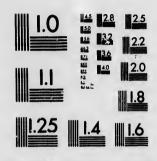


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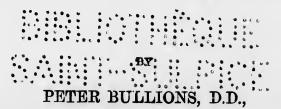
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SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

WITH

PRACTICAL LESSONS AND EXERCISES IN

COMPOSITION AND ANALYSIS.



AUTHOR OF THE SERIES OF ENGLISH, LATIN, AND GREEK GRAMMARS, LATIN AND GREEK READERS, ETC.

MONTREAL:
DAWSON BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS.
1884.

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Leoda Dioni PREFACE nov-the 1st 1887

This book has been carefully revised, in order to have it serve more completely as a school-book for those pupils who ave not time allowed, in their school studies, for a profitable use of all contained in a treatise such as the author's "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Lange." To pupils who may be favored with time for a ore extended course of instruction, and who may require a larger book in higher classes, this little book will be rviceable; as in both books the Definition's and Rules are bestantially the same throughout, and are presented in the me order.

Each "Lesson" of this book presents one topic for study, such a method as will secure an intelligible comprehenon and a practical application of the principles of Grammar entained in the lesson. (See Lesson 10, page 19.) After the erge type, which presents the subject in concise language, an "Illustration," which, in simple, familiar language, rplains the full, practical meaning of the definitions. "bservations" are to be used at the option of the teacher. he "Questions" are so framed as to bring out the leading vcts contained in the preceding text. [It is recommended, at so far as practicable, the pupils be encouraged to recite opically," without the formal use of the questions.] Folwing the questions are many and varied "Exercises" the practical application of the knowledge acquired, and fix it in the most effectual manner on the understanding. importance of these exercises can not be over estimated, and they should on no account be neglected. Subjoined is requirement that the pupils are to construct language accordance with the principles, etc., under consideration, thus show to the teacher their understanding of the les-By this last feature, "Composition" soon becomes asing and profitable to pupils.

A simple and practicable system of Analysis of Sentences, which has been found so useful in the Analytical and Practical Grammar, is presented in this book in its proper place. After a pupil has studied Etymology, he will easily understand this "Analysis," and can readily apply its principles throughout Syntax, when correcting the "Exercises" on the Rules, etc.

The lessons on "Punctuation," "Capitals," etc., have been enlarged, and practical exercises and suggestions may be added at the discretion of the teacher.

Some Introductory Exercises have been inserted as preliminary to the more formal study of the Etymology. These Exercises will interest beginners in the uses of correct language, and prepare their minds for the regular "Lessons." Some classes may be profitably entertained by frequent use of these and similar exercises from the teacher.

In making new plates for the present edition, the publishers have taken occasion to present it in more attractive form. Its improved typographical appearance will commend it to its many friends.

The numbers in parenthesis, in the text, in full-faced figures, refer to the current numbers in this Grammar. Where fuller explanation is desirable, the foot-notes refer to the sections of the Analytical and Practical Grammar, and the manual of Analysis, Parsing, and Composition.

MAY, 1870.

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SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

A manual of English Grammar can give little more than the outlines of the science; and these, to be brought within reasonable compass, must be stated in very concise form. A fruitful source of failure and disappointment in the study of Grammar is found in the willingness of teachers to rest in the bare statement of the author, and to confine the instruction for the most part to the mastery by the pupil of the formal definitions and rules. These are but the framework, the foundation upon which to build.

Since it is the office of grammar to teach us how to write and speak correctly, manifestly that method of study, and those exercises, are most profitable which afford the largest and most careful practice, in writing and speaking—in the application of the rules and principles which the Grammar sets forth.

In presenting to the public this revised edition of a little work which has so long stood the test of practical use in the school-room, the following hints, as aids to its more successful teaching, are submitted, especially to the consideration of teachers of limited experience.

1. The first essential is thorough preparation by the teacher, involving familiarity with each subject, and with the scope and relation of the whole. We cannot teach better than we know; and this preparation involves not simply such a knowledge of Grammar as shall aid us ourselves in the correct use of language, but that fuller and more exhaustive study which will enable us to adapt its teachings to the comprehension of those who look to us for instruction.

2 Each new subject should be carefully illustrated before the pupil undertakes the task of committing to memory the formal definitions, in order that he may clearly apprehend its meaning, and that unnecessary obstacles may be removed.

3. Copious blackboard illustrations and examples should always accompany the lessons, especially giving judicious classifications of principles, divisions, and distinctions of the several subjects of study, and showing the relation of parts to each other.

.... 161

.... 171

Generally, there are three stages in every recitation:

(1.) Brief review of the preceding lesson, (if related to the current one,) tracing its connection and bearing.

(f.) Recitation and thorough discussion of the lesson of the day, the teacher at first eliciting any additional thoughts or illustrations the pupils have to give, and then enlarging as the case demands, until it is thoroughly comprehended. The teacher should not be contented with the simple fact that the pupil has recited a lesson verbatim; but will see to it, also, that he has an intelligent notion of what it is designed to teach.

Lessons should be assigned and explanations given suited rather to the least intelligent than to the brightest members of a class, and the recitation and instruction should reach the *individuals* of the class so far as may be practicable.

