and the *dog that* we saw.

2. The relative *that* is used to introduce clauses intended to *restrict* the meaning of the noun immediately preceding.

NOTE 1.—Explanatory clauses are introduced by *who* or *which*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. 'A spirit more amiable but less vigorous than Luther's, would have shrunk back from the dangers *that* he braved and surmounted.'

EXPLANATION.—The relative 'that' is correctly used to introduce the clause 'he braved and surmounted,' because it is not dangers *in general* that are spoken of, but the particular dangers 'that he braved and surmounted.'

2. Words, which are signs of ideas, may be divided into nine Parts of Speech.

EXPLANATION.—Compare this with the first sentence. You will see that in the second sentence the relative is not restrictive, but *explanatory*. The sentence means 'all words (*and these are signs of ideas*) may be divided,' etc. The sentence is therefore correct.

3. All words *which* are the signs of complex ideas furnish matter of mistake.—*Murray's Grammar*.

EXPLANATION.—It is not intended in this sentence to say all words 'furnish matter of mistake,' but only such words as are 'signs of complex ideas.' The clause, 'which are signs of complex ideas,' restricts or limits the meaning of 'all words,' and hence the relative *that* should be used.

4. Age, that lessens the enjoyment of life, increases our desire of living.—*Goldsmith*.

EXPLANATION.—Here *that* is incorrectly used instead of *which*: the clause 'that lessens the enjoyment of life' is not restrictive, but is *explanatory*; hence 'age, *which* lessens,' etc.

5. And do you now strew flowers in *his* way,
That comes in triumph over Pompey's blood?

Shakspeare.

Substitute *who* for *that*.

NOTE 2.—Restrictive clauses introduced by *that* often follow adjectives in the *Superlative* degree; also, *that* is used after the adjectives *same*, *all*, *any*, *some*, and after the interrogative *who*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

- (1) This is the *best* book *that* I know of (clause restrictive of *superlative* degree).
(2) This is the *same* book *that* I bought (restrictive clause following the adjective *same*).

(3) *All that* he has ; *Any man that* says so ; *Some people that* were there (clauses restrictive after the adjectives *all, any, some*).

3. The relative *that* is often used instead of *who* or *which* for the sake of euphony and effect.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. He is the stranger of *whom* you told me = He is the stranger *that* you told me of.

2. The musquito is good for nothing *that I know of*.

This is much less pompous than, The musquito is good for nothing of *which* I know.

259. When the relative *that* is governed by a preposition, the preposition is placed after the relative ; as, The boat *that* I went up the river *in* was sunk.

260. The prepositions governing *whom* and *which* may also be placed at the end of the clause, but modern usage prefers placing them immediately before the relatives.

ILLUSTRATION. — Thus it is deemed more elegant to say ‘The steamer *in which* I went up the river,’ than ‘The steamer *which* I went up the river *in*.’

261. When the pronoun *which* has been used to introduce one relative clause, *that* should not be used to introduce another clause of the same kind in the same sentence.

ILLUSTRATION.

It is remarkable that Holland, against *which* the war was undertaken, and *that*, in the very beginning, was reduced to the brink of destruction, lost nothing.

EXPLANATION.—Here the relative *which* in the first clause should not have been changed for *that* in the second clause.

Exercise 46.

Change the relatives in the following :

1. The subject, *of which* I had occasion to speak, is a most important one. 2. He sold me the house of which you have heard. 3. It is the strangest story of which I ever heard. 4. There was nothing upon which a beetle could have lunched.

'As'—a Relative.

262. The word *as* is used as a relative when the antecedent is limited by *such*, *some*, and *so much*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I wish all men in the world did heartily believe *so much* of this *as* is true.—*Jeremy Taylor*.

2. Avoid *such* companions *as* those are.

3. We are *such* stuff *as* dreams are made of.—*Shakspeare*.

Here *as* is a relative governed by the preposition *of* at the end of the clause.

Ellipsis of the Relative.

263. In conversational style the relative is often omitted.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. The family I lived with has removed. Here the relative *that* is understood.

2. I have sent you everything [that] you ordered.

3. He can not tell all [that] he knows.

4. I have no money [that is] worth talking about.

5. Men must reap the things [that] they sow.—*Shelley*.

6. There is a willow [that] grows askant the bank.—*Shakspeare*.
7. I may do that [which] I shall be sorry *for*.—*Shakspeare*.
8. I am monarch of all [that] I survey.—*Cowper*.
9. In this 'tis God [who] directs, in that 'tis man —*Pope*.
10. [He] who steals my purse, steals trash.—*Shakspeare*.

Important General Caution.

264. When the use of a pronoun would cause the slightest ambiguity or obscurity in the sense, the noun itself should be repeated.

NOTE.—The best modern writers pay no attention to the old maxim against repeating a word. Everything must give way to perspicuity.

ILLUSTRATION.

He [Philip] wrote to that distinguished philosopher [Aristotle] in terms the most polite and flattering, begging of *him* [Aristotle] to undertake *his* [Alexander's] education, and to bestow upon *him* [Alexander] those useful lessons which *his* [Philip's] numerous avocations would not allow *him* [Philip] to bestow.—*Goldsmith*.

EXPLANATION.—The sentence may be corrected thus: '*Philip* wrote to *Aristotle* in terms the most polite and flattering, begging of *that distinguished philosopher* to undertake *Alexander's* education, and to bestow upon *him* those useful lessons that *his own* numerous avocations would not allow *him* to bestow.

Misused Relatives.

265. The following sentence illustrates an incorrect use of the relative.

1. Be diligent ; without *which* you can never succeed.

EXPLANATION.—In this sentence the only antecedent that the relative *which* can refer to is the adjective 'diligent'; but from its very nature a relative can represent only a *noun*, or some expression equivalent to a noun. Use, in place of the relative, an abstract noun expressing the quality implied in the adjective. Or substitute *otherwise* for '*without which*.' The sentence corrected stands thus: 'Be diligent; for without *diligence* you cannot succeed.'

Syntax of the Adjective.

RULE XI.—Adjectives modify or limit nouns and pronouns.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Wise men; ten boys; this horse.

266. The adjective has two uses. It may be closely attached to the noun; or it may be connected with the noun by means of some intransitive verb, as *be*, *seem*, *look*, of which it forms the complement. In the first case, the connection between the attribute denoted by the adjective and the thing denoted by the noun, is assumed, and the adjective is said to be used *attributively*. In the second case, this connection is asserted, and the adjective is said to be used *predicatively*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. O tenderly the *haughty* day fills his *blue* urn with fire.
2. The consul's brow was *sad*.
3. The rose smells *sweet*.

The adjectives 'haughty' and 'blue' are here used attributively; 'sad' and 'sweet' are used predicatively.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Haughty.—An adjective, qualitative, positive, modifies 'day,' according to Rule XI.

Sweet.—An adjective, qualitative, positive, used predicatively, completing the verb 'smells,' and modifying the noun 'rose,' according to Rule XI.

Exercise 47.

Parse the ADJECTIVES.

Around the fire on a wintry night
 The farmer's rosy children sat.
 The stately homes of England,
 How beautiful they stand.
 My offence is rank.
 His hair is crisp, and black, and long.
 We were never folks so glad.
 Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger,
 Comes dancing from the East.
 Cloves smell aromatic.

SPECIAL RULE I.—When two objects are compared the adjective is used in the comparative degree; when more than two, in the superlative.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Ontario and Quebec are large provinces; but Quebec is the larger of the two.
2. British Columbia is the largest of the seven provinces.

NOTE 1.—When a person or a thing is compared with others belonging to the same class, the adjective in the comparative degree must be followed by some phrase that will exclude the thing compared; such as, 'than any other,' 'than all other.'

ILLUSTRATION.

Bismarck is greater than any German statesman.

EXPLANATION.—This would be incorrect, because, as Bismarck is himself a German statesman, the sentence would affirm that he is greater than himself. It should read,

‘Bismarck is greater than any *other* [or than all other] German statesmen.’

The phrase *than any other* excludes Bismarck from the class with which he is compared. We can properly say, Bismarck is greater than any Chinese statesman, because Bismarck, being a German, does not belong to the class of Chinese statesmen.

NOTE 2.—Avoid such errors as, “He read the two first stanzas of the hymn.” Say “the first two,” (that is the *first* and *second*). In speaking of two sets of objects we might say, “the two first,” to designate the *first of each* series.

Special Adjectives.

This and That.—The demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* must be used only with singular nouns; *these* and *those* with plural nouns.

NOTE.—Never use the personal pronoun *them* for the adjective *those*; ‘*them* books’ for ‘*those* books.’

Either and Neither.—*Either* and *neither* properly apply to *one of two* objects—not more than two.

Would it be correct to say ‘John, James, and Henry are faithful boys? *either* lad will carry the message?’

Such.—The adjective *such* is often improperly used for the adverb ‘so.’

‘She is *such* an extravagant woman’ should be ‘she is *so* extravagant a woman.’

EXPLANATION.—*Such* denotes *kind*; *so* refers to *degree*, which is the idea to be expressed.

Like.—The adjective *like* is sometimes improperly used for *as*. Victory must end in possession *like* toil in sleep.—*Gladstone*. This should be, 'Victory must end in possession, *as* (does) toil in sleep.'

The Articles.

A or *An* and *The*.

SPECIAL RULE.—The article should be repeated before each of a series of nouns representing different things, but not before each of several nouns denoting the same thing.

REMARK.—The article is repeated before a series of adjectives describing different things ; but it is not repeated when the adjectives describe the same thing.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. An Act of Parliament requires the assent of *the* Queen, *the* Lords, and *the* Commons.
2. He was the founder and patron of the institution.
3. I dislike the long, rambling, and obscure sentences of that author.
4. We saw a red, white, and blue flag.

EXPLANATION.—This means, we saw one flag having the three colors, red, white, and blue.

5. We saw a red, a white, and a blue flag.

EXPLANATION.—This means that we saw three different flags.

6. Both a noun and pronoun may be the subject of a verb. Either a noun or pronoun is the subject of a verb.

EXPLANATION.—These sentences are incorrect. The article should be inserted in each instance before the second of the two nouns joined in construction: Both a noun and a pronoun; Either a noun or a pronoun. The principle in such cases is, **that when there is a close connection between two nouns, indicated by the correlative either—or, neither—nor, both—and, the article must be repeated.** The same principle applies when the introducing correlative *both, either, neither, is understood.*

7. A man, woman, and infant were riding in the cars.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence is incorrect. The article *a* may be understood before the second noun, *woman*, but when we come to supply it before the third (*a* infant) it is not in the proper form.

8. An adjective or participle must belong to some noun or pronoun.

EXPLANATION.—Supplying the ellipsis, we have 'An adjective and *an* participle.' It should be 'An adjective or *a* participle.' A simple way of avoiding the difficulty as to the use of the article is to use the plural form of the nouns, and to employ *and* in place of *or*. Thus, 'Adjectives *and* participles must belong to some noun or pronoun.'

9. The variation, or deviation of the compass was first observed by Columbus.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence is strictly correct. 'Deviation' is used to explain 'variation,' and is synonymous with it, and hence it is not necessary to *repeat* the article. When the conjunction *or* connects two nouns, the second of which is only explanatory of the first, the article must not be repeated.

NOTE.—Mr. Moon (*Bad English*, p. 31) takes Lindley Murray to task for using the expression 'an oration or discourse.' Moon's objection is that if the ellipsis were supplied the expression would read 'An oration or [an] discourse.' But there is really no ellipsis to be supplied, since, in accordance with the above principle, the article is *not* to be repeated, the second noun being explanatory of the first.

¶ When two nouns are thus connected in an explanatory way, a comma should be placed after the first.

10. He is a better statesman than soldier.

EXPLANATION.—In sentences like this—sentences in which the two nouns denote the same person, the article is not repeated before the noun following *than* or *as*. Repeating the article before soldier will entirely change the meaning of the sentence. ‘A lawyer may be as good a man as a clergyman.’ Here the article is repeated because the comparison is made between two *different* persons.

EXCEPTIONS.—It is not necessary to repeat the article when no ambiguity would result from its omission, as, “We saw the King and Queen.”

On the other hand, infractions of the strict rule are sometimes allowable in the repetition of the article, as, “He rose a sadder and a wiser man.”

Exercise 48.

Correct the Mistakes in the use of the ARTICLE.

1. The importance of obtaining in early life a good education and ample stock of ideas.
2. The oral or written forms of a language.
3. An adjective in the comparative or superlative degree must precede an adjective modified by more or most.
4. The dash is mostly used to denote an unexpected or emphatic pause of variable length.
5. No figures will render a cold or empty composition interesting.—*Blair*.
6. When an adverb qualifies an adjective, participle, or infinitive, it is generally placed before it.
7. The object of a transitive verb is a noun or a pronoun which denotes the person or thing that the agent or doer acts upon or controls.

8. A noun or pronoun, used as the predicate of a proposition, is in the nominative case.
9. Specifying adjectives should be so used as clearly to signify the real intention of the speaker or writer.
10. An adjective or participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs.
11. And since it is not always easy to make a new or acceptable proper name, etc.
12. The liberty of capitalizing is carried to a great and almost indefinite extent.

Syntax of the Adverb.

RULE XII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Speak *clearly*, if you speak at all.
2. Sweet day, *so* cool, *so* bright!
3. *How* sweetly does the moonbeam smile!

NOTE 1.—An adverb sometimes modifies a whole sentence, as, "Unfortunately, the old lines of the streets had to a great extent been preserved."

NOTE 2.—Sometimes an adverb seems to be independent, but there is generally an ellipsis, which, if supplied, will show some word that the adverb may modify. EXAMPLE: 'There is none that is righteous. No, [there is] not one.' 'Do you like poetry? [I like *it*] very much.'

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Clearly...An adverb of manner, modifying "speak," according to Rule XII.

So.....An adverb, degree, modifying "cool," according to Rule XII.

How....An adverb, degree, modifying "sweetly," according to Rule XII.

NOTE 2.—Connective adverbs join clauses ; as, We watched *while* he slept.

Exercise 49.

Parse the following ADVERBS.

1. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
2. And now a bubble bursts, and now a world
3. For them no more the blazing hearth shall burn.
4. The enemy was completely in my power.
5. Nothing is too gross or too refined, too cruel or too trifling, to be practised.

PRACTICAL SYNTAX OF THE ADVERB.

267. Adverbs and adverbial phrases should be so placed with reference to the words they are intended to modify as to bring out the meaning clearly, and to round the sentence agreeably. Hence the following—

GENERAL RULE OF POSITION.—**An adverb should be placed in close proximity to the word that it modifies.**

The adverb is usually placed *before* adjectives and other adverbs, and *after* verbs.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The weather is *intensely* cold.

She speaks *very distinctly*.

The horse ran *swiftly*.

NOTE 1.—**The adverb is frequently placed between the auxiliary and the principal verb ; as,**

The sea was *gradually* gaining on the buildings.

NOTE 2.—**Adverbs are often made more emphatic by placing them before the verb ; as :—**

Slowly and *sadly* we laid him down.