(3) Assigning the next day's lesson, as before suggested.

This, it will be seen, in some degree goes over each lesson three times in three successive days, and should result in its mastery.

4. Any skillful study of English grammar must give special prominence to practical exercises in composition, applying the principles illustrated and enforced in the several lessons. The very full and explicit directions for such exercises accompanying each lesson in this manual, will not fail to commend themselves to the judicious teacher. They should be extended as the practical necessities of the class may seem to require.

5. Every teacher using this Manual should also be provided with a copy of the Practical Grammar and of the Analysis, and should make use of the foot-notes to give further illustration and elaboration to subjects that may seem to need it.

6. It is recommended that the Manual of "Analysis, Parsing, and Composition" be taken up in connection with the Grammar, in such portions as shall best illustrate and enforce the teachings of the several lessons, or aid in their practical application.

INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

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nd eir Language, either spoken or written, is made up of words. Each word is the sign of some idea; and by the proper selection and arrangement of words, we are enabled to express our ideas in a correct and intelligent manner.

By careful attention to the *meaning* and *relation* of words, as they are used in writing or speaking, we find that some are employed to express the *names* of things, others to indicate their *qualities*; some express *action* or *state* of some person or thing, and others are used in connection with these to point out the *time*, *place*, *manner*, *degree*, etc., of such action or state; some denote certain *relations* of things to each other, and others again are used chiefly to *connect* the different parts of a sentence to each other.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Thus, although there are many thousand words in the English language, all are classified grammatically into only *nine* different kinds, called *Parts of Speech*. A word is of one kind or another, according to its *use* in a sentence.

Let us now observe the uses and names of the different kinds of words in the following

Sentence.—"The boy rolled a round stone upon the floor, and oh! how swiftly it did go."

[*** The teacher will write this sentence on the blackboard.]

- Q. Is there any person named in this sentence?
- Q. Is there any place named?
- Q. Is there any thing named?
- Q. What, then, are the words "boy," "floor," and "stone?" Ans. They are names.

Mention other names:

- Of things you can see,
- Of things you can hear.
- Of things you can think of.

In Grammar, names are called Nouns or Substantives.

Q. What, then, is a noun?

Ans. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing (36).

Exercise the pupil on nouns by asking him to write a number on the slate or blackboard; also by giving him sentences in which they occur, and requiring him to point them out. For Exercises see page 7. Do the same with the other Parts of Speech, as they are defined.]

- Q. What word is before boy in this sentence?—before round. stone?
- Q. Why, then, is "the" put before "boy?" (94.)
- Q. Why is "a" put before "round stone?" (93.)
- **Q.** Can you give other nouns and put these little words a or the before them?

[Let the pupil turn to page 19 (Exercises) and prefix these words, in the same way, to the words in the list, beginning with "chair."]

- Q. What word instead of a do you put before the word "owl?"—Does this word mean the same as a?
- Q. Can you tell the difference between a man and the man?"
- Q. What are these words "the" and "a," and what do they show? Ans. They are Articles, and show the manner in which the nouns "boy" and "stone" are used.

Q. What, then, is an article?

Ans. An article is a word put before a noun to show the manner in which it is used. [Lesson 9.] For Exercises see page 19.

Q. What word is before "stone?"

What kind of stone is it?—Mention other kinds of stones. Write twenty other nouns, and put before each of them some word to tell the kind.

[In the Exercises, page 21, let the pupil point out the adjectives.]

Q. What are these words called that tell what kind of thing? (See 102.)

- Q. What, then, is an adjective? [Write the definition.]
- Q. In the part of the sentence, "It did go swiftly," what "did go ?"
- Q. For what, then, is the word "it" used in this sentence? (It is used instead of the noun "stone.")

Words used instead of nouns are named Pronouns, (127.)

- Q. What, then, is a pronoun? [Write the definition.]
- Q. Can you read the sentence, "Give me the pears you bought of him; I want them," and put nouns in the place of the words "me," "you," "him," and "them?"
- Q. Look again at the sentence; what did the boy do?
- Q. What is said of the stone? (Ans. It did go upon the floor.)
- Q. What, then, does the word "rolled" tell us of?

Ans. The action of the boy.

Q. What does "did go" tell us of?

Ans. The state of the stone after the boy rolled it.

[For other Exercises, see page 28.]

Words of this kind, such as "rolled," and "did go," are named Verbs. [Put the definition on the blackboard.]

The subject of a verb is that of which the verb tells or affirms something. Thus, in the sentence, "boy" is the subject of the verb "rolled," and "it" (standing for stone) is the subject of the verb "did go."

Q. What, then, is a verb?

Ans. A verb is a word or words used to express the act, being, or state of its subject; as I write; he exists; time flies. [Exercises, page 40.]

Take the list of nouns, (page 11, Exercises) and tell something of each. Write out the sentences.

Q. How did the stone go?

Q. What does "swiftly" tell us?

Ans. The manner in which the stone "did go."

Q. If you say "the stone did go very swiftly," what does the word "very" do?

Ans. It modifies the meaning of the word "swiftly."

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- Q. What would "very" here tell us? Ans. A circumstance about the motion of the stone. It did go very swiftly.
- Q. If you were to say "a very round stone," what would "very" be used for? Ans. To modify the adjective "round."

 Words of this kind such as "criffly" and "very"

Words of this kind, such as "swiftly" and "very," are named Adverbs.

- Q. What, then, is an adverb? (See 293.)

 Point out the adverbs on page 82, Exercise II.
- Q. What is the use of the word "upon" in the sentence?

 Ans. It shows the relation between the "floor" and "rolled."
- Q. If you add to the sentence so that the latter part will read "how swiftly it did go under the table," what relation does the word "under" show? Ans. The relation of the verb "did go" to the noun "table."

Words of this kind are named Prepositions. (303.)

- Q. What, then, is a preposition?
- Q. This sentence has two parts **connected** by one word. Name the parts. Ans. (1.) "The boy rolled a round stone upon the floor." (2.) "Oh! how swiftly it did go!"
- Q. What word joins these two parts of the sentence?
 Words that join words and sentences are called Conjunctions.
- Q. What, then, is a conjunction? Ans. A conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences. (311.)
- Q. What is "oh!" here? Ans. It is a word expressing surprise at seeing the stone rolling.

Such words are called Interjections. (317.)

Write five sentences containing interjections.

- Q. How many kinds of words are there in this sentence?

 Ans. Nine.
- Q. What are they called in English Grammar?

 Ans. They are called Parts of Speech. (31.)
- Q. Can all the words in our language be classed under these nine Parts of Speech? Ans. Yes.

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Q. What are you going to learn by studying Grammar?

Ans. The way to put these Parts of Speech properly together,

so as to speak and write the English language correctly.

Note.—Let the teacher take other appropriate sentences and go over them in the same way until the pupils can readily tell the Parts of Speech in their simplest uses.

Examples of the Parts of Speech.

The teacher may now write upon the blackboard a sentence with illustrations, similar to the following:

Carlo was a noble dog; he swam bravely towards the shore; but alas! he was drowned.

1. Noun.....as, wheat, dogs, etc.... Carlo (was)

2. Article.... a, an, the α

3. Adjective ... first, larger, etc...noble (dog)

4. Pronoun ... I, they, who, etc...he

5. Verb walks, has gone, etc. swam

6. Adverb.... here, largely, etc...bravely

7. Preposition. on, from, into, etc. towards (the shore)

8. Conjunction. and, both, or, etc. . but

9. Interjection. oh! ah! etc.....alas! (he was drowned.)

[Write upon the blackboard the **definition** of each of the **parts of** speech, in a series of lessons, and illustrate each fully—the pupil committing the definition thoroughly to memory.]

After an exercise like the foregoing, it may be profitable to build up a sentence, by successive additions of words, to illustrate the different parts of speech, and to exercise the pupil in discriminating the use of words in simple compositions.

Commence with some **noun**, as "birds," and, by suitable questions, let the pupils add successive elements, e.g., What part of speech is at is?

State something a bird does or can do. [Sing.] "What part of speech is sing?"

*** Teacher or pupil writes the sentence, "Birds sing."

Put before it some word to tell the kind of birds. [Question as before.]

How or when, etc., do birds sing?

Where do birds sing? [In the grove.]

What word joins "grove" to the rest of the sentence, and shows relation between them?

So proceed to develop a sentence, somewhat as in the preceding exercises we discussed Parts of Speech in the one there given.

Preliminary Definitions.

The simplest form of language is a word, as a name or sign.

That for which it stands is called an idea, that is, an image or picture of something in the mind, something that the mind knows.

Inverting this order, we have the following:

An object, or a quality, or the doing of something, or the manner, etc., in which something is done, is *perceived* by the mind.¹

Such perception or consciousness is called an *idea* of the object, quality, act, manner, etc.

A spoken or written sign, standing for such idea, is called a word.

When we are conscious of some *relation* to each other of two or more ideas, we are said to think. The operation of the mind is called *thought*, and the words when put together are called a *phrase*; as, *Green grass*.

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We may affirm—state our opinion or judgment—of two ideas, affirming or denying one or the other; as, Grass is green.—Ice is not cold. The expression of such judgment is called a proposition, and the words taken together make a sentence.²

A word is the sign of an idea; as, book, sweet, write.

A phrase is the simplest expression of a thought not affirmed. (335.)

A proposition is a single statement or affirmation. (332.)

A sentence is the expression of a proposition. (333.)

A clause is a dependent part of a sentence, containing a subject and a verb. (334.)

*** Any expression containing the verb in any of its moods is a clause or a sentence, and not a phrase.

Sentences.

Every sentence consists of two parts, the subject and the predicate. (340-349.)

The *subject* is the word or words standing for that of which we speak.

The *predicate* is the statement or affirmation which we make of the subject.

The following are examples:

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Subject. Predicate. Birds. sing.

Sugar.. is sweet.

The bad boy...tore his book.

The lame man..limps on his lame leg.

The boy who studies. will improve rapidly.

The fear of the Lord..is the beginning of wisdom.

The stars which we see at night..disappear when the sun rises.

Note.—Pupils should be thoroughly exercised in distintinguishing between the *subject* and the *predicate*, until they can readily name each in any sentence whose meaning they can understand. All that is not subject is predicate, and all that is not predicate is subject.