¶ The proper placing of adverbs is a matter of nice taste and of keen judgment. The art will best be learned, not by studying rules that are subject to numberless exceptions, but by dealing with actual examples.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. We can not deprive them of merit *wholly*.

EXPLANATION.—The adverb 'wholly' is inelegantly placed. It is meant to relate to the verb 'deprive,' and the intervention of the words 'them of merit' between the adverb and the verb obscures the relation. It should be, We can not *wholly* deprive them of merit.

2. I hope *not much* to tire those I shall not happen to please.—*Dr. Johnson*.

EXPLANATION.—Doctor Johnson did not mean to say that he did not *much hope* to tire, but that he hoped not to tire *much*. The sentence should be constructed in this manner: 'I hope I shall not *much* tire those whom I shall [or may] not happen to please.'

3. This mode of expression *rather* suits familiar than grave style.—*Murray's Grammar*.

EXPLANATION.—As the comparison is not intended to be between *suiting* and *not suiting*, but between *suiting one kind of style* (namely, 'a familiar) in preference to *another*, the adverb of comparison should be placed, not before the verb 'suit,' which it is not meant to qualify, but before the adjective 'familiar,' to which it is intended to relate. Making this alteration, the sentence becomes, 'This mode of expression suits *rather* familiar than grave style.' But the sentence is still faulty. A particular kind of style, and not style in general, is spoken of; hence the indefinite article should be used. Fully corrected, the sentence reads, 'This mode of expression suits *rather* a familiar than a grave style.'

4. The colon may be *properly* applied in the following cases.—*Murray's Grammar*.

EXPLANATION.—The writer did not mean that the colon may be applied in a *proper manner*, but that it *is proper* to apply the colon; hence it should be, 'may *properly* be applied,' etc.

5. It is a frequent and capital error in the writings *even* of some distinguished authors.—*Murray's Grammar.*

EXPLANATION.—The position of 'even' confuses the sense by suggesting a qualification of 'writings.' 'Even' should be carried to the other side of the preposition; the sentence will then read thus: 'in the writings of *even* some distinguished authors.'

6. A master-mind was *equally* wanting in the cabinet and in the field.

EXPLANATION.—This should be, 'Was wanting *equally* in the cabinet,' etc. Take notice that in this example, as in Illustration 3, the adverb has a *mixed reference*. 'Equally' modifies *wanting*, but it has reference also to the phrase 'in the cabinet and in the field.' The principle in such cases is, **that the adverb should be placed between the two words or expressions to which it has reference.**

7. I have been disappointed *greatly* at your conduct.

EXPLANATION.—Here the adverb *greatly* is not correctly placed. The sentence should read thus: 'I have been *greatly* disappointed,' etc.

8. He used to *often* come.

I wished to *really* know.

EXPLANATION.—With the infinite simple tense, the adverb must never separate the sign *to* from the verb; it must either precede or it must follow the *whole* infinitive form. Thus, 'He used *often* to come,' or 'to come *often*.' 'I wished *really* to know,' or 'to know *really*.' With the infinitive compound tenses, of course, the same rule applies as in other compound tenses. We say, 'It is believed to have *often* happened;' 'He is thought to be *well* informed on that subject.' In these examples the preposition *to* is not severed from its infinitive.

268. The varieties of position and of reference in the adverb are seen in the following examples:—

1. *Sometimes she sings.. (at other times she reads).*
2. *She sometimes sings.. (at other times he sings).*
3. *She sings sometimes.. (but not frequently).*

Only.

269. The most troublesome of all our English adverbs is the word 'only.'

According to the position of '*only*,' the very same word may be made to express several very different meanings. The following examples will illustrate this :

1. '*Only* he mourned for his brother.' *Only* here expresses an antithetical relation equivalent to 'but.' He was generally a cold-hearted man, *only* (*but*, as an exception to his general character) he mourned for his brother.
2. 'He-*only* (alone) mourned for his brother.' No one else mourned for him.
3. 'He *only*-mourned for his brother.' He did nothing else.
4. 'He mourned *only* for his brother.' And for no other reason.
5. 'He mourned for his *only* brother.' His *single* brother ; *only*, an adjective.
6. 'He mourned for his brother *only*' (alone)—and for no one else.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. A term which *only* implies the idea of persons.

EXPLANATION.—The force of exclusion possessed by '*only*' is not meant to apply to the word 'implies,' but to the word 'persons.' It should be 'which implies the idea of persons *only*.'

2. I can *only* regard them as Scotticisms.—*Dean Alford*.

EXPLANATION.—The force of exclusion in the word '*only*' is not meant to apply to the verb 'regard,' but to the noun

'Scotticisms.' The sentence should be, 'I can regard them *only* as Scotticisms.'

3. When the article stands *only* before the first of two or more connected nouns.

EXPLANATION.—This should be, 'When the article stands before *only* the first,' etc.

4. The negroes are to appear at church *only* in boots.

EXPLANATION.—This means that when the negroes go to church they are to have no clothing but boots.

The negroes are to appear *only* at church in boots.

This might mean that they are not to appear any where but at church, whether in boots or out of them. The proper arrangement would be to connect 'in boots' with its verb 'appear,' and make 'only' qualify 'at church,' and no more. Thus, 'The negroes are to appear in boots *only* at church.'

Not Only.

270. The same difficulty is met with in the use of 'not only.' The following sentences will serve as illustrations :

1. By greatness I *not only* mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of the whole view.

This should read, 'By greatness I mean *not only* the bulk,' etc.

2. Thales was *not only* famous for his knowledge of nature, *but* for his moral wisdom.—*Enfield*.

This sentence should read, 'Thales was famous *not only* for his knowledge of nature, *but also* for his moral wisdom.'

Alone.

271. *Alone*, when used adverbially, should be placed immediately after the verb that it modifies. As, *The teacher was sitting alone* in the school-room.

EXPLANATION.—In this sentence the meaning is, 'The teacher was sitting *by himself* in the school-room.' If we said 'the teacher *alone* was sitting in the school-room,' we should convey the idea that *nobody else* was sitting in the school-room. Here 'alone' is an adjective limiting 'teacher.' It would be better to say 'only the teacher,' etc.

Some Misused Adverbs.

272. **Where**.. This Relative Adverb must not be used in introducing clauses unless the reference is to *literal place*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Franklin lived in Philadelphia, *where* the Declaration of Independence was signed.

EXPLANATION.—This is correct; but we can not properly say, 'The Americans addressed the king in a petition *where* they asked for the liberties of British subjects.' Here 'in a petition' does not denote *literal place*, but merely *place* figuratively, and in all such cases the relative phrase '*in which*' must be used.

2. The only sentence which I can call to mind *where* the words 'so—as' are proper when speaking affirmatively, are those in which the last of the said words precedes a verb in the Infinitive Mood.—*Moon's Bad English*, p. 139.

Mr. Moon, though a discriminating critic, is guilty of 'bad English' in this sentence. Any scholar can see that the reference made by the relative adverb *where* is to the noun 'sentence,' and, therefore, that the clause should be introduced by *in which*. Thus 'The only sentences which [better *that*] I can call to mind *in which* the words,' etc.

273. **How**... This Relative Adverb must not be used in introducing clauses unless the reference is to *literal manner*. Hence it can relate only to a verb, and can not relate to a noun.

ILLUSTRATION.

I do not know *how* it may be done.

EXPLANATION.—This is correct ; but we can not properly say, I know of no rule *how* it may be done. In all such cases, *which*, with its appropriate preposition, must be used : I know of no rule *by which* it may be done.

There is another misuse of *how* illustrated by the following sentence : He said *how* he intended to buy a horse. Here it is plain that the the proper connective is the conjunction *that*. 'How that' and 'as how' are often wrongly used instead of *that*.

274. **When...** This Adverb cannot refer to a specific noun ; it relates only to phrases, to clauses, or to statements.

ILLUSTRATION.

The time is approaching [statement] *when* we shall be free.

EXPLANATION.—This is correct ; but we cannot properly say 'The hour *when* we shall be free is approaching,' because in the latter form the reference is to the specific noun 'hour.' In all such cases, *which*, with its appropriate preposition, must be used.

275. **Whence—hence—thence...** The preposition *from* is frequently used before these adverbs, but this use is redundant, as *direction from* is implied in the adverbs themselves ; *whence* being equal to *from where* ; *hence* = *from here* ; *thence* = *from there*.

276. **So...** A common misuse of this adverb is illustrated by the following sentence : I will answer his letter *so* soon as I receive it.

EXPLANATION.—The proper use of *so* is to introduce a comparison of inequality. We say 'John is not *so* brave as James.' To introduce a comparison of *equality*, we use *as*. Thus, John is *as* strong *as* James. The sentence above should read, I will answer his letter *as* soon *as* I receive it.

277. Intransitive verbs cannot take adverbs as their complement; the complement of quality must belong to the subject, and consequently must be an adjective.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

The rose smells *sweet*.

Mary looks *cold*.

278. Would you say 'the velvet feels *smooth*?' or 'feels *smoothly*?'

Would you say 'gutturals sound *harshly*?' or 'sound *harsh*?'

Would you say 'the dog smells *disagreeably*?' or 'smells *disagreeable*?'

Would you say 'she looks *finely*?' or 'looks *fine*?'

EXPLANATION.—We say, 'Mary looks cold' [she is cold], because what we wish is, not to mark the *manner* of looking, but to denote a *quality* of Mary. If we change the intransitive verb into a transitive verb by the addition of a preposition, and say, 'Mary looks *on* John *coldly*,' the expression is correct, because, in this instance we wish to denote the *manner of her looking-on*, and not a quality of Mary.

Double Negatives.

279. Two negatives must not be used when a negative statement is intended.

Two negatives are equal to an affirmative.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I have *not* done *nothing*.

This means 'I have done *something*.' If you mean a negative, say 'I have done *nothing*,' or 'I have not done *any thing*.'

2. He has eaten no bread *nor* drunk *no* water these two days.

EXPLANATION. —The negative in *nor* (=not or), together with the word *no* before *water*, makes a double negative. Correct thus: He has eaten no bread *and* he has drunk no water; or, He has neither eaten *any* bread *nor* has he drunk *any* water, etc.

280. But double negatives are elegantly used to express an affirmative, thus: "*Nor* did they *not* perceive the evil plight in which they were, or the fierce pains *not* feel." In place of saying, I am somewhat acquainted with his virtues, the sentence might be turned thus: I am *not un*-acquainted with his virtues.

The principal negative prefixes are *un*, *dis*, and *in* (with its various forms *il*, *ig*, *im*, *ir*, etc.)

Distribution of Adverbs.

281. When a sentence contains a number of adverbs and of adverbial phrases, they should be appropriately distributed in the sentence.

ILLUSTRATION.

Cromwell called a council of his chief officers *secretly*,

at Windsor, at the suggestion of Ireton, to deliberate concerning the settlement of the nation.

EXPLANATION.—Here the adverbs and adverbial phrases are crowded together in the centre. They should be distributed thus : *At the suggestion of Ireton, Cromwell secretly called a council of his chief officers at Windsor to deliberate concerning the settlement of the nation.*

Exercise 50.

In the following sentences, see in how many different positions you can place the ADVERBS, and tell what difference the change of position will make in the meaning of each sentence.

1. We used to see them very frequently.
2. Sometimes he returns home very late.
3. We may probably go there to-morrow.
4. The winter is past ; already the trees and herbs begin to unfold their tender green.
5. At last he opened his mouth and spoke.
6. He resolved immediately to make an apology.
7. I went immediately to his assistance, and never shall I forget the scene.

Syntax of Prepositions.

282. Prepositions express certain relations between things and other things, between things and actions, or between things and attributes.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. James has a *picture of* the *cathedral*.
2. The fox *ran from* the *dog*.
3. The emperor was *eager for* war.

EXPLANATION.—(1). The preposition 'of' marks the relation between the things denoted by *cathedral* and *picture*. (2). 'From' marks the relation of the object *dog* and the action expressed by 'ran.' 'For' marks the relation between the thing denoted by the noun 'war' and the attribute expressed by the adjective 'eager.'

RULE XIII.—Prepositions join the nouns and pronouns which they govern to other nouns, or to verbs, or to adjectives.

Around the rugged rocks the ragged rascal ran.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Around.—A preposition, joining 'rocks' and 'ran,' according to Rule XIII.

Exercise 51.

Parse the PREPOSITIONS.

1. The smiling daisies blow beneath the sun.
2. We crossed the river by a bridge made of ropes.
3. They sat them down upon the yellow sand.
4. We visited the ruins of the great Thebes.
5. How fresh the meadows look above the river.
6. The mocking-bird loses little of its energy by confinement.
7. The deer across their greensward bound.
8. I saw a wearied man dismount from his hot steed.
9. She waited underneath the dawning hills.
10. The noise of battle rolled among the mountains by the winter sea.

Position of Prepositions.

283. The usual position of prepositions (*pre*, before, and *positio*, a placing) is *before* the words they govern.

284. In poetry the preposition frequently follows the word it governs ; as,

The rattling crags *among*.—*Byron*.

285. The preposition should not be separated by an intermediate phrase from the word it governs.

'Appears Lausanne, *with* at its feet *the little village* of Ouchy,' should be 'with the little village,' etc.

286. **When** *either* is followed by *or*, *neither* by *nor* or *both* by *and*, a preposition coming after the first of the pair must be repeated after the second.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Mary is neither *in* the house nor *in* the garden.
2. This, in philosophical writing, has a disagreeable effect, both *upon* the memory and *upon* the understanding of the reader.
3. The choice of prefixes or suffixes is determined not so much by their meaning, but, etc.

EXPLANATION.—Better, The choice of prefixes or of suffixes, etc. ; because, when the correlative *both*, *either*, or *neither*, is plainly *implied*, the principle given above holds good.

That is applied to persons as well as [*to*] things.

EXPLANATION.—The preposition used before the first of two nouns joined by the connective *as well as*, should be used before the second also.

Between and Among.

287. *Between* literally signifies *by twain*, that is, by twos. Hence it can not apply to more than two. We may say, Mother divided the apple between *sister* and

me, but not between *John, James, and Martha*. The preposition *among* or *amongst* is used to denote distribution applied to more than two. The booty was divided *among* the forty thieves.

Rhetoric of Prepositions.

288. A statement is sometimes made effective by repeating the preposition before each word of a series, Thus, I will buy *with* you, sell *with* you, talk *with* you, walk *with* you; but I will not eat *with* you, drink *with* you, nor pray *with* you.—*Shakspeare*.

Appropriate Prepositions.

289. There are many words that can be followed by but one preposition; there are other words that admit different prepositions, the sense greatly varying with each.

Care should be taken to select the preposition exactly adapted to express the relation intended.

1. Making sense of *itself*.—*Murray's Grammar*.
Should be *by itself*.
2. In respect of time.—*Murray*. Should be *With respect to* time.
3. When I was deliberating *of* what new qualifications I should aspire, should be, When I was deliberating *with regard to* what new, etc.

Ask *for*.—If he *ask for* bread, will he give him a stone?—*Bible*.

Ask *from*.—We *ask* not such *from* thee.—*Hemans*.

Ask *of*.—But *of* the never-dying soul *ask* things that cannot die.

Averse from.—Because my nature was *averse* from life.—
Byron.