The very first step in the analysis of sentences is to inculcate the necessity of separating every sentence into two parts—that of which the statement or affirmation is made, and that which is said of it.

1. The *substantive* in the subject (nominative case) is of itself often *insufficient*, and the fitness of the predicate is frequently determined by the limiting words; as,

A generous man...will be honored. A selfish man...will be despised.

2. Similarly, although the *verb* is the principal word in the predicate, it may be so *modified by other words*, that, with the same verb, the sense of the predicate shall be essentially changed.

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(1.) By an adverb; as,

The man.... walked slowly.
The man.... walked rapidly

(2.) By an objective; as,

He... wore a hat. He... wore a cap.

(3.) By an attribute; as,

It....tastes sweet.
It....tastes sour.

3. With the same verb, the predication of different subjects may be satisfied by a change of the subordinate word.

Our friends....treat us with kindness.
Our enemies....treat us with contempt.

*** For further discussion and exercises, see "Analysis."

Note to Teachers.—The preceding exercises are intended only as suggestions for oral lessons, which the skillful teacher will extend or modify at pleasure. The pupil should not have any part of this Introduction assigned as a task to be committed to memory: the text in the "Lessons" furnishes ample material for that, after the principles it embodies have been carefully set before the mind of the learner.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

[References.—The figures enclosed in parentheses in the text refer to the sections in this grammar. The foot-notes, corresponding with the small index figures in the text, refer to the sections of the Analytical and Practical English Grammar (A. & P. Gr.), and to the Manual on Analysis, arsing, and Composition (Anal.), belonging to this series.]

LESSON 1.—Definition and Division.

[Commit Definitions and Rules accurately to memory.]

- 1. Language is the means by which we express our thoughts.
- 2. The expression of our thoughts by sounds is Spoken Language; the expression of them by letters (7) is Written Languages (12), or Printed I anguage (13).
- 3. English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.
- 4. It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthoraphy, Etymology Syntax, and Prosody.
- 5. Orthography treats of letters (6); Etymolty of words (27); Syntax of sentences (331); and rosody of elocution and versification (610).

atten? What is English Grammar? Into how many parts is it ided? Mention them. What does Orthography treat of? Etymology?

1.

PART FIRST. - ORTHOGRAPHY.

LESSON 2.—Letters and Syllables.

- 6. Orthography treats of letters and the proper mode of combining them into syllables and words.
- 7. A letter is a mark or character used in forming a word, and denotes a sound of the human voice, as b-a-d bad, g-o go, p-u-p-i-l pupil.
- 8. Some letters represent several sounds, as a in able, cedar, fall, mat; c in cedar, call.
- 9. Sometimes two or more letters are used to represent a sound, as ch in child, ough in though, sh in finish.
- 10. When a letter in a word is not used in pronunciation, it is called a *silent* letter, as h in hour, e in peace.

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11. There are about forty Elementary Sounds in the English Language, represented in writing or in print by twenty-six letters called the Alphabet:

12. Written Letters .- Capitals.

ABCDEFFHIJKLMNOTQRYTUVUXYL

Written Letters .- Small.

abcdefghijklmnop grstuvw by z.

13. ROMAN LETTERS—CAPITALS.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

Roman Letters.—Small.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

ITALIC LETTERS.—CAPITALS.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.

Italic Letters.—Small.

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz.

REMARKS.—Italic letters are generally used for emphasis.

- 14. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.
- 15. A Vowel makes a free, full sound of itself.

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- 16. A Consonant cannot be fully sounded without a vowel.
- 17. The Vowels are $a \in i \circ u$; also, w and y, not before another vowel sounded in the same syllable as in law, boy.
- 18. All the other letters are **Consonants**; also, w and y, before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in war, youth.
- 19. A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in one sound, as ou in out, oi in oil.
- 20. A Triphthong is the union of three vowels in one sound, as eau in beauty.
- **21.** A *Syllable* is a distinct sound, uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters, as farm, ea-gle, a-e-ri-al.
 - 22. A word of one syllable is a Monosyllable, as man.
 - 23. A word of two syllables is a Dissyllable, as man-ly.
- 24. A word of three syllables is a Trisyllable, as man-li-ness.
- **25.** A word of *four or more syllables* is a *Polysyllable*, as *Em-i-gra-tion*, *In-sub-or-di-na-tion*.
- 26. Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

QUESTIONS.—What is Orthography? What is a letter? When is a letter called silent? How many Elementary Sounds are there in English? How many Letters are there? How are they divided? What is a Vowel?—a Consonant? Name the Vowels. When are w and y vowels? When Consonants? What is a Diphthong? A Triphthong? What is a Syllable? What is a Word of one Syllable called? Of two? Of three? Of four or more? What is Spelling?

¹ Anal. & Practical Grammar-51-76.

Note to Teachers.—Before a new lesson is assigned to the class, its subject-matter should be carefully exemplified by **oral exercises**, familiar questions, and **blackboard illustrations**, so that its scope may be fully apprehended—not for the purpose of relieving the pupil of its labor, but of making it possible for him to perform it understandingly. Use additional questions as they may suggest themselves; and in the reviews, let the pupil recite topically without questions.