Averse to.—*Averse* to all innovation.

Call at (a house).—He ordered him to *call at* his house.—
Temple.

Call back (retract).—Will not *call back* his words.—*Bible.*

Call for (demand, claim).—His majesty doth *call for* you.—
Shakspeare.

Call in (invite).—*Call in* the powers, good cousin.—*Shakspeare.*

Call upon (pray).—*Call upon* me in the day of trouble.—*Bible.*

Compare to (as illustration).—He *compared* reason to the sun,
and fancy to a meteor.—*Johnson.*

Compare with (in quality).—*Compare* their condition with his
own.

Concur in (opinion).—As if all my executors had *concurred in*
the same.—*Swift.*

Concur with (a person).—It is not evil simply to *concur with*
the heathens.—*Hooker.*

Consist in (contain).—It *consists in* such a resemblance and
congruity, etc.—*Addison.*

Consist of (made of).—The land would *consist of* plains and
valleys.—*Burnett.*

Consist with (agree).—Health *consists with* temperance alone.—
Pope.

Contend against (an obstacle).—*Contend against* thy valor.—
Shakspeare.

Contend with (a person).—Neither *contend with* them.—*Bible.*

Copy after (an example).—Several seemed to have *copied*
after it.

Copy from (as a painter).—A painter copies *from* the life.—
Dryden.

Defend (others) *from*.—He *defends* them *from* danger.

Defend (ourselves) *against*.—The queen is able to *defend* herself *against* all her enemies.—*Swift*.

Die *of* (disease).—She *died of* scarlet fever.

Differ *from* (in quality).—Nor how the hero *differs from* the brute.

Differ *with* (in opinion).—Those who *differ with* you in their sentiments.—*Addison*.

Disappointed *in* (what is had).—He was *disappointed in* his friend.

Disappointed *of* (what is not had).—Than to be *disappointed of* what we have only the expectation.—*Adam Smith*.

Divide *amongst* or *among* (three or more).—*Divide it amongst* the men.

Divide *between* (two).—It was *divided between* her heart and lips.

Exception *from* (a rule or law).

Exception *to* (rule or law).—That proud *exception to* all nature's laws.—*Pope*.

Indulge *in* (habitual).—We *indulge ourselves in* the gratifications, etc.—*Atterbury*.

Indulge *with* (occasional).

Lean *against* (a wall).—*Leaning against* a pillar.—*Peacham*.

Lean *on* (a staff).—I *lean* no more *on* superhuman aid.—*Byron*.

Lean *to* (an opinion).—*Leaning to* either side.—*Watts*.

Lean *to* (bias).—*Leaned to* virtue's side.—*Goldsmith*.

Listen *for* (expected sound).—He *listened for* the traveller's tread.

Listen *to* (present sound).—*Listen to* the noise.—*Dennis*.

Live at a small town ; live in London ; live in France. My father lived at Blenheim then.—Southey.

Live at.—Who *live at* home at ease.—*Dorset.*

Live in (state).—He *lived* and died *in* poverty.

Live upon (food).—They *live upon* other animals.—*Arbuthnot.*

Live up to (rules).—*Live up to* the dictates of reason.—*Addison.*

Live with (a person).—Then *live with* me.—*Shakspeare.*

Look at (to regard).—As if it *looked at* something.—*Sterne.*

Look for (what is lost or expected).—*Looked for* death with the same expectation as *for* victory.—*Southey.*

Look on (see).—I'll be candle-holder, and *look on.*—*Shakspeare.*

Look to (guard).—*Look well to* thy herds.—*Bible.*

Look upon.—*Look not upon* me thus reproachfully.—*Byron.*

Look up to (heaven).—Let us *look up to* God.—*Bacon.*

Prevail on
Prevail upon } (persuade).—*Prevail upon* some judicious friend.
Prevail with } —*Swift.*

Sink beneath (a sword).—Worlds must *sink beneath* the stroke.

Sink down (penetrate, faint).

Sink into (into the sea or earth).—He *sinks into* thy depths.—*Byron.*

Sink under (a burden).—A nation *sinking under* its debts.—*Junius.*

Sink upon (ground, bosom).—He *sank upon* my breast.—*Hemans.*

Start at (dreadful sight).—He *starts at* sin.—*Dryden.*

Start from (a place).—Shall *start from* every wave.—*Campbell.*

Start *with* (a companion).

Start *up* (spring).—*Start up* from the dead.—*Pope*.

Strive *against* } a person or } Private pity *strove with* public
Strive *with* } obstacle. } hate.—*Denham*.

Strive *for* (an object).—Pretenders *oft for* empire *strive*.—*Dryden*.

Struggle *for* (an object)

Struggle *with* (a person).

Taste *for* (inclination).—A *taste for* wit and sense.—*Swift*.

Taste *of* (morsel, flavor.) The *taste of* it was like wafers.

Weary *in*:—*Weary in* well-doing.

Weary *of* (task, duty).—Society grown *weary of* the load.—*Cowper*.

Weary *with*.—Not to be *weary with* you.—*Shakspeare*.

Wait *at* (table).—Made him *wait at* table.—*Swift*.

Wait *for* (an expectation).—And *waited for* his prey.—*Southey*.

Wait *on* (a person).—I will *wait on* him.—*Shakspeare*.

Syntax of the Conjunction.

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, and clauses.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. With many a weary step *and* many a groan,
Up the high hill he heaves a huge round stone.

Here 'and' connects the phrases—*with many a weary step* and *many a groan*.

2. Few *and* short were the prayers we said, *and* we spoke not a word of sorrow.

'And' in the first line connects *few* and *short*; in the second line it connects the clause of the first line with that of the second.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

And.—A conjunction, co-ordinative, connecting the words 'few' and 'short,' according to Rule XIV.

290. In parsing correlative conjunctions, as *both*, *and*, *neither*, *nor*, say that the first serves to introduce the second.

Exercise 52.

Parse the CONJUNCTIONS.

1. He has some money, but you have none.
2. 'Twas noon,
And Helon knelt beside a stagnant pool
In the lone wilderness.
3. The trees have lost their foliage because autumn has come.
4. Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull.
5. The boy breathes so very hard that we find it impossible to sit.
6. Neither the horse nor the carriage was injured.

PRACTICAL SYNTAX OF THE CONJUNCTION.

NOTE.—The Syntax of Conjunctions has been treated incidentally in connection with other parts of speech. Conjunctions have very little syntax of their own. They indeed exercise an important influence over *words associated with the words that they conjoin*; but this influence has already been considered under the Verb, the Adjective, etc. The following are the principal points relating to conjunctions themselves:

And, or Or.

291. The Copulative *and* is sometimes wrongly used in place of the Disjunctive *or*. Also, *or* is often misused for *and*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. It is obvious that a language like the Greek *and* Latin, etc.

EXPLANATION.—Here the fit conjunction is 'or.' Moreover, the definite article should be repeated with the second noun. The expression correctly written stands thus: It is obvious that a language like the Greek or the Latin, etc.

2. A perfect Alphabet of the English language, *and*, indeed, of *every other language*, would contain a number of letters precisely equal to the number of single articulate words belonging to the language.—*Murray's Grammar*.

EXPLANATION.—The same error is found here. The author should have written, A perfect alphabet of the English language, *or*, indeed, of *any other language*, would, etc.

3. Adjectives relate to nouns *or* pronouns.

EXPLANATION.—The conjunction *and* would here better serve to make the connection intended: 'Relate to nouns *and* to pronouns.'

Or—its double use.

292. The conjunction *or* has two uses: its use in joining two parts of an alternative, and its use in uniting synonyms.

ILLUSTRATION.

Christ or John the Baptist=Christ, or (what is another person) John the Baptist; Christ, or the Messiah=Christ, or (what is the same person) the Messiah.

In the language of law, the latter use of *or* is expressed by *alias* (literally, *at another time*); as, Heenan *alias* the Benicia Boy.

Not—or and Not—nor.

293. When, of two members that are disjoined, the first is a negative, the contrast may be made either by *or* or by *nor*. Thus, The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous, *nor* [or *or*] decisive, assented to the measure.—*Hume*. The *nor* is more emphatic, as it repeats the negative of the first term.

So—that.

294. In constructions requiring *that* as the correlative of *so*, the relative pronoun *who* should not be used in place of the conjunctions 'that' or 'as.'

ILLUSTRATION.

At Bunker Hill there was no one *so* sanguine but *who* feared defeat.

EXPLANATION.—'Who' can not fill the office of a correlative to 'so.' Either 'that' or 'so' should be employed. Thus, 'There was no one *so* sanguine *that* he did not fear defeat,' or, 'no one *so* sanguine *as* not to fear defeat.'

Doubt,—but, or that.

295. The verb *doubt* is followed by either *that* or *but*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I can not doubt *that* I have contributed something to the general literature of my country.
—*Hallam*.
2. It is not doubted *but* the bishops were constituent members of this council.—*Hume*.

CAUTION.—Be careful not to follow 'doubt' by *but that* or *but what*.

As—as ; So—as.

296. 'As—as' is used in affirmative comparison ; 'so—as' in negative comparison. EXAMPLE ; Mine is *as* good *as* yours ; but his is not *so* good *as* either.

And—and ; No—nor.

297. In poetry, 'and—and' is often used for 'both—and ;' 'nor—nor' for 'neither—nor.' EXAMPLE : "*And* trump *and* timbrel answered keen."—*Scott*. "I, whom *nor* avarice *nor* pleasure moves."

Neither—nor ; Either—or ; Whether—or.

298. These may be called *alternative conjunctions*. An alternative is a choice between *two*, and *only two*: hence **these conjunctions must not be used to unite more than two terms**. 'Either—or' denotes *one* thing with a choice of *another*; 'neither' means simply *not* either ; 'whether—or' means literally *which of the two—or*. This principle is constantly lost sight of.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. These rules should be kept in mind as aids, either for speaking, composing, or parsing correctly.—*Morrell's Grammar*.

EXPLANATION.—Incorrect. Rectify it by omitting the 'either.'

2. Neither in France, in Spain, in Italy, nor in Germany, is this false and absurd appellation in use.—*Cobbett's Grammar*.

Correct thus : 'This false and absurd appellation is not in use in France, Spain, Italy, or Germany.'

Now.

299. There is a peculiar use of the adverb 'now,' that renders it in certain cases a conjunction. EXAMPLE: He was promised a holiday if he executed his task; *now*, he has done his task; hence he is entitled to the holiday.

Connection of Terms.

300. Any two terms connected by a conjunction should be the same in kind or quality, not different or heterogeneous.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

- 1.—Macaulay wrote the history of England with the two-fold purpose *of clearing* the name of the Whigs from the charges made by Hume, and *to set forth* the real life of the English people.

EXPLANATION.—Notice the two expressions joined by the conjunction 'and.' 'The purpose of clearing the name,' etc., and 'the purpose [understood] *to set forth*,' etc. The two terms are different or heterogeneous—the one being a participial construction, the other an infinitive construction, and accordingly the sentence violates the rule. Correct it thus: The purpose of clearing the name, etc., and *of setting forth* the real life, etc.

2. There are many persons who have the means *of doing good*, but have not the desire *to do good*.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence produces an unpleasant effect, owing to the fact that the two phrases *of doing* and *to do* are not of the same kind, but are heterogeneous. The sentence may be better constructed thus: Many persons have the means of doing good, but have not the desire of doing good; or, better still, Many persons have the means, without the desire, of doing good.

3. I would do *as much or more* work than John.

EXPLANATION.—“As much ” should be followed by *as* ; and “more ” by *than* . Correct by completing the first statement, and making the second elliptical, thus : ‘ I would do *as much* work *as* John, *or* *more* .

Ellipsis of Conjunctions.

301. Some conjunctions are often properly suppressed. Such are :

- 1.—*And* and *or* before all but the last of several words, phrases, or clauses of the same kind in a series, and in the elevated style of writing, even before the last. EXAMPLE : Science has now left her retreats, [and] her shades, [and] her selected company of votaries.
2. *Either* before *or*, and *neither* before *nor*. EXAMPLE : None of them [either] returned his gaze, or seemed to notice it.—*Dickens*.
3. *That* when the connecting word between the principal member and the dependent proposition of a sentence. EXAMPLE : But Brutus says [that] he was ambitious.—*Shaks¹ re*. “ You’re sure [that] you did not, sir,” said Mr. Winkle.—*Dickens*.
4. *Yet* after *though*. EXAMPLE : Though he fall, [yet] he shall not be utterly cast down.

The Rhetoric of Conjunctions.

302. A rhetorical effect may be produced by omitting conjunctions. In like manner, a rhetorical effect is produced by supplying conjunctions where they would ordinarily be omitted. In each case *it is departure from the common practice* that produces the effect.

ILLUSTRATION—*Conjunction omitted.*

Through many a dark and dreary vale
 They passed, and many a region dolorous ;
 O'er many a frozen, many a fiery Alp,
Rocks, caves, lakes, fens, bogs, dens, and shades of death,
A universe of death.—Milton.

ILLUSTRATION—*Conjunctions in full.*

Seasons return, but not to me returns
 Day, *or* the sweet approach of even *or* morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, *or* summer's rose,
Or flocks, *or* herds, *or* human face divine.—Milton.

Syntax of the Infinitive.

1. PARSING.

RULE XV.—1. The Infinitive mood is governed by the verb, noun, or adjective which it limits.

2. The infinitive is often used as a noun, either as the subject or as the object of a finite verb.

NOTE 1.—The infinitive sometimes modifies a whole sentence.

NOTE 2.—The infinitive, as the object of a transitive verb, should be distinguished from its use as the complement of an intransitive verb. Compare illustrations 1 and 5.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. *I come to bury* Caesar, (infin. limits v. "come.")
2. There is a *time to dance*. (limits noun "time.")
3. The boy was *unable to escape*. (limits adj. "unable.")
4. *To err is* human. (subject of verb "is.")
5. He loves *to travel*. (object of transitive verb "travel.")
6. *To speak plainly*, he was to be blamed, (limits sentence.)

MODEL FOR PARSING.

To bury (1) . . . a verb, transitive, regular, active, infinitive, present, governed by the verb "come," according to Rule XV.

To err (4) . . . A verb, intransitive, regular, infinitive, present, used as a noun, nominative, subject of verb "is" according to Rule XV. and I.

2. PRACTICAL SYNTAX.

SPECIAL RULE.—*To*, the sign of the infinitive is omitted after those words which are used as auxiliaries to form certain moods and tenses; as, *shall, will, may, can, must*.

To is also generally omitted after the verbs *bid, dare, need, make, see, perceive, observe, here, feel, let, and some others*.

The passive voice of these verbs is generally followed by *to*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. *Dar'st* thou, Cassius, now
Leap in with me into this angry flood?

"Leap" is in the infinitive, the sign *to* being omitted after "dar'st."

2. I *saw* the man *enter* the shop.
The man *was seen to enter* the shop.

The infinitive "enter" is without the sign *to* after the active voice "saw"; but the sign is used after passive "was seen."

The infinitive used as a complement to express purpose, is often introduced by *in order*; as,

I turned slowly round, *in order to take* better aim.