PART SECOND.-ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON 3.—Division of Words.

- 27. Etymology treats of the classes of words, and the changes of the form of words, by inflection and by derivation.
- 28. Inflection is the change of form or termination which a word undergoes to express the different relations of person, gender, number, case, comparison, voice, mood, tense, etc.; as

He sees great men; a greater man saw him.

- 29. Derivation is the change in a word from its simple primitive word; ² thus, manly, manhood, mankind are derived from "man."
- 30. Words, in respect to their meaning and use, are divided into nine classes, called

PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 31. The names of the parts of speech in our language are Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.
- 32. Of these, the Noun, Pronoun, and Verb and some Adjectives and Adv. rbs are inflected (111,296).
- 33. In grammar, the inflection of Nouns, Pronouns, and Verbs is usually treated of as "Accidents" (45, 132, 202).
 - 34. Farsing is the taking of the words of a sen-

tence separately to tell to what class each belongs, and then describing it (324).

35. ILLUSTRATION.—"The bad boy strikes John" is a sentence. Each of these words is a part of speech, and holds a certain relation to other words in the sentence. We parse these words when we tell what parts of speech they are and describe them. Thus, the is an article and belongs to boy; bad is an adjective qualifying or describing boy; boy is a common noun, and is the subject of strikes; strikes is a verb, and tells what the boy does. John is a noun, and is the subject of the verb strikes.

QUESTIONS.—What does Etymology treat of? What is Inflection? What is Derivation? What are the nine classes of words called? Name them Which are inflected? Under what other name is the Inflection of Words treated of? What is Parsing? What does etc. (28) mean?

LESSON 4.-Nouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

36. A **Noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John*, *London*, *book*.

37. Nouns are either Common or Proper.

38. A **Common Noun** is a name applied to all things of the same sort; as, boy, city, river.

39. A Proper Noun is the name applied to an individual person or thing only; as, John, London, the Ohio.

40. A Noun is also called a Substantive.

41. A Substantive is a noun, or any word or part of a sentence used as a noun.

Thus: The man has gone. He reads. To read well requires much practice. That industry leads to success needs no proof. These substantives are subjects of the several verbs "has gone," "reads," "requires," "needs." (See Lesson 39.)

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42. ILLUSTRATION.—1. Every thing of which a person can speak, hear, or think, has a name; that name in grammar is called a noun. Names common to all things of the same sort or class, are called **Common Nouns**; as, man, woman, day, river, city.

2. Names applied only to individuals of a sort or class, and not common to all, are called **Proper Nouns**; as, John, Friday, Thames, London. Common nouns, then, distinguish sorts or classes; Proper nouns distinguish individuals. Thus, the noun "Man" is the name of a class or species, and is applied equally to all, or is common to all the individuals in that class. But "John" is a name that belongs only to certain individuals of that class, and not to others; it is therefore not Common but Proper.

3. A word that makes sense after an article (91), or the phrase speak of, is a noun; A man; I speak of money.

Observations.

- 43. Common nouns are divided into several classes, such
 - 1. Class names; as, book, scholar.
 - 2. Collective nouns, or nouns of multitude; as, people.
 - 3. Names of materials; as, iron.
 - 4. Names of measures; as, foot, yard.
 - (1. Names of qualities; as, goodness.
 - 5. Abstract 2. Names of actions; as, flight. 3. Names of states; as, sleep.
- **44.** Names of *actions* derived from verbs, are sometimes called *verbal* nouns; as, *reading*, *writing*, etc.
 - 45. The Accidents of Nouns are Person, Gender, Number. 11d (a. (33, 28.) [APPENDIX IV, 1.]

Note.—These accidents belong also to personal and relative pronouns (132).

QUESTIONS.—What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? What part of speech are names of things? What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?

—a verbal noun? Are these nouns proper or common? What Accidents belong to nouns?

EXERCISES.

[Point out the **nouns** in the following sentences; say why they are nouns. Tell whether they are **proper** or **common**, and why. Exercises of this kind may be taken from any book.]

The table and chairs in this room belong to Robert.—The houses and streets in New York are larger than those in Albany.—The principal cities in the State of New York, are New York, Brooklyn, Albany, Rochester, and Buffalo.—Wheat, corn, rye, and oats, are extensively cultivated.—Apples, pears, cherries, plums, and other fruits abound.—George is older than John; they both study arithmetic and grammar.—No man can serve two masters.—Knowledge is the treasure of the mind.—The proof of the pudding is in the eating.—Use soft words and hard arguments—God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.

[Write a list of all the nouns in your reading lesson.

Write additional sentences, taking care in all instances to begin proper nouns with a capital letter. (12.)]

LESSON 5.—Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

- 46. Person, in grammar, denotes the distinction of a noun or pronoun to denote the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.
 - 47. The persons are three, First, Second, and Third.
- 48. A noun or a pronoun is in the first person, when it denotes the speaker or writer; as,
 - "I Paul have written it."—" We are ready to go."
- 49. A noun or a pronoun is in the second person, when it denotes something spoken to; as,
 - "Thou, God, seest me."—" You may go, boys."