For, should not be used before the infinitive. It was common in older English ; as, "What went ye out *for to see*?"

Syntax of Participles and Gerunds.

303. Participles are used with certain auxiliaries to make compound forms of the verb. Thus the present participle is used after the various moods and tenses of *am* in the *progressive form* ; the past participle is used after *have* in the *perfect tenses*, and after the various parts of *am* to form the *passive voice*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I am *striking* (Progressive Form).
2. I have *struck* (Present Perfect).
3. I am *struck* (Passive Voice).

Participles used in these ways are parsed with the auxiliary, according to the form for parsing verbs.

304. Participles used without auxiliaries belong to nouns, which they limit or modify in the same manner as adjectives.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. A Peri, *standing* at heaven's gate, was sad.
2. The wretch, *condemned* with life to part,
Still on hope relies.
3. Charles, having seen me, ran into the house.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Having seen (3) A verb, transitive, irregular, *see*, *saw*, *seen*. Active voice, participle perfect, used as an adjective, modifying "Charles," according to Rule XI.

305. Participles of transitive verbs in the active voice govern the objective case.

The pronoun "me" in sentence (3) is governed by "having seen."

Errors in the use of Participles.

Sailing up the river, the whole *town* may be seen.

EXPLANATION.—This sentence illustrates a common error in the use of the participle introducing a phrase. *Sailing* (a participle construed as an adjective) must belong to some noun; it here belongs to the noun *town*. But it is certainly not intended to say 'the town sailing;' the idea is *we* sailing. The sentence should be, 'Sailing up the river, we may see the whole town.' The rule is, that when a participle introduces a phrase, that participle must describe the subject of the next verb, and the subject of the next verb must be what is intended to *be* described.

306. The past participle should not be used for the past tense, nor the past tense for the past participle.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I *done* my example in arithmetic correctly.
2. I *seen* him when he *done* it.
3. Alice has *went* to school this morning.

EXPLANATION.—"Done" in (1) and (2) should be *did*, as the past tense should here be used, and for the same reason "seen" in (2) should be *saw*, "went" in (3) should be *went*, as the past participle is required after the auxiliaries *have* and *be*.

307. The Gerund is a verbal noun, and has the various uses of the noun.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. *Talking* is easier than *acting*. (Subject of the verb).

2. He contemplated *marrying* Esther. (Object of a transitive verb.)
3. Doubtless the pleasure is as great, *of being cheated*, as to cheat. (In the objective, governed by a preposition.)
4. We do not dance for *dancing's* sake. (In the possessive.)

The use of the Gerund in the possessive case is not common.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

Marrying (2) A verb, transitive, regular, active, gerund, objective case, governed by "contemplated" according to Rule III.

308. Gerunds of transitive verbs govern the objective case.

ILLUSTRATION.

He contemplated marrying Esther.

"Esther" is in the objective case governed by "marrying," according to Rule III.

309. The gerund is often preceded by a noun or a pronoun in the possessive case; as, the story of *Jack's climbing* the bean stalk, &c.

Sometimes the participle is used instead of the gerund; as, "These circumstances may lead to your ladyship *quitting* this house."—THACKERAY.

310. When the gerund is preceded by *the* it should be followed by *of*; but if *the* is omitted, *of* must not be used; thus, "*The writing of* the book required many years."

Exercise 53.

Parse the INFINITIVES, PARTICIPLES, *and* GERUNDS.

1. None dared withstand him to his face.
2. Having in my youth notions of severe piety, I used to rise in the night to watch, pray, and read the Koran.
3. I remember seeing, through Lord Rosse's telescope, one of those nebulae, which have hitherto appeared like small masses of vapor floating about in space. I saw it composed of thousands upon thousands of brilliant stars.
4. They seemed fixed in the very attitude of being flung forth into space.
5. Nothing in his life became him like the leaving it.
6. Better dwell in the midst of alarms,
Than reign in this horrible place.
7. Assuming that he is guilty, what ought to be done.

Syntax of Moods and Tenses.

311. The conditional conjunctions *if, though, but, unless, etc.*, may be used with either the indicative or the subjunctive mood ; hence it is sometimes difficult to determine which mood to use,—to tell whether to say, *If he be*, or *If he is*, *If he love*, or *If he loves*.

312. The tendency of modern usage is to disregard the niceties of the Subjunctive Mood, and it seems probable that this form will in time wholly disappear from our language. The irregular verb *to be* is the only verb retaining any thing like full inflection of the Subjunctive Mood.

313. The choice between the two moods must be determined by the sense. Thus, the following statements are both correct, but they express different ideas.

1. If he *sees* the signal he will answer.
2. If he *see* the signal he will answer.

EXPLANATION.—Both sentences imply doubt, but in the first sentence the act of seeing relates to present time, and in the second sentence it relates to future time. The first sentence means, If he *now* sees, &c.; the second, 'If he *shall* see, &c.

RULE XVI.—When one of the potential auxiliaries, *may, can, would, should*, is understood, or the future auxiliary *shall*, the subjunctive mood may be used.

The rule may be stated in another form.

When doubt and futurity are both implied, use the subjunctive mood; when they are not both implied, use the indicative.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him.

EXPLANATION.—In this sentence 'slay' is rightly in the subjunctive mood, as *may* or *shall* can be supplied.

2. If he *thinks* as he speaks, he may safely be trusted.

EXPLANATION.—If he thinks=if he *does* think, not If he *may* think. Hence the Indicative is correctly used.

3. He acts uprightly unless he *deceives* me.

EXPLANATION.—This does not mean unless he *may* deceive me, but unless he *does* deceive me. Hence the Indicative is used.

4. If it were [*it should be*] done, when 'tis done,
Then 'twere [*it should be*] well it were [*it should be*]
done quickly.—*Shakspeare.*

THE USE OF TENSES.

314. In constructing a sentence, the tense of the verb fitted to express the exact meaning should be employed.

Violations of this principle are frequent in the use of the infinitive.

Present Infinitive.

1. Last week I intended to have written him a letter.

EXPLANATION.—No matter how long it now is since I thought of writing, *to write* was *present* to me when I intended, and must still be considered present when I recall the intention. The sentence should be, Last week I intended *to write* a letter.

2. I expected last year *to have gone* to Europe on business.

3. When I went to Europe I hoped *to have visited* Italy.

4. It is a long time since I commanded him *to have done it*.

EXPLANATION.—For the same reason as before given, these sentences are incorrect. The *present* infinitive, and not the *perfect*, should be used.

RULE XVII.—When the act denoted by the infinitive is yet unperformed at the time of making the statement, use the present infinitive.

Hence, verbs expressing *hope, desire, intention, or command* should be followed by the present infinitive; as, *I hoped to go, I desired to see him.*

Perfect Infinitive.

1. Bishop Usher believed the earth to have been created 4004 B.C.

EXPLANATION.—Here it is evident that the *Perfect Infinitive* is correctly used, the sentence being equivalent to 'Bishop Usher believed that the earth *was* created 4004 B.C.—the *creation* being a *past* event at the time Bishop Usher formed his opinion.

2. Alexander considered the battle of the Granicus *to have been won* by the charge of the Macedonian phalanx.

Here the act spoken of is regarded as having been completed *before* the time when *he considered*.

RULE XVIII.—Use the **Perfect Infinitive** if the act spoken of is regarded as completed before the time expressed by the verb with which it is connected.

HARMONY OF TENSES.

315. A proper harmony and correspondence of Tenses must be observed.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. I shall be much gratified if you *would* favor us with your company.

EXPLANATION.—A proper harmony requires the future indicative, 'will favor,' not the past potential, 'would favor.'

2. I feared that I *should have missed* the train.

EXPLANATION.—Missing the train is here represented as past at the time of fearing; this is wrong. The sentence should read, I feared that I *should miss* the train.

3. Columbus believed that the earth *was* spherical.

EXPLANATION.—Here *was* should be *is*, because it is not the intention to state that the roundness of the earth *was* a fact of the past; it is an immutable truth, and the rule is that such statements must always be made in the present tense.

4. If you are not careful, you *might* fall overboard.

The proper tense is 'may fall.'

5. I *know* him for more than ten years.

Say *have known*.

6. Nor *has* it ever *been* seriously undertaken, until it *was* commenced, within the last ten years, by the London Philological Society.

The present perfect tense is here wrongly used. It should be, Nor *was* it ever seriously *undertaken*, etc., or else, Nor *had* it ever *been*, etc.

Exercise 54.

Correct the following :—

1. I have lost the game, though I thought I should have won it.
2. The next New Year's day I shall be at school three years.
3. I can not excuse the carelessness of the officer whose duty it was *to have watched* the enemy's approach.
4. I intended to have gone to Ottawa last week.

ELLIPSIS OF VERBS.

316. The following sentences illustrate a common blunder in the ellipsis of parts of compound verbs :

1. This elucidation may serve for almost any book that *has, is, or shall be published*.—*Bolingbroke*.

EXPLANATION.—'Published,' the past participle of the verb *publish*, is correctly used with 'shall be;' its ellipsis with 'is' is proper; but the ellipsis with 'has' is not correct, because the writer intended to say *has been published*, using the present perfect tense, *passive voice*.

317. When two or more Compound Tenses of the same Verb are connected, such parts of the tenses as are not common to all must be inserted in full.

2. Did he not tell you his fault, and entreated you to forgive him ?

EXPLANATION.—The two verbs here connected are ‘did tell’ and ‘entreated ;’ but, supplying the ellipsis before the second verb, we have ‘*did he not entreated,*’ which is incorrect, as ‘did’ is never used with a past participle. The sentence fully corrected is, ‘Did he not tell you his fault, and *did* he not *entreat* you to forgive him ?’ It is allowable to drop the auxiliary before the second verb if the verb is put into a form to harmonize with the auxiliary ; hence we may say, ‘Did, he not tell you his fault, and *entreat,*’ etc.

318. When Verbs are connected by a Conjunction never make an ellipsis of an auxiliary used before the first Verb if the after forms of the Verb will not harmonize with the auxiliary when supplied.

SHALL AND WILL.

‘*I will* drown ; nobody *shall* help me.’

The unfortunate foreigner that fell into a river, not understanding English idioms, exactly reversed the places of *shall* and *will* when he made use of this exclamation. He meant to say, I shall drown [*i.e.*, I expect to drown], because nobody *will* help me.’

319. The correct and elegant use of *shall* and *will* is one of the most difficult things in the English language for a foreigner to learn. Correct usage, indeed, is often violated by those that speak and write English as their mother tongue.

Each of these auxiliaries has its own specific shade of meaning besides that of *futurity*, and hence arise many nice distinctions in their peculiar and appropriate uses.

Shall etymologically means *to owe* or *to be morally bound*. It is traced back in its Origin to the Gothio *skal*, which meant *I have killed*, and thence *I owe the penalty*. Chaucer writes,

'By the faith I shall to God,' meaning 'I owe to God.' WILL means *to wish* or *to be willing*. Etymologically, then, SHALL implies *obligation* or *necessity*, and WILL implies *wish*, *consent*, or *volition*.

Case I.—Futurity.

I We	}	<i>shall</i> write.	You He They	}	<i>will</i> write.
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320. The reason of the preceding use of *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons, seems to be this : When a person says, 'I shall write a letter,' he expresses his own *obligation* to write ; but he expresses the *obligation* of another person more deferentially and delicately by referring to that person's *wish* rather than to obligation. It is a form of grammatical politeness.

321. The misuse of *will* instead of *shall* in the first person, denoting mere futurity, is common in many parts of our country ; thus :

'In a century hence we *will* [shall] be a great and powerful people.'—*Newspaper*.

'We *will* [shall] undoubtedly elect our candidate by a large majority.'—*Newspaper*.

The same rule of courtesy is the reason why *shall* is not always used in the first person plural. When *we* means *he and I*, it is followed by *shall*, but when it means *you and I*, the courteous and deferential *will* takes the place of *shall*. If the speaker puts himself in the third person he will not use *shall* ; as, 'Mr. Brown *will* be glad of Mr. Smith's company at dinner to-day,' or, 'Dear Smith, I *shall* be glad of your company to-day at dinner.'

Case II.—Determination, Command.

I We	}	<i>will</i> write.	You He They	}	<i>shall</i> write.
---------	---	--------------------	-------------------	---	---------------------

322. 'We *will* write' may mean 'We promise to write,' or it may express our *determination* to write. In either case *will* retains its proper force, *to wish, to resolve, to consent*. 'You *shall* write' means 'I have power over you, and I am determined to force you to write; *i. e.*, I *will* you to write.

In the two common forms of polite speech, 'I shall be obliged to you,' and 'I will thank you,' the auxiliaries are rightly placed, and ought not to be reversed. 'I shall be greatly obliged to you' foretells an obligation in the future for which I ought to thank you, and 'I will thank you' expresses my intention or my promise to thank you. 'I will be greatly obliged to you,' and 'I *shall* thank you,' are inelegant and ungrammatical.

Case III.—Asking Questions.

Shall I write ?

Will you write ?

Shall we write ?

Will he or they write ?

323. The usual form in interrogative sentences is *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the others, but it can not be laid down as an invariable rule to reverse the declarative forms. Thus we say, 'Will you go?' or 'Shall you go?' The first form implies a *request*; the second form, *intention*.

324. *In asking a question we generally use the form of expression in which we expect the answer to be given.*

If I say 'Shall you go to school to-morrow?' [Do you intend to go to school to-morrow?], I expect the answer from you 'I *shall*' [I intend to go]. If I expect a *promise*, I say, 'Will you write a composition?' and expect the promise 'I *will*.' It is a piece of good manners, a part of grammatical courtesy.

'You will go to school to-morrow' may be said affirmatively even, with the rising inflection, and then the answer

expected is 'I will,' or 'I will not.' The expression 'You will go to school to-morrow, shall you not?' may seem to be redundant, but it is quite correct.

Errors in Verbs.

325. The following are some of the most common *vulgarisms* in the use of verbs :

1. Hadn't [had not] I ought to do it ?

Had is never used as an auxiliary of *ought*. You should say 'Ought I not to do it ?'

2. He *don't* believe it.

EXPLANATION.—*Don't* is a contraction of *do not*, but it would be incorrect to say, He *do* not. Hence the form should be *does not*, or by colloquial contraction, *doesn't*. The same objection may not hold as against 'I *don't*,' but it is certainly more elegant to say 'I *do not*,' and the expression should always be so written.

3. ' *Tisn't* a wasp. *It's* John that goes to school.

EXPLANATION.—' *Tis* and *it's* are not commendable forms for *it is*. Though allowable in conversation, they should not be used in written composition. ' *Tis*, is a poetic license, as

'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands.

—*Shakspeare*.

4. I have not done it yet, but I mean *to*.

EXPLANATION.—To omit the infinitive after *to* is a very faulty construction ; and though in ordinary conversation this ellipsis often occurs, it is not allowable in accurate writing. Either repeat the verb or supply its place by *do* or *do so*. 'I have not done it yet, but I mean to *do it*. 'You may take a walk, if you like.' Better thus : 'You may take a walk, if you like to *do so*.'

' IS BEING DONE.'

326. Forms like the above are felt to be very awkward. *The house is being built, It has been being*

built many months, are such disagreeable phrases, through the repetition of the verb *be*, that we avoid them when possible. It is common even to say *the house is building*, or *has been building*, as if *build* were an intransitive verb. But this is not strictly correct. The old English expression, It is *a-building* (*at building*, 'in the process of building'), is preferable, though seldom used. We must choose among the following forms of expression :

The house has been many months a building
(which is good old Saxon English) ;

The house has been many months building
(perhaps elliptical for the above, but in itself incorrect) ;

The house has been many months being built
(which is correct, but intolerably awkward).

Or we may vary the expression by saying :

They have been many months building the house ;

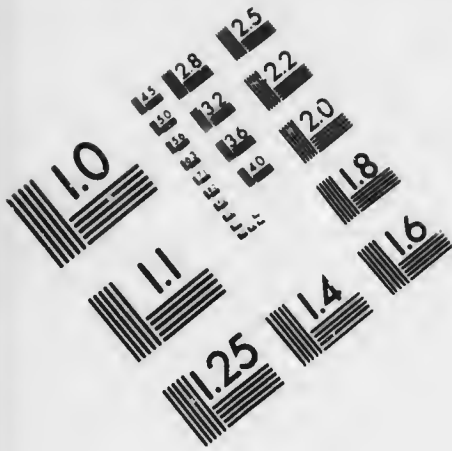
Or, The house has been many months in course
(or process) of building.

Exercise 55.

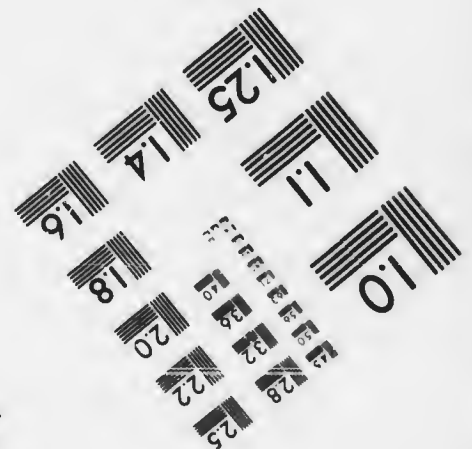
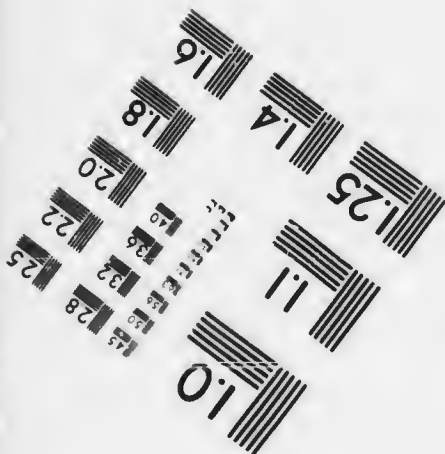
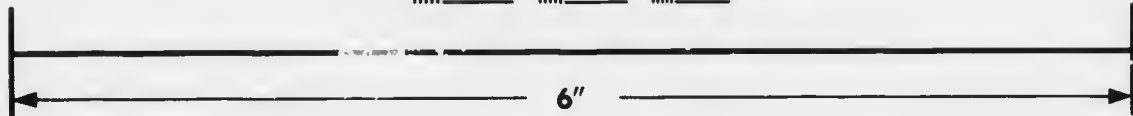
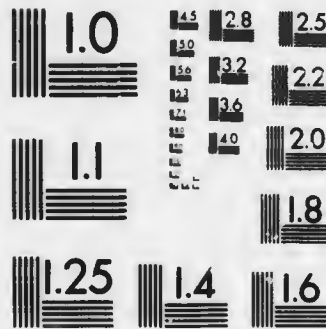
The following sentences illustrate a great variety of
FAULTS OF SYNTAX. *The pupil, in correcting these*
sentences, is to apply the principles heretofore learned :

1. This is very easy done.
2. The great historian and the essayist is no more.
3. It could not have been her.





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4. Did you see the man and the dog which passed this way ?
5. I intend to immediately retire from business.
6. I think I will return home next week.
7. He seldom or ever visits us.
8. It is thinking makes what we read ours.
9. The death was announced lately of the great statesman.
10. Who are you looking for ?
11. The collection of books that have come down to us from that period are very valuable.
12. I expected to have been at home when you called.
13. It was him and me that were chosen to go.
14. When will we three meet again ?
15. He not only ought but must succeed.
16. I never saw it rain so heavy before.
17. His work is one of the best that has ever appeared.
18. It has been said that politics are but little more than common sense.
19. Metal types were now introduced, which before this time had been made of wood.
20. No man ever bestowed such a gift to his kind.
21. The book is fitted either for school or private use.
22. This is one of the most memorable battles that ever have or will be fought.
23. All thinking men believe that the soul was immortal.
24. He found he had lost his sight, and was led from the battle-field by a soldier.
25. It is now five days since you have arrived.

26. I trust you shall overlook the circumstance of me having come to school late.
27. The regiment had no less than a hundred men fell in the engagement.
28. What is the difference between an adjective and participle ?
29. These flowers smell very sweetly and look beautifully.
30. Have you no other book but this ?
31. He is only fitted to govern others who can govern himself.
32. The spirit, and not the letter, of the law are what we ought to follow.
33. This one seems more preferable than the other.
34. The inscription gave the name and age of the deceased merely.
35. Once upon a time there lived a poor man who had two sons, near a wood.
36. I found the knight under the butler's hands who always shaved him,
37. Flour will not do to make our bread alone.
38. No one in England knew what tea was two hundred years ago.
39. The man could neither read or write.
40. The Book of Psalms were written by David.
41. That building must be either a church or school.
42. Here come my old friend and teacher.
43. The minute finger and the hour hand has each its particular use.
44. Which of that group of men is the taller.
45. What boy amongst us can foretell their future career ?

46. She walked with the lamp across the room still burning.
47. An account of the great events in all parts of the world are given in the daily papers.
48. I shall not trouble any reader, being studious of brevity, with all the curiosities I observed.
49. If I were in his position, I would not have gone.
50. They would neither eat themselves nor suffer nobody else to eat.
51. Wild horses are caught with a lasso, or a noose.
52. Did you expect to have heard so poor a speech.
53. I can not give you no more money.
54. Am I the scholar who am to be punished.
55. There were a large number of soldiers killed and wounded.
56. We did no more but what we ought to do.
57. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done.
58. He is a man of remarkable clear intellect.
59. He showed me two kinds, but I did not buy any of them.
60. I never have nor never will forgive him.
61. Every one is the best judge of their own consciences.
62. They told me of him having failed.
63. I understand why the water never rises high quite well.
64. He has already, and will continue to receive, many honors.
65. A dervise was met by two merchants travelling alone in a desert.
66. One species of bread of coarse quality was only allowed to be baked.

67. The party whom he invited was very numerous.
68. It is now about four hundred years since the art of multiplying books has been discovered.
69. An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different situations.
70. The doctor said in his lecture that fever always produced thirst.
71. Alarmed by so unusual an occurrence, it was resolved to postpone their departure.
72. The *Annals of Florence* are a most imposing work.
73. Such expressions sound harshly.
74. What can be the cause of the Parliament neglecting so important a business?
75. Either you or I are in the way.
76. He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.
77. I do not think that leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, could be better employed.
78. That is seldom or ever the case.
79. The fact of me being a stranger to him does not justify his conduct.
80. Let me awake the King of Morven, he that is like the sun of heaven, rising in a storm.
81. Either the young man or his guardian have acted improperly.
82. I had several men died in my ship of yellow fever.
83. The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago.
84. A talent of this kind would perhaps prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

85. The ends of a divine and human legislation are very different.
86. On your conduct at this moment depends the color and complexion of their destiny.
87. I have never seen Major Cartwright, much less enjoy the honor of his acquaintance.
88. I am afraid of the man dying before a doctor can come.
89. That is either a man or a woman's voice.
90. Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.
91. The ebb and flow of the tides were explained by Newton.
92. And indeed in some cases we derive as much or more pleasure from that source than from any thing else.
93. The number of inhabitants were not more than four millions.
94. The logical and historical analysis of a language generally in some degree coincides.
95. But she fell a laughing like one out of their right mind.
96. Verse and prose run into one another like light and shade.
97. Homer had the greatest invention of any writer whatever.
98. Of all the other qualities of style, clearness is the most important.
99. That is applied to persons as well as things.
100. The maps are clear, attractive in appearance, and not encumbered with minute details calculated only to embarrass the learner; except the reference maps, which are very full and complete.

PART III.

Analysis and Construction.

CHAPTER I.

DEFINITIONS AND PRINCIPLES.

THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS.

327. A **sentence** is a combination of words expressing a complete thought.

To express a complete thought we must say something about something ; as, *The old clock ticks faintly.*

In this sentence we are speaking of the 'old clock ;' we say that it 'ticks faintly.'

328. **Analysis** is resolving a sentence into its elements, or component parts. The building up of a sentence is called *synthesis* or *construction*.

329. The **elements** of a sentence may be classified according to their rank ; as :—

I.—PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS. II.—SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS. III.—INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

330. The **principal elements** of a sentence are :—

I.—THE SUBJECT. II.—THE PREDICATE.

These two parts are necessary for the expression of a thought ; they are therefore *essential* elements.

331. The **subject** is that part of a sentence which names the thing of which we are speaking. It is always a noun or an equivalent of a noun.

332. The **predicate** is that part of a sentence which asserts something of the thing which the subject represents. It must always contain a finite verb.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
1. Birds	sing.
2. He	walks.
3. To be	contents his natural desire.

'The steamer having left the wharf——.' This is not a sentence, for it contains no predicate. '—— left town this morning.' Here we have no subject.

333¹. Some verbs do not of themselves make a complete statement, but require some additional word or words to aid them in forming a predicate. Such verbs are said to be *incomplete*, and that part of the sentence which fills up the statement is called the **complement**.

334. Transitive verbs in the active voice require an *object* as complement. Transitive verbs in the passive voice, and incomplete intransitive verbs, may take as a complement a *predicate nominative*, or a *predicate adjective*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.	
	PREDICATE VERB.	COMPLEMENT.
Boys	love	play.
They	stopped	reciting their lessons.
The city	was named	Halifax.
The bridge	is considered	dangerous.
James	became	King.
The man	seems	better.

Some verbs take a double complement, one *direct*, and the other *indirect*. The indirect complement is sometimes attributive, modifying the direct complement; as, They named the child *John*. We hold *James* *accountable*.

Exercise 56.

A

Name the complements :--

1. Chaucer wrote the Canterbury Tales.
2. He seems very ill.
3. William is a diligent boy.
4. The teacher gave the boys a lesson.
5. He made his life his monument.
6. We consider the bridge dangerous.

B

Supply the parts which are wanting.

7. — wrote Paradise Lost.
8. General Wolfe — the city of Quebec.
9. — — the Pleasures of Hope.
10. Wellington defeated —.
11. The farmer made — . — .
12. — named — — .

335. The **subordinate elements** of a sentence are words introduced for the purpose of modifying the signification of the principal elements. They are called *adjuncts* or *enlargements*.

ILLUSTRATION.

Some birds of this country sing sweetly during the day

EXPLANATION.—The subject *birds* is modified by *some and of this country*. These terms are said to be adjuncts or enlargements of the subject. In like manner *sweetly and during the day* are adjuncts of the predicate.

336. The subject without adjuncts is called the *simple* or *grammatical* subject; the subject with its adjuncts is called the *complete* or *logical* subject. The predicate without adjuncts is called the *simple* or *grammatical* predicate; the predicate with its adjuncts is the *logical* predicate.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.	
ADJUNCT OF SUBJECT.	SIMPLE SUB.	SIMPLE PRED.	ADJUNCT OF PREDICATE.
The farmer's eldest	son	works	diligently all day.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.			LOGICAL PREDICATE.	
ADJUNCT.	SUBJECT.	PRED. VERB.	COMPLEMENT.	ADJUNCT.
Great	generals	were	common	in the time of Napo- [leon.

Exercise 57.

Give in tabular form the SUBJECTS, PREDICATES, ADJUNCTS, and COMPLEMENTS.

1. Brave soldiers fell at Thermopylae.
2. A little old man, dressed in tattered clothes, passed by our door.
3. Thy maker's will has placed thee here.

4. The very fairest flowers wither the most quickly.

NOTE.—Observe carefully the difference between a *complement* of the predicate, and an *adjunct* of the predicate. An incomplete verb leaves the statement unfinished, so that the complement is an *essential* part of the predicate. An adjunct merely *modifies* the statement.

ILLUSTRATION.

James broke the *pitcher* (complement).

The boys play *on the hill* (adjunct).

337. An **independent element** is not related to the other parts of the sentence ; that is, it is neither a principal nor a subordinate element ; as :—

1. *To say the least*, it is very surprising.
2. *Mary*, your lilies are in bloom.

Exercise 58.

Mark the SUBJECTS, COMPLETIONS, and ADJUNCTS, in the following sentences :—

1. Walking is a healthful exercise.
2. To be virtuous is to be happy.
3. Diligent students will succeed.
4. Students of diligent habits will succeed.
5. Students who are diligent will succeed.

In the first sentence the subject consists of a single word, "walking ;" in the second sentence it consists of three words, "to be virtuous." In the third sentence the adjunct of the subject is a single word, "diligent ;" in the fourth sentence it consists of three words, "of diligent habits ;" in the fifth sentence it consists of three words, "who are diligent." An element of a sentence may, therefore, consist of one word or of more than one.

338. A **proposition** is a combination of words containing one subject and one predicate. A sentence may consist of one proposition, or of more than one ; as—

1. Life is but an empty dream.
2. Tell me not that life is but an empty dream.

EXPLANATION.—The first sentence contains but one proposition. The second sentence consists of two propositions, connected by "that." "Tell me not" is the principal proposition ; "life is but an empty dream" is a subordinate proposition, forming the complement of the principal proposition.

339. A **clause** is a dependent or subordinate proposition.

340. A clause is joined to the principal proposition by a **connective** which may be a *conjunction*, a *relative pronoun*, or a *connective adverb*.

341. A **phrase** is a combination of words not expressing a complete thought. In its use it is equivalent to a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

A phrase may be introduced by—

1. A *preposition*, thus forming a prepositional phrase ; as—

The fruit of that forbidden tree.

2. An *infinitive*, thus forming an infinitive phrase ; as—

To love our neighbors as ourselves is a divine command.

3. A *participle*, thus forming a participial phrase ; as—

Children, *coming home from school*, look in at the open door.

342. With reference to their *structure*, the elements of a sentence are classified as—

I. WORDS. II. PHRASES. III. CLAUSES.

343. A word is termed an element of the *first degree*; a phrase, an element of the *second degree*; and a clause, an element of the *third degree*.

344. In respect to their *use* phrases and clause perform the office of *nouns, adjectives, or adverbs*.

In determining the class of a phrase, or a clause, ask the question, What part of speech would this be if the idea were expressed by a single word?

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. He went *in great haste*.
2. My uncle is a man *of prudence*.
3. James loves *to study languages*.