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- 50. A noun or a pronoun is in the third person, when it denotes something spoken of; as,
 - "Truth is mighty."—" The dog followed me."
- 51. The first and second persons can belong only to nouns denoting individuals, or things regarded as individuals, because such only can speak or be spoken to. The third person may belong to all nouns, because every individual or object may be spoken of.
- **52.** ILLUSTRATION.—**Person** makes no change either in the meaning or the form of a noun, but simply denotes the **manner** in which it is used. Moreover, as the name of the speaker or of the person spoken to, is seldom expressed (the pronoun *I* or thou being used in its stead), a noun is very rarely in the first or the second person.¹

EXERCISES.

[In the following exercises point out the nouns and pronouns (126), and tell their persons.]

The teacher said to Jane, I am pleased with your progress.

—Thou art the man.¹—John, where are you going?—

Mary, does James study grammar?—We, the people of the State, do ordain.—Go along, Joseph.—The earth is a round ball.—Earth and sky! how beautiful ye are.—

Man is the servant of God.—Hence! home! ye idle creatures!—Gazing upon the same moon that smiles for you, the Indian lover wooed his mate.

QUESTIONS.—What does person denote? How many persons are there? When is a noun in the first person? When in the second? When in the third? To what sort of nouns do the first and the second persons belong? Why? To what does the third belong? Why? Does person make any difference in the meaning or the form of the noun? What then does it denote? Is the name of the speaker, or the person spoken to, often mentioned? What words are used instead of them?

LESSON 6.—Gender. on,

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

- 53. Gender is the distinction of nouns and pronouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- 54. Nouns and pronouns denoting males Masculine; as, man, boy-king, lion-I-he.
- 55. Nouns and pronouns denoting females are Feminine; as, woman, girl—queen, lioness-I—she.
- 56. Nouns and pronouns denoting neither males nor females are Neuter; as, books, houses, it.
- 57. The masculine and feminine genders of nouns are distinguished in three ways-

1. By different corresponding words; as,

Musculine.		Musculine.	Feminine.	Musculine.	Feminine.
Bachelor	maid	Gentleman	lady	Papa	mamma
Beau	belle	Hart	roe	Ram, buck	ewe
Boy	girl	Horse	mare	Samuel	Sarah
Brother	sister	Husband	wife	Sir	madam
Buck	doe	He	she	Son	daughter
Bull	cow	King	queen	Stag	hind
Colt	filly	Jupiter	Juno	Sloven	slattern
Drake	duck	Man	woman	Steer	heifer
Earl	countess	Lad	lass	Swain	nymph
Father	mother	Lord	lady	Uncle	aunt
Friar	nun	Master	mistress	Wizard	witch
Gander	goose	Nephew	niece	Youth	maiden
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*** Some words of this class are compounded by prefixing another distinguishing word; as,

Masculine. Landlord Schoolmaster	Feminine. landlady schoolmistress	Masculine. Stepson Peacock	Feminine. stepdaughter
Grandfather	grand <i>mother</i>	reacock	peahen

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2. By a difference of termination; as,

		Masculine.	Feminine.
Masculine.	Feminine.		duchess
Abbot	abbess	Duke	
Actor	actress	Emperor	empress
Administrator	administratrix	Enchanter	enchantress
Ambassador	ambassadress	Executor	executrix
Arbiter	arbitress	Governor	governess
Author	authoress	Heir	heiress
Augustus	Augusta	Hero	heroine
Baron	baroness	Host	hostess
Benefactor	benefactress	Jew	jewess
Bridegroom	bride	Lion	lioness
Count	countess	Marquis	marchioness
Deacon	deaconess	Mayor	mayoress
Negro	Negress	Songster	songstress
Patron	patroness	Sorcerer	sorceress
Peer	peeress	Sultan	sultana
Poet	poetess	Tiger	tigress
Priest	priestess	Traitor	traitress
Prince	princess	Tutor	tutoress
Prophet	prophetess	Votary	votaress
Shepherd	shepherdess	Widower	widow

3. By a distinguishing word prefixed; as,

	Masculine.	Feminine.
Sparrow	Cock sparrow	Hen sparrow
Goat	He goat	She goat
Servant	Man servant	Maid servant
Child	Male child	$\it Female { m child}$
Descendants	Male descendants	Female descendants
Wilson	Mr. Wilson	Mrs. Wilson
71 220022	Master Wilson	Miss Wilson

Observations.

58. Some nouns denote either a male or a female; as parent, servant, neighbor. Such are said to be of the common gender.

- 59. Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine; as baker, brewer; and some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, laundress, seamstress.
- **60.** Some nouns, generally of the *neuter* gender, have masculine or feminine pronouns when *personified*; that is, when the thing they represent is considered to have life; as, "The *sun* is bright, but how does *he* make the day?"

"The ship was admired as she sailed past."1

61. The names of animals of inferior size, or whose sex is not known, are often considered *neuter*, and are followed by the neuter pronoun; as, "The cat caught a mouse and ate it."

What nouns are said to be masculine? What, feminine? What, neuter? How are the masculine and feminine genders of nouns distinguished? When a noun denotes either a male or a female, of what gender is it sometimes said to be? Name some nouns that have no corresponding gender. When is a noun, generally neuter, personified? The names of what animals are often considered of the neuter gender?