EXPLANATION.—In the first sentence, “*in great haste*,” is equal to *hastily*, and is therefore an *adverbial* phrase. In the second sentence, “*of prudence*” is equal to *prudent*, and is therefore an *adjective* phrase. In the third sentence, “*to study languages*” is the object of the verb *loves*, and is consequently a *noun* phrase.

SUMMARY.

The elements classed by **rank** are

{	Principal.
	Subordinate.
	Independent.

The elements classed by **structure** are

{	Words.
	Phrases.
	Prepositions.

The elements classed by **office** are

{	Substantive.
	Adjective.
	Adverbial.

Exercise 59.

In the following sentences select the GRAMMATICAL and the LOGICAL SUBJECTS, and the GRAMMATICAL and

the LOGICAL PREDICATES ; also classify the ADJUNCTS, with reference to their structure and their office :—

1. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
2. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, wrote the Canterbury Tales.
3. Brave soldiers fell at Thermopylæ.
4. Nothing in his life became him like the leaving of it.
5. All the land, in flowery squares, beneath a broad and equal-blowing wind, smelt of the coming summer.
6. The morn, in russet mantle clad, walks o'er the dew of yon high eastern hill.

B

In the following, distinguish PHRASES and CLAUSES from SENTENCES.

1. To die is gain.
2. Not to know me.
3. The design has never been completed.
4. A design which has never been completed.
5. From bad to worse.
6. When morning showed the snow-drifts.
7. Into the jaws of death.
8. Rode the six hundred.

CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

345. Sentences are classified—

- I. According to their *use*. II. According to their *structure*.

346. Sentences are divided according to their *use* into four classes :—

- I. DECLARATIVE. II. INTERROGATIVE. III. IMPERATIVE. IV. EXCLAMATORY.

347. A **declarative** sentence is one that asserts, that is, affirms or denies ; as—

1. Man is mortal.
2. He is not proud.

348. An **interrogative** sentence is one that expresses a question ; as—

Do you admire such people ?

349. An **imperative** sentence is one that expresses a command ; as—

Be a hero in the strife.

350. An **exclamatory** sentence is one that expresses a thought in an interjectional manner ; as—

Oh ! that I knew where I might find him ?

Exercise 60.

Change the following declarative sentences into INTERROGATIVE, IMPERATIVE, and EXCLAMATORY sentences,

1. The moon shines softly.
2. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
3. The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.

351. Sentences are classified according to their **structure** into three classes :—

I. SIMPLE. II. COMPLEX. III. COMPOUND.

352. A **simple** sentence consists of one independent proposition.

A simple sentence may consist of but two words, a *subject* and a *predicate* ; as,

Birds fly.

A simple sentence may have its subject and predicate so modified by adjuncts as to become a long sentence ; as,

'About fourscore years ago there USED TO BE SEEN sauntering on the pleasant terraces of Sans Souci, for a short time in

the afternoon, or driving in a rapid, business manner on the open roads, or through the scraggy woods and avenues of that intricate, amphibious Potsdam region, a highly interesting lean, little old MAN, of alert, though slightly stooping figure.
—*Carlyle's Frederick the Great.*

353. A **complex** sentence consists of one principal proposition and one or more subordinate propositions or clauses; thus,—

Clause.

Principal Proposition.

When morning dawned ALL FEARS WERE DISPELLED.

The subordinate proposition may stand within the principal proposition; thus,—

THE WIND, *which had blown all day*, CEASED AT SUNSET.

354. A **compound** sentence consists of two or more independent propositions; thus,—

ALL FEARS WERE DISPELLED, and WE SAW THE LAND WITHIN A FEW LEAGUES OF US.

In compound sentences the members are merely *put together* (*con* and *ponere*); in complex sentences they are *woven together* (*con* and *plectere*).

ADJUNCTS OF THE SUBJECT.

355. Since the subject is always a noun or its equivalent, and since the words which modify a noun are adjective in office, the **adjuncts of the subject** must be *adjective* elements.

356. An adjunct of the subject may be an adjective element of the first, the second, or the third degree,—that is, it may be an adjective *word*, *phrase*, or *clause*.

I. As a **word**, an adjective element may be—

1. An *adjective*; as—

Kind hearts are more than coronets.

2. A noun in *apposition* ; as—

Newton, *the philosopher*, discovered the law of gravitation.

3. A noun or a pronoun in the possessive ; as—

Children's voices should be dear to a mother's ear.

II. An adjective **phrase** may be in form *prepositional* or *participial* ; thus—

1. The thirst *for fame* is an infirmity of noble minds.
2. The man, *being injured by the fall*, was taken to the hospital.

III. An adjective **clause** is always introduced by a relative pronoun or a relative adverb ; thus—

1. The man *that hath no music in himself* is fit for stratagems.
2. The place *where Moses was buried* is unknown.

357. The subject may be modified by various combinations of adjective elements ; thus—

Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy that the world ever saw, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable PRINCESS happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects, little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her.

358. Adjective elements are used to modify not only the subject, but a noun in any part of the sentence.

If the subject is an infinitive or a gerund, it may in its *verb*-character take a complement or an adverbial adjunct ; thus—

1. To love *one's enemies* is a Christian duty.
2. Playing *with fire* is dangerous.

ADJUNCTS OF THE PREDICATE.

359. The **predicate verb** is modified by *adverbial* elements.

360. An *adverbial* element may be an element of the first, second, or third degree.

I. As a **word**, an *adverbial* element may be—

1. An *adverb*; as—

Leonidas died *bravely*.

2. An *indirect object*; as—

Give *the man* a seat.

3. A noun denoting *time* or *place*; as—

1. Our friends have returned *home*.

2. James remained *a week*.

4. An *infinitive of purpose*; as—

She stoops *to conquer*.

II. An *adverbial phrase* may be in form *prepositional* or *participial*; thus—

1. Leonidas died *with great bravery*.

2. He reads *standing at his desk*.

III. An *adverbial clause* is always introduced by a *conjunctive adverb*, or a *subordinative conjunction*; thus—

1. The lawyers smiled *that afternoon*.
When he hummed in court an old love-tune.

2. Fishes have no voice *because they have no lungs*.

361. The predicate verb may be modified by any combination or number of combinations of adverbial elements, thus :—

When he heard the noise, he ran quickly into the street to discover the cause.

362. An adverbial element may serve as an adjunct, not only of a verb, but of an adjective or an adverb.

363. The *object* of an incomplete verb may be enlarged in all the various ways in which the *subject* is enlarged.

364. The adverbial elements used in enlarging the predicate may be classified under the following four heads :—

- (1.) Those relating to *time*, or the *when* word, phrase, or clause.
- (2.)*place*, or the *where* word, phrase, or clause.
- (3.)*manner*, or the *how* word, phrase, or clause.
- (4.)*cause*, or the *why* word, phrase, or clause.

ILLUSTRATIONS—WORDS.

1. 'He came up *yesterday*'—time.
2. 'He went *there*'—place.
3. 'He walks *fast*'—manner.
4. '*Why* did he go?'—cause.

ILLUSTRATIONS—PHRASES.

1. '*In Spain* [place] Columbus waited for seven years' [time].
2. 'Many travellers in Africa have perished, with terrible *suffering* [manner], *from thirst*' [cause].

3. 'Him the Almighty power
Harled *headlong* [manner] flaming *from the ethereal sky*
[place]
With hideous ruin and combustion [manner], down
To bottomless perdition' [place].—MILTON.

ILLUSTRATIONS—CLAUSES.

1. 'Cromwell matured little events *before he ventured to govern great ones*' [time].
2. 'The gardener is planting the shrubs *where they will have the most shade*' [place].
3. He did the work *as he was instructed* [manner].
4. 'Fishes have no voice *because they have no lungs*' [cause].

Exercise 61.

State by what kind of an ADJECTIVE ELEMENT the Subject is enlarged [ADJECTIVE word ADJECTIVE phrase, or ADJECTIVE clause].

1. Good old red wine is the best.
2. Cæsar, having conquered Gaul, sailed over to Britain.
3. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, wrote the Canterbury Tales.
4. The invention of the [steam-engine has made ocean navigation swift and safe.
5. So ended Hannibal's first campaign in Italy.—ARNOLD.
6. The drum's deep roll was heard afar.
7. Under her torn hat glowed the wealth
Of simple beauty and rustic health.—WHITTIER.
8. The railroad that connects New York and San Francisco is the longest in the world.
9. The government founded by our fathers will not be broken up by us.
10. A little old man, dressed in tattered clothes, passed by our door.

EXPANSION.

365. **Expansion** is changing an element of the first degree to one of the second or third degree, without introducing any new idea.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Adjective Elements.

A *prudent* man is respected. (Word.)

A man *of prudence* is respected. (Phrase.)

A man *who is prudent* is respected. (Clause.)

Adverbial Elements.

Jenny Lind sang *sweetly*. (Word.)

Jenny Lind sang *with sweetness*. (Phrase.)

Jenny Lind sang as a sweet singer does. (Clause.)

Exercise 62.

Expand the WORDS printed in italics into PHRASES and CLAUSES.

1. *Brave* soldiers fell at Thermopylae.
2. The *grateful* mind loves to consider the bounties of Providence.
3. *Four-legged* animals are called quadrupeds.
4. *Great* generals [of great ability] were common in the time of Napoleon.
5. *Virtuous* men are honored.
6. He came upon me *unawares* [notice.]
7. Bees build their hives *ingeniously*.
8. Do not speak *foolishly*.

9. Leonidas acted *heroically*.
10. Columbus sailed *confidently* [*sure of success.*]

CHAPTER II.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

366. The **simple sentence** consists of a single proposition, and hence can contain but one finite verb.

367. The **simple subject** of the simple sentence consists of a substantive element of the first or second degree; that is, of a word or a phrase equivalent to a noun.

368. The simple subject may be modified by any adjective element of the first or second degree, or by any combination of adjective elements of those degrees.

369. The **simple predicate** of the simple sentence always consists of a finite verb, or of a finite verb with its complement.

370. The simple predicate may be modified by any adverbial element of the first or second degree, or by any combination of adverbial element of those degrees.

DIRECTIONS.

In analysing a simple sentence—

- I. State the nature of the sentence.
 1. By *structure*.
 2. By *use*.

II. State—

1. The logical and the grammatical subject.
2. The logical and the grammatical predicate.
3. The modifications of the subject.
4. The complement, when the verb is incomplete.
5. The modifications of the complement.
6. The modifications of the grammatical predicate.

THE ORDER OF A SENTENCE.

371. The order of a sentence may be *direct* or *inverted*; and in resolving a sentence—that is, in showing the elements that enter into its construction—it is necessary to reduce it from the inverted to the direct form; thus:

Inverted. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.

Direct. { The glimmering landscape fades on the sight
now; or,
The glimmering landscape now fades on the sight.

Inverted. Thee the voice, the dance obey.

Direct. The voice, the dance obey thee.

Inverted. Slow melting strains their queen's approach declare.

Direct. Slow melting strains declare their queen's approach

MODELS FOR ORAL ANALYSIS.

1. *The hardy Laplander, clad in skins, boldly defies the severity of his arctic climate.*

This is a simple declarative sentence: The logical subject is "The hardy Laplander, clad in skins." The grammatical subject is "Laplander." The logical predicate is "boldly defies the severity of his arctic climate." The grammatical predicate is "defies."

The grammatical subject is modified by "the" and "hardy," adjective elements of the first degree, and by "clad in skins," an adjective element of the second degree.

The predicate verb is completed by the object "severity" which is modified by "the," an adjective element of the first degree, and by "of his arctic climate," an adjective element of the second degree.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "boldly," an adverbial element of the first degree.

2. *This misfortune will certainly make the poor man miserable for life.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. The logical subject is "This misfortune." The grammatical subject is "misfortune." The logical predicate is "will certainly make the poor man miserable for life." The grammatical predicate is "will make."

The grammatical subject is modified by "this," an adjective element of the first degree.

The predicate verb is completed by the object "man," and by the adjective complement "miserable."

The object is modified by "the" and "poor," adjective elements of the first degree.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "certainly," an adverbial element of the first degree.

3. *How oft the sight of means to do ill deeds makes ill deeds done!*

This is a simple exclamatory sentence. The logical subject "the sight of means to do ill deeds." The grammatical subject is "sight." The logical predicate is "makes ill deeds done." The grammatical predicate is "makes."

The grammatical subject is modified by "the," an adjective element of the first degree, and by "of means to do ill deeds," an adjective element of the second degree.

The predicate verb is completed by the object "deeds," and by "done," an adjective complement which modifies the object.

The object "deeds" is modified by "ill," an adjective element of the first degree. The simple predicate is modified by "how oft," an adverbial element of the first degree.

WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

372. Written analysis may be presented in tabular form or the elements and their degree may be designated by the following signs :—

s' = substantive *word* : i.e., substantive element of *first* degree.

s'' = substantive *phrase* : i.e., substantive element of *second* degree.

s''' = substantive *clause* : i.e., substantive element of *third* degree.

a' = adjective *word* : i.e., adjective element of *first* degree.

a'' = adjective *phrase* : i.e., adjective element of *second* degree.

a''' = adjective *clause* : i.e., adjective element of *third* degree.

adv.' = adverbial *word* : i.e., adverbial element of *first* degree.

adv. '' = adverbial *phrase* : i.e., adverbial element of *second* degree.

adv. ''' = adverbial *clause* : i.e., adverbial element of *third* degree.

MODELS.

1. *Night, sable goddess, from her ebony throne,
In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world.*

This is a simple declarative sentence.

Grammatical subject "Night" (*s'*).

Grammatical predicate . . . "stretches."

Adjunct of subject "sable goddess" (*a'*).

Complement "sceptre" (*obj. '.*).

Adjuncts of complement... "her" and "leaden" (*a'*).

Adjuncts of predicate..... "now" and "forth" (*adv.'*) ; from her ebon throne," "in rayless majesty," and "o'er a slumbering world" (*adv."*).

2. *Him the Almighty Power*

*Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.*

This is a simple declarative sentence.

Grammatical subject "Power" (*s'*).

Grammatical predicate..... . . . "hurled."

Adjuncts of subject..... . . . "the" and "Almighty" (*a'*).

Complement..... "him" (*obj.'*).

Adjuncts of Complement..... "flaming from the ethereal sky" (*a''*).

Adjuncts of predicate..... . . . "headlong" ("*adv.'*), "with hideous ruin and combustion" (*adv."*) down to bottomless perdition" (*adv."*)

3. *The King of Spain ordered Fernando de Talavera, the Prior of Prado, to assemble the most learned astronomers and cosmographers of the kingdom, to hold a conference with Columbus,*

This is a simple declarative sentence.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.		
GRAMMATICAL SUBJECT.	ADJUNCTS OF SUBJECT.	PREDICATE VERB.	COMPLEMENTS.	ADJUNCTS OF COMPLEMENTS.
King (s').	the (a'). of Spain (a'')	ordered.	1. Fernando de Talavera (s'). 2. To assemble Kingdom (s').	the Prior of Prado. (a'' of com. 1) to hold..... Columbus (adv." of com. 2)

Exercise 63.