EXERCISES.

- [1. In the preceding lists, tell the feminine of each masculine noun, and the masculine of each feminine. Tell the gender of each noun and pronoun in the exercises. Lesson 4 and 5.
- 2. Tell the part of speech and gender of the following words; thus, house, a noun, neuter; boy, a noun, masculine, etc.]

House, boy, stone, boot, cow, father, mother, sister, brother, daughter, aunt, nephew, niece, uncle, shepherd, paper, pen, ink, parent, neighbor, friend, lion, widow, baron, negro, hero, horse, tree, bird, mouse, fly, landlord, bride, songster, madam, etc.

LESSON 7.—Number.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

62. Number is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one.

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¹ A. & P. Gr.—130, 1046.

- 63. Nouns have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular denotes one; as, book, tree, man; the Plural, more than one; as, books, trees, men.
- 64. The Plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular as, singular book, plural books.

Special Rules.

- **65.** Rule 1. Nouns ending in s, sh, ch soft, z, x, or o form the plural by adding es; as, Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; topaz, topazes; fox, foxes; hero, heroes.
- 66. Exceptions.—Nouns ending in eo, io, and yo, and in ch sounding k, add s only; as, cameo, cameos; folio, folios; monarch, monarcas. Also canto as cantos; but other nouns in o after a consonant now commonly add es; as, grotto, grottoes; tyro, tyroes, etc.
- 67. Rule 2. (1) Nouns ending in y after a consonant change y into ies in the plural; as, Lady, ladies.
- (2) Nouns ending in *y after a vowel*, follow the general rule; as, *Day*, *days*.
- (3) Also, all *proper nouns* ending in y; as, the *Pompeys*, the *Tullys*.
- 68. Rule 3. Nouns ending in f or fe, change f or fe into ves in the plural; as, Loaf, loaves; life, lives.
- 69. Exception.—But dwarf, scarf; brief, chief, grief; kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; fife, strife; proof, hoof, roof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in ff have their plural in s; as, muff, muffs; staff has sometimes stares.

Remark.—Letters, marks, and figures are made plural by adding 's; as, "Dot your i's and cross your t's. Your s's are not well made. The + 's are between the 6's and 7's, and the —'s between the 4's and 5's."

Observations.1

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70. Some nouns form the plural irregularly. They are the following:—

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.		Plural.
Man	men	Teoth		teeth
Woman	women	Goose		geese
Child	children	Mouse		mice
Foot	feet	Penny (a	coin)	pennies
Ox	oxen	Penny (a	ralue)	pence
Singular.			Plural.	
Brother (one	of the same	family)	brothers	
Brother (one	of the same	society)	brethren	1
Sow or swin	е		sows er	swine
Die (for gam		dice		
Die (for coin	ing)		dies	

Most compound words pluralize the first part, as,

Aid-de-camp	${f aids-de-camp}$
Court-martial	courts-martial
Cousin-german	cousins-german
Father-in-law, etc.	fathers-in-law, etc.

71. Words from *foreign languages* sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in um or on have a in the plural; but is, in the singular, is changed into es; ex and ix, into iees: us into i: if as,

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
Apex	apices	Crisis	crises
Automaton	automata	Magus	magi
Axis	axes	Mr.	Messrs

- 72. Proper names have the plural, only when they refer to a race or family; as, the Stewarts; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve Cæsars.³
- 73. Names of metals, virtues, vires, and things weighed or measured, are mostly singular; as, gold, meekness, temperance, milk.

- 74. Some nouns are plural only; as, annals, bellows.
- 75. Some are alike in both numbers; as, deer, sheep, trout.
- 76. Some nouns are plural in form; but in construction, either singular or plural; as, amends, means, news, riches, pains; and the names of sciences; as, mathematics, ethics, etc.

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- 77. Some nouns are used in the singular form to denote a quantity or class of objects, as two hundred, the horse is useful to mankind. (99.)
- QUESTIONS.—What is meant by number? How many numbers have nouns? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding es? How do nouns ending in in y after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—nouns ending in f or fe? Proper nouns? When have proper nouns a plural? What nouns are mostly singular? Mention some nouns that are plural only. Some that are alike in both numbers. Some that are plural in form, but either singular or plural in construction. When is the article a or an not used?

EXERCISES.

[1. Put the following words in the **plural**, and give the rule for forming it; thus. "Chair, plural chairs." Rule, "The plural is commonly formed," etc. (64); "Fox, plural foxes." Rule, "Nouns in s, sh," etc. (65).]

Chair, fox, table, cat, dog, horse, house, hand, finger, arm, boy, girl; dish, church, box, miss, sky, body, key, day, toy, leaf, knife, wife, loaf. An apple (96), a pear, a cherry, a bush, a church, a bell.

[2. Write the singular of the following plurals:]

Flies, boxes, leaves, brashes, knives, marshes, bays, tables, bushes, trees, dogs, ducks, geese, wives, duties, churches, matches, mice, days, keys, staves, horses, mules, cows, sheep, goats, etc.

[3. Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns:]

Man, woman, child, ox, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; father-in-law, mother-in-law, court-martial, fisherman, washerwoman, cousin-german, etc.