Analyze the following simple sentences :

1. In unploughed Maine he sought the laborer's gang.
2. Stormed at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well.
3. The plowman homeward plods his weary way.
4. The squirrel eyes askance the chestnuts browning.
5. The moon threw its silvery light upon the rippling waters of the lake.
6. The swift-winged swallows twittered in their nests,
built under the eaves of the old barn.
7. Clad in a robe of everlasting snow, Mt. Everest towers above all other mountain peaks of the globe.
8. Reaching the summit of the mountains was a feat hazardous to undertake.
9. In the hereafter angels may
Roll the stone from its grave away.— *Whittier*.
10. Gayly chattering to the clattering
Of the brown nuts downward pattering,
Leap the squirrels red and gray.— *Whittier*.
11. The great work laid upon his two score years is done.
— *Whittier*.

12. There is a rapture on the lonely shore.—*Byron*.
13. We while the evening hours away
Around our camp-fires burning.
14. Stretched round the fading, flickering light,
We watch the stars above us.
15. The master gave his scholars a lesson to learn.*
16. Where are you?
17. Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy,
wealthy, and wise.
18. Will it be the next week? †
19. I will give thee a silver pound to row us o'er the ferry. ‡
20. Having ridden up to the spot, the enraged officer struck
the unfortunate man dead with a single blow of his
sword. §
21. I saw a man with a sword. ||
22. He found all his wants supplied by the care of his
friends.**
23. All but one were killed. ††
24. He does not laugh. ‡‡
25. What did you come here for? §§
26. The scholar did nothing but read. |||

CONSTRUCTION.

373. In the following exercises the elements, which are stated as separate propositions, are to be built up into one simple sentence.

-
- * "To learn" (*a' of comp.*).
 - † "Week" (*adv.*).
 - ‡ "To row us o'er the ferry" (*adv.*).
 - § "Dead" (*a' of obj.*).
 - || "With a single blow," &c. (*adv.*).
 - ||| "With a sword" (*a' of obj.*).

-
- ** "supplied" (*a' of obj.*).
 - †† "but one" (*a' of subj.*).
 - ‡‡ "not" (*adv.*).
 - §§ "for what" (*adv. of pred. v.*).
 - ||| "but read" (*a' of obj.*).

Introduce in the simple sentence only such words as are necessary fully and clearly to express all the ideas.

See that the sentence contains but one subject and one finite verb.

374. **A series of Adverbs, or of adverbial phrases, should not be crowded together at the close of a sentence but distributed in such a way as to group the adverbials around the principal words.**

MODEL.

The Propositions.

1. Wellington gained a victory.
2. Wellington was the commander of the British army.
3. The victory was a decisive one.
4. It was gained over the French.
5. The victory was gained at Waterloo.
6. Waterloo is in Belgium.
7. The victory was gained in 1815.

The Sentence.

In 1815, Wellington, the commander of the British army, gained a decisive victory over the French, at Waterloo, in Belgium.

The Propositions.

The caterpillar seeks out some place.

This is a place of concealment.

It does so after a short period.

It has several times changed its skin.

It has at length grown to its full size.

It secretes itself in some hole in the wall.

Or it buries itself under the surface of the ground.

Or sometimes only attaches itself by a silken web to the under side of a leaf.

The Sentence.

Having several times changed its skin, and having at length grown to its full size, the caterpillar, after a short period, seeks out some place of concealment, secreting itself in some hole in the wall, burying itself under the surface of the ground, or sometimes only attaching itself by a silken web to the under side of a leaf.

Exercise 64.

Condense the following Propositions into SIMPLE SENTENCES.

1. (a) Steel is made.
(b) It is made by heating small bars of iron with charcoal.
(c) Or by heating them with bone and iron shavings.
(d) Or with other inflammable substances.
2. (a) The Russians burned Moscow.
(b) The French were compelled to leave the city.
3. (a) I saw the Queen of France.
(b) It is now sixteen or seventeen years since I saw her.
(c) She was then the Dauphiness.
(d) I saw her at Versailles.
4. (a) Leonidas sent away all but three hundred men.
(b) He resolved to defend the pass with this devoted band.
5. (a) The Highlanders were composed of a number of tribes.
(b) These tribes were called clans.
(c) Each clan bore a different name.
(d) Each clan lived upon the lands of a different chieftain.
6. (a) Alfred disguised himself as a page.
(b) He obtained access to the Danish camp.
7. (a) The organ is the most wonderful.
(b) It is the organ of touch that is spoken of.
(c) It is the most wonderful of the senses.
(d) it is so in many respects.

8. (a) A frog one day saw an ox graze in a meadow.
 (b) It imagined it could make itself as large as that animal.
9. (a) A balloon is a bag.
 (b) It is a thin bag.
 (c) It is a tight bag.
 (d) It is made of varnished silk.
 (e) It is generally shaped like a globe.
 (f) It is filled with a fluid lighter than common air.
10. (a) Peter III. reigned but a few months.
 (b) Peter was deposed by a conspiracy of Russian nobles.
 (c) This conspiracy was headed by his own wife, Catharine.
 (d) Catharine was a German by birth.
 (e) Catharine was a woman of bold and unscrupulous character.
11. (a) The Federalists secured the election of John Adams.
 (b) Washington refused to be elected President.
 (c) Adams was a leading member of the Federalist party.
 (d) He was already distinguished by his political services during the Revolution.

CHAPTER III.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

375. The simple sentence and the complex sentence agree in this, that each contains one, and only one, *leading* proposition; they differ in this, that the complex sentence contains, in addition to the leading proposition, a *subordinate* proposition or *clause*.

376. The complete thought expressed by means of a complex sentence does not necessarily differ from that expressed by a simple sentence with adjuncts. A simple sentence can be converted into a complex sentence by expanding a subordinate element of the first or second degree into an element of the third degree; thus,—

SIMPLE SENTENCE..... 'At the close of the war (phrase), Washington retired to Mount Vernon.'

COMPLEX SENTENCE.... 'When the war closed (clause), Washington retired to Mount Vernon.'

377. In the complex sentence the *subject*, the *complement*, or an *adjunct* in any part of the sentence may be a *clause*, or an element of the *third* degree.

378. A clause in a complex sentence is *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*, according to its office ; thus,—

1. *That you cannot perform the task* is evident—(substantive clause as subject).
2. I dreamt *that I dwelt in marble halls*—(substantive clause as object).
3. You will never see the fruit of the trees *which you are planting*—(adjective clause modifying noun "trees").
4. He found the book *where he left it*—(adverbial clause modifying the predicate "found").
5. John is taller *than his brother is*—(adverbial clause modifying the adjective "taller").
6. She behaves as well *as was anticipated*—(adverbial clause modifying the adverb "well").

CONNECTIVES.

379. A clause is introduced by a *relative pronoun*, a *relative adverb*, or a *subordinative conjunction*.

380. The different kinds of clauses in complex sentences may generally be distinguished by the connectives that introduce them. The following classified table of connectives is given to aid the pupil in distinguishing *clauses* from principal members of a sentence.

Introducing } 1. Fact—*that, what, where, why, how, &c.*
 I. NOUN Clauses } 2. Alternative—*whether.....or.*

II. Introducing adjective clauses. } 1. Person—*who, that.*
 } 2. Thing—*which, that, as.*
 } 3. Place—*where, wherein.*
 } 4. Time—*when, whereat.*

III. Adverbial Clause of { I. PLACE. *Where, whither, whence.*
 { II. TIME. *When, while, whenever, till, until,*
 { III. MANNER { 1. Likeness—*as, as if.*
 { 2. Comparison—*as (much) as, than.*
 { 3. Effect—*(so) that.*
 { IV. CAUSE: { 1. Reason—*because, since, for.*
 { 2. Purpose—*(in order) that, lest.*
 { 3. Condition—*if, unless.*
 { 4. Concession—*though.*

NOTES.

1. As different kinds of clauses are introduced by the same words, such as *who, when, where*, care should be taken to note the office of the clause before stating its class. Thus, "Tell me *where he lives*" (substantive clause); "This is the place *where he lives*" (adjective clause). An adjective clause must always modify a noun.

2. The conjunction *that* is frequently omitted before a substantive clause used as the object of a verb; as, "I fear *he will not succeed.*" So also, the relative pronoun *that*, when in the objective case, is often omitted; as, "I have found the book you want."

3. A substantive clause introduced by the conjunction *that* is frequently found in apposition with a noun, and in such cases it may be treated as an adjective element of the third degree. Thus,—"*The report that he was killed* is untrue."

4. Adverbial clauses of comparison, introduced by *as* or *than*, are often highly elliptical—sometimes the verb being omitted, and sometimes both subject and verb; as, "He is as rich as Cræsus (is rich)"; "The teacher praised you more than (he praised) me."

5. An interrogative proposition is sometimes used in such a way as to be equivalent to a conditional clause; as, "Is any merry (=if any is merry), let him sing psalms."

6. When a substantive clause forms the subject of a sentence, the anticipative subject *it* is often employed; the substantive clause is then the real or logical subject; as, "It was clear that they were on the point of quarrelling."

It was clear
that-they-were-on-the
point-of-quarrelling.

7. The adverbial connectives *while, when, where, as, &c.*, are to be treated as elements of the clause (adverbial modifiers of the predicate); but subordinative conjunctions are merely *introductory* words, and form no part of the structure of the proposition.

DIRECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

I. After stating the nature of the sentence, analyze the sentence *as a whole*, taking up the principal propositions, and treating the dependent propositions as if they were single words. In this general analysis designate—

1. The grammatical subject of the principal proposition.
2. The grammatical predicate of the principal proposition.
3. The modifiers of the subject.
4. The complement of the predicate.
5. The modifiers of the complement.
6. The modifiers of the predicate.

II. Analyze the clauses in their order after the manner of the analysis of simple sentences.

III. State the connective.

MODELS FOR ORAL ANALYSIS.

1. *Before Time had touched his hair with silver, he had often gazed with wistful fondness towards that friendly shore on which Puritan huts were already beginning to cluster under the spreading shade of hickory and maple.*

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject, grammatical and logical, is "he"; the predicate is "had gazed," a verb of complete predication, and consequently taking no complement.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "before Time had touched his hair with silver," an adverbial element of the third degree, indicating time; by "often," an adverbial element of the first degree, indicating time; by "with wistful fondness," an adverbial element of the second degree, indicating manner; and by "towards that friendly shore," an adverbial element of the second degree, indicating place. The noun "shore" is modified by "on which Puritan huts...maple," an adjective element of the third degree.

Analysis of the Clauses.

a. "(Before) Time had touched his hair with silver" is an adverbial clause, of which the subject, grammatical and logical, is "Time," and the grammatical predicate "had touched."

The predicate verb is completed by the object "hair" which is modified by "his," an adjective element of the first degree.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "with silver," an adverbial element of the second degree, thus forming the logical predicate, "had touched his hair with silver."

The connective is "before," an adverbial element.

b. "(On which) Puritan huts were already beginning to cluster under the spreading shade of hickory and maple," is an adjective clause, of which the grammatical subject is "huts," and the grammatical predicate, "were beginning."

The grammatical subject is modified by "Puritan," an adjective element of the first degree.

The predicate verb is completed by the object "to cluster"... maple," a substantive element of the second degree, consisting of the infinitive "to cluster," modified by "under the shade of hickory and maple," and "on which," adverbial element of the second degree.

The grammatical predicate is modified by "already," an adverbial element of the first degree. The logical predicate is "had often gazed...maple."

The connective is "on which."

2. *The ocean is as deep as the mountains are high.*

This is a complex declarative sentence, the principal proposition being "The ocean is as deep" and the clause "as the mountains are high."

The grammatical subject is "ocean;" the grammatical predicate, "is." The grammatical subject is modified by the adjective word "the." The grammatical predicate is modified by the adjective word "the." The grammatical predicate is modified by the adverb "as," and by the adverbial clause "as the mountains are high."

Analysis of the Clause.

"As the mountains are high."

The logical subject is "the mountains;" the grammatical predicate is "is," completed by the predicate adjective "high," and modified by "as," an adverbial adjunct—thus forming the logical predicate, "as are high."

MODELS FOR WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

A reader unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education will probably undervalue it when he sees that so large a portion of time is devoted to the study of a few ancient authors, whose works seem to have no direct bearing on the studies and duties of our own generation.

A complex declarative sentence.

Grammatical subject.....	"reader (s')."
Grammatical predicate.....	"will undervalue."
Adjuncts of subject.....	{ "A" (a'). "unacquainted with the real nature of a classical education" (a.)
Complement.....	"it" (s').
Adjuncts of predicate.....	"probably" (adv.) "when he sees... generation" (adv.) A.

Analysis of A.

“(When) he sees....generation” (adv.^{'''}, adjunct of predicate.)

Grammatical subject.....	“ he” (s.)
Grammatical predicate.....	“ sees.”
Complement.....	“ that so large a portion ..gen- eration” (s ^{''}) B.
Adjunct of predicate.....	“ when” (adv. [']).

Analysis of B.

“(That) so large a portion.....generation” (s.^{'''} comp. of A.)

Grammatical subject.....	“ portion” (s).
Grammatical predicate.....	“ is devoted.”
Adjuncts of subject.....	{ “ so large” (a')
	{ “ a” (a').
	{ “ of time” (a'').
Adjuncts of predicate.....	“ to the study of a few ancient authors (adv. [']) [whose works seem.....generation” (a ^{'''})] C.

Analysis of C.

“Whose works seem....generation” (a.^{'''} adjunct of “authors.”)

Grammatical subject.....	“ works.” (s).
Grammatical predicate.....	“ seem.”
Adjunct of subject.....	“ whose” (a').
Complement	“ to have” (a').
Complement of complement.....	“ bearing” (s'). “ no” (a').
Adjuncts of second complement.	“ direct” (a'). “ on the studies..generation” (a'').

TABULAR ANALYSIS.

Propositions	Kinds.	Subject.	PREDICATE.		
			Verb.	Comp't.	Enlargement.
I. <i>Before Time</i> had touched his hair with silver,	Adverbial Clause to II. (<i>Time</i>).	Time	had touched	his hair	with silver.
II. He had often gazed with wistful fondness toward that friendly shore,	Principal proposition.	He	had gazed		1. often (<i>Time</i>) 2. with wistful fondness (<i>Manner</i>). 3. toward that friendly shore (<i>Place</i> .)
III. <i>On which</i> Puritan huts were already beginning to cluster under the spreading shade of hickory and maple.	Adjective Clause to II., modifying "shore."	Puritan huts	were beginning	to cluster.	1. already (<i>Time</i>). 2. under the spreading shade of hickory and maple (<i>Place</i>).

Exercise 65.

Analyze the following complex sentences.

- The rose that all are praising is not the rose for me.
- When we go forth in the morning we lay a moulding hand upon our destiny.
- Whilst light and colors rise and fly,
Lives Newton's deathless memory.
- The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all but him had fled.
- When he was a boy, Franklin, who afterwards became a distinguished statesman and philosopher, learned his trade in the printing office of his brother, who published a paper in Boston.
- He that fights and runs away,
May live to fight another day.
- The Dutch florist who sells tulips for their weight in gold laughs at the antiquary who pays a great price for a rusty lump.

8. We must not think the life of a man begins when he can feed himself.

9. Tell me not : : mournful numbers,
Life is but an empty dream.

10. When public bodies are to be addressed on momentous occasions, when great interests are at stake, and strong passions excited, nothing is valuable in speech further than it is connected with high intellectual and moral endowments.—
Daniel Webster.

11. A man who, exposed to all the influences of such a state of society as that in which we live, is yet afraid of exposing himself to the influence of a few Greek or Latin verses, acts, we think, much like the felon who begged the sheriffs to let him have an umbrella held over his head from the door of Newgate to the gallows, because it was a drizzling morning, and he was apt to take cold.—*Macaulay.*

12. But when the sun broke from the underground,
Then these two brethren, slowly, with bent brows,
Accompanying the sad chariot-bier,
Passed like a shadow through the field that shone
Full summer, to that stream whereon the barge
Palled all its length in blackest samite lay.—*Tennyson's Elaine.*

13. If I could stand for one moment upon one of your high mountain tops, far above all the kingdoms of the civilized world, and there might see, coming up one after another, the bravest and wisest of the ancient warriors, and statesmen, and kings, and monarchs, and priests; and if, as they came up, I might be permitted to ask from them an expression of opinion upon such a case as this, with a common voice, and in thunder tones, reverberating through a thousand valleys, and echoing down the ages, they would cry, "LIBERTY, FREEDOM, THE UNIVERSAL BROTHERHOOD OF MAN!"—*Colonel Baker.*

14. He is proud that he is noble.*

15. The older you become, the wiser you should be.†

16. His conduct is not such as I admire.‡

* "That he is noble" (*adv.*), adjunct of predicate (reason).

† "The older," etc. (*adv.*), modifying "should be."

‡ "As I admire" (*a*), modifying "such."

17. See, here is a bower
Of eglantine, with honeysuckle woven,
Where not a spark of prying light creeps in. §
18. The lamb thy riot doomed to bleed to-day,
Had he thy reason, would he skip and play. ||

SENTENCE-BUILDING.

381. In combining Propositions into a Complex Sentence, observe the following directions:—

1. Clauses should stand as near as possible to the words they qualify.
2. An adjective clause must follow the noun which it qualifies.
3. An adverbial clause *generally* follows the word it modifies; but it is often more elegant to make certain adverbial clauses—especially those of time, place, concession, condition—precede the word they qualify.
4. A noun-clause used as *subject* generally stands *before* the verb; used as the complement of a transitive verb, *after* it.

MODEL OF SYNTHESIS.

I. *Propositions to be combined into a Complex Sentence.*

1. Benjamin Franklin learned his trade.
2. He did this when he was a boy.

§ "Where not a spark," etc. (*a''*), adjunct of "bower."
|| "Would he skip?" "He" is a repetition of subject "lamb." Arrange thus: "Would the lamb which thy riot doomed to bleed to-day, skip and play if he had thy reason?"

3. He afterwards became a distinguished statesman and a philosopher.
4. He learned his trade in his brother's printing-office.
5. His brother published a paper in Boston.

II. *Propositions combined.*

When he was a boy, Franklin, who afterward became a distinguished statesman and philosopher, learned his trade in the printing-office of his brother, who published a paper in Boston.

Exercise 66.

Condense the following PROPOSITIONS into COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. (a) The merino sheep is a native of Spain.
(b) Fine cloth is made from its wool.
2. (a) Tea was unknown in this country a few centuries ago.
(b) We could now scarcely dispense with it.
3. (a) The city of Rome is situated on the river Tiber.
(b) The city is about sixteen miles distant from the sea.
4. (a) The sea-dykes in Holland are generally about thirty feet in height.
(b) They are erected all along the coast.
5. (a) Charles V. was the most renowned of all the emperor of Germany.
(b) He abdicated the throne.
(c) He retired to a convent.
6. (a) The Spaniards were beginning to despair.
(b) The eagle eye of Cortez had been keenly surveying the whole field of battle.
(c) He saw where the sacred banner of Mexico was borne aloft in triumph.
7. (a) Caesar might not have been murdered.
(b) Suppose Caesar had taken the advice of the friend.
(c) The friend warned him not to go to the Senate-house on the Ides of March.
8. (a) The world is of this opinion.
(b) The end of fencing is to hit.
(c) The end of medicine is to cure.
(d) The end of war is to conquer.

9. (a) The heat was so great.
 (b) We were living in Italy.
 (c) We were obliged to remain in darkened rooms during several hours of the day.
10. (a) The lion was magnificent to behold.
 (b) He was standing with his cheek against the grating of his cage.
 (c) He was attempting to break down the obstacle.
 (d) This obstacle separated us.
 (e) He shook the walls of his cage with roars of rage.

CHAPTER IV.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

382. A compound sentence contains two or more principal or independent propositions. These propositions are said to be *co-ordinate*, that is of the same rank, and they are connected by co-ordinative conjunctions.

ILLUSTRATION.

Napoleon crossed the Alps, and descended into the plains of Italy.

383. The propositions in a compound sentence are called **members**. Any member taken by itself may be either a simple sentence or a complex sentence.

384. When a member is a simple sentence it may be called a *simple member*; when a complex sentence, a *complex member*.

385. **Abridged Compounds.**—When co-ordinate propositions have the same subject or predicate, or even the same complement, or the same modifier of the subject or of the predicate verb, the common element may be omitted. The compound sentence is then called a *contracted sentence*.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

1. Either a knave (must have done this) or a fool must have done this.
2. The air expands (by heat) and (the air) becomes light by heat.
3. Frogs and seals live on land and on water—to four simple sentences : 1. Frogs live on land. 2. Frogs live in water. 3. Seals live on land. 4. Seals live in water.
4. With every effort, with every breath, and with every motion—voluntary or involuntary—a part of the muscular substance becomes dead, separates from the living part, combines with the remaining portions of inhaled oxygen, and is removed.

Here there are four predicates, having but one subject, and three enlargements of these predicates distinct from one another. To express the entire meaning of the sentence in separate propositions, we should have first to repeat the subject with each predicate, making four simple sentences, and then repeat each of those sentences with each of the enlargements, making twelve propositions in all.

METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

386. The analysis of the compound sentence involves no new principle. Its members are analyzed according to the models for the analysis of simple and of complex sentences.

CO-ORDINATE CONNECTIVES.

The following table may aid in distinguishing the special nature of the connection of the members of a compound sentence.

Copulative	}	And, also, likewise, again, besides. Moreover, further, furthermore. Not only.....but, then, too (following another word).
Disjunctive	}	Either...or. Neither...nor, nor (in the sense of <i>and not</i>). Otherwise, else.

Adversative....	{	But, on the other hand, but then.
		Only, nevertheless, at the same time.
		However, notwithstanding.
		On the one hand, on the other hand, conversely.
	{	Yet, still, for all that.
Illative.. .. .	{	Accordingly, consequently.
		Hence, whence, so then, and so.
		For, thus.

Exercise 67.

A.

Analyze the following COMPOUND SENTENCES :

1. Men's evil manners live in brass : their virtues we write in water.
2. I love Freedom ; I will speak her words ; I will listen to her music ; I will acknowledge her impulses ; I will stand beneath her flag ; I will fight in her ranks ; and, when I do so, I shall find myself surrounded by the great, the wise, the good, the brave, the noble of every land.—*E. D. Baker.*
3. The arts, sciences, and literature of England came over with the settlers ; the jury came ; the *habeas corpus* came ; the testamentary power came ; and the law of inheritance and descent came also, except that part of it which recognizes the rights of primogeniture, which either did not come at all, or soon gave way to the rule of equal partition of estates among children.—*Webster.*
4.

On a sudden, open fly
With impetuous recoil and jarring sounds
The infernal doors ; and on their hinges grate
Harsh thunder.—*Milton.*
5. It (Bacon's Philosophy) has lengthened life ; it has mitigated pain ; it has extinguished diseases ; it has increased the fertility of the soil ; it has given new securities to the mariner ; it has furnished new arms to the warrior ; it has spanned great rivers and estuaries with bridge of form unknown to our fathers ; it has guided the thunderbolt innocuously from heaven to earth ; it has lighted up the night with the splendor of the day ; it has extended the range of the human vision ;

it has multiplied the power of the human muscles ; it has accelerated motion ; it has annihilated distance ; it has facilitated intercourse, correspondence, all friendly offices, all dispatch of business ; it has enabled men to descend to the depths of the sea, to soar into the air, to penetrate securely into the noxious recesses of the earth, to traverse the land in cars which whirl along without horses, and the ocean in ships which run ten knots an hour against the wind. — *Macaulay's Essay on Lord Bacon.*

B.

Change the following inverted Compound Sentences into their common order :

1. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad. — *Milton.*
2. 'Twas in autumn, and stormy and dark was the night,
And fast were the windows and doors. — *Southey.*

C.

Supply the Ellipses in the following Sentences :

1. But what are lands, and seas, and skies to civilized man, without society, without knowledge, without morals, without religious culture : and how can these be enjoyed, in all their extent, and in all their excellence, but under the protection of wise institutions and a free government ? — *Webster.*
2. Some place their bliss in action, some in ease ;
Those call it pleasure, and contentment these.
3. All nature is but art unknown to thee ;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see ;
All discord, harmony not understood ;
All partial evil, universal good. — *Pope.*

CONTRACTION AND EXPANSION.

387. The compound sentence may be changed into a complex sentence by taking one member as the principal proposition and changing the others, so that as clauses they shall make their statement as attendant or modi-

ying circumstances. Again, by changing the clause to a phrase, we have a simple sentence. This process is called *contraction*. The changing of a simple sentence to a complex sentence, or to a compound sentence, is called *expansion*.

ILLUSTRATION OF CONTRACTION.

Compound Sentence.

The sea spent its fury, and then it became calm.

Complex Sentence.

When the sea had spent its fury it became calm.

Simple Sentence.

The sea, having spent its fury, became calm.

Exercise 68.

A.

Contract the following COMPOUND SENTENCES into COMPLEX SENTENCES, and then, if possible, into Simple Sentences :

1. The light infantry joined the main body, and the British troops retreated precipitately into Boston.
2. He was a worthless man, and he could not command the respect of his neighbours.
3. Egypt is a wonderfully fertile country, and it is annually overflowed by the river Nile.
4. The earth is round, and no one doubts it.
5. The house was very large, and consequently there was little comfort in it.

B.

Contract the following Complex Sentences into Simple Sentences :

1. Socrates proved that virtue is its own reward.
2. When morning began to dawn, our ship struck on a sunken reef near the rock-bound coast.

3. It may be easily shown that the earth is round [the rotundity of].
4. It is generally believed that the soul is immortal.

C.

Expand the following Simple Sentences into Complex Sentences :

1. Quarrelsome persons are disagreeable.
2. The ancients believed the earth to be the centre of the universe.
3. With patience, he might have succeeded.
4. The utility of the telegraph is evident to all.
5. The manner of his escape is a profound mystery.

D.

Contract the following Paragraphs into Complex Sentences : or (if this cannot be done), into Compound Sentences :

1. England abounds in fine pastures.
England abounds in extensive downs.
These pastures and downs feed great numbers of sheep.
2. The Highlanders were composed of a number of tribes.
These tribes were called clans.
Each clan bore a different name.
Each clan lived upon the lands of a different chieftain.
3. The cuckoo builds no nest for herself.
She lays in the nests of other birds.
She does not lay indiscriminately in the nests of all birds.
4. The pitcher-plant is a native of the East Indies.
The pitcher-plant has mugs or tankards.
These are attached to its leaves.
They hold each from a pint to a quart of very pure water.
5. A young girl had fatigued herself one hot day.
It was with running about the garden.
She sat herself down in a pleasant arbor.
She soon fell asleep.

E

*Combine the STATEMENTS in each Paragraph into a
COMPLEX Sentence :*

EXAMPLE.—They resolved upon making a couple of lances to defend themselves against the white bears.

They did not know how to procure arrows at present.
The white bears are far the most furious of their kind.
They had great reason to dread their attacks.

Not knowing how to procure arrows at present, they resolved upon making a couple of lances to defend themselves against the white bears, far the most ferocious of their kind, whose attacks they had great reason to dread.

1. Out of this clay they found means to form a utensil.
This utensil might serve for a lamp.
They proposed to keep it constantly burning with the fat of animals.
They might kill the animals.
2. Washington was sometimes engaged in labors.
The children of wealthy parents would now account these labours severe.
He thus acquired firmness of frame.
He thus acquired a disregard of hardship.
3. Tin is a metal.
Ancient Britain was most famous for tin.
The Phœnicians were first induced to visit Britain for tin.
4. More than half a century ago, London began to be lighted with gas.
This was the first attempt to introduce it into the streets and buildings of a city.
One or two inhabitants had so lighted their houses some years earlier.
5. A little fern pushed her head through the ground.
This was on a bright May morning.
The fern was ready to begin unrolling her head.
She first looked around.
This course became a wise fern.

6. He spoke to the king like a rough man.
 I think this myself.
 He was a rough, angry man.
 He did nothing more.

F.

Construct a NARRATIVE out of the following facts, introducing the several kinds of sentences :

Cotton.

Cotton is a white substance. Cotton grows in the seed-pod of a plant. It is gathered from the pod. It is cleaned out from the seed. It is sent to the manufacturer. The manufacturer makes it, by the help of machinery, into thread or yarn. He also makes it into cloth. Cotton is used very extensively as material for clothing. Its combination of warmth and lightness fits it for a great variety of climate. Its cheapness brings it within reach of the poorest. It is grown largely in India and Egypt. The finest kind is obtained from America.

Iron.

Iron may be said to be the most useful of metals. It is employed in all the more important processes of human labor. We are largely dependent on it for carrying on the business of life. We are largely dependent on it for enjoying the comforts of life. The plough is made of iron. We turn up the ground with the plough. Boilers are made of it. We prepare our food in boilers. Pens are made of it. We write with pens. Railways are made of it. We travel on railways. Iron is employed in three states. *Cast-iron* is so called from being cast in moulds. *Cast-iron* is used for railing, pots, and grates. *Wrought iron* is so called from being wrought by the hammer. This process gives it greater consistency. *Wrought iron* is used for railways. *Wrought iron* is used for all articles in which toughness is required. *Steel* is iron tempered so as to become very hard and fine. *Steel* is used for edged tools and fine instruments. The most useful metal is also the most abundant. This is a happy circumstance that Britain abounds in iron. The principal mines are in Staffordshire, Wales, and the west of Scotland.

The Wind and the Sun.

A dispute once arose between the wind and the sun which of them is the stronger of the two. They agreed to decide it

by this consideration. One of them would sooner make a traveller lay aside his cloak. He was to be accounted the more powerful. The wind blew a blast with all its might and main. This blast was cold as a Thracian storm. This blast was fierce as a Thracian storm. He blew stronger. The traveller wrapped his cloak closer about him. He grasped it tighter with his hands. The sun then broke out. With his welcome beams he dispersed the vapour. With his welcome beams he dispersed the cold. The traveller felt the genial warmth. The sun shone brighter and brighter. The traveller sat down. The traveller was overpowered with the heat. The traveller cast his cloak on the ground.

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