[4. Tell the gender and the number of the following nouns: give the plural and the rule for forming it; thus, "House," a noun, neuter, singular; plural, "houses." "The plural is commonly formed," etc.]

House, boy, stone, boat, father, king, knife, aunt, emperor, governess, pen, lioness, baron, sister, brother, lord, box, bush, rush, goose, bachelor, doe, bride, fly, loaf, study, coach, toy, mouth, watch, hero, church, tree, way, wife, half, fish, table, mother, apple, cherry, star, sun, moon, planet, earth, sky, mountain, river, sea, etc.

[5. Write short sentences, each containing at least one of the nouns in the preceding list.]

LESSON 8.—Cases of Nouns.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

- 78. Case is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence.
- 79. Nouns have three cases; the Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.
- **80.** The **Nominative** case commonly expresses that of which something is said, or declared; ¹ as,

The sun shines. He is a scholar.

- 81. The **Possessive** case denotes that to which mething belongs; ² as, the *lady's* fan. (479.)
- **82.** The **Objective** case denotes the object of some action in relation; ³ as, James assists *Thomas*; they live in *Albany*.
- 83. The nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike in form.
- 84. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and s, to the nominative; as John's book.

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¹Anal.—**145, 146.** A. & P. Gr.—**164.** ²Anal.—**149.** ²A. & P. Gr.—**165.** 3**166.**

85. When the plural ends in s, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as Ladies' hats.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

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86. Nouns are thus declined:

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	
Nom.	Lady	Ladies	John	
Poss.	Lady's	Ladies'	John's	
Obi.	Lady	Ladies	John	

87. Proper names generally have no plural.

PARSING OF THE NOUN.

SS. A noun is **parsed etymologically**, by telling its *gender*, *number*, and *case*; thus, "The *lady*'s fan is lost."

Lady's, a noun, feminine, in the possessive singular.

Observations.

S9. When the nominative singular ends in ss, or letters of a similar sound, the s after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake." This however is seldom done, unless the word following begins with s; thus we do not say "the prince' feather," but the "prince's feather."

Note.—A noun in the possessive case limits the noun to which it is joined.

90. The *objective* case, with *of before it*, following another noun, is generally equivalent to the *possessive*; thus, "the rage of the tyrant" and "the tyrant's rage" mean the same thing. Sometimes, however, the meaning will be different.

QUESTIONS.—What is case? How many cases have nouns? What does the nominative case express?—the possessive?—the objective? What two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular formed?—the possessive plural?

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EXERCISES.

GENDER, NUMBER, AND CASE.

[Parse the following nouns by telling their gender, number and case; thus, "Father," a noun, masculine, in the nominative singular.

Father, mother, sister's husband, brother's wife, uncle's house, Tom's books, city, virtue's reward, brother's widow: Washington the hero, the statesman, the father of his country; carpenter, farmer, lawyer's fees, teacher's manual, scholar's assistant, ladies' gloves; beans, peas, plums, cherries, houses. The farmer plants potatoes in his field. Flowers grow in the garden.

Review the whole thoroughly from the beginning, answering accurately all the questions.]

LESSON 9.—The Article.

- 91. An Article is a word put before a noun, to show the manner in which it is used.
 - 92. There are two articles, a or an, and the.
- 93. A or an is called the Indefinite Article, because it shows that the noun is used indefinitely, and not limited to a particular person or thing; as, a king, an eagle, meaning any king, any eagle.
- 94. The is called the Definite Article, because it shows that the noun is used definitely, and refers

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^{*} In using the above exercises, it will save much time, which is all important, if the pupil be taught to say every thing belonging to the noun in the fewest words possible; and always in the same order as above. For the same reason, the distinction of nouns into proper and common may be omitted. And as person has nothing to do with the form of a noun, but only with its use, and as nouns are almost always of the third person, the mention of person may be omitted, unless the noun is in the first or the second person. It will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of his description; thus, Father, a noun, because the name of an object; masculine, because it denotes the male sex; singular, because it denotes but one; plural, fathers. Rule, "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular."

to a particular person or thing; as, the king, meaning some particular king, known or described. [APPENDIX IV, 2.]

Observations.

95. A is used before a consonant; a house, a ripe apple. Also before words beginning with u long, and eu, because they sound as if beginning with the consonant y: thus, A unit, a use a eulogy,—pronounced as if written, a yunit, a yuse, a yeulogy.

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- 96. Instead of a, an is used before an adjective or noun, beginning with a vowel or a silent h; as, an aged man, an acorn, an hour.
- 97. A or an is used before the singular number only; the, before either the singular or the plural.
- **98.** Generally, a noun without an article is taken in its widest sense, as, Man is mortal, meaning All mankind: Or, in an indefinite sense; as, There are men destitute of all shame, meaning some men.
- 99. The is sometimes put before a noun denoting the species; 1 as, the oak; the lion.
- 100. When an article and adjective are used with a noun, the article generally stands before the adjective; as, a large eagle, the tame lion.

PARSING OF THE ARTICLE.

101. The article is parsed by stating whether it is definite or indefinite, and mentioning the noun to which it belongs; thus,

A book. A is an article, indefinite, and belongs to "book."

QUESTIONS.—What is an article? How many articles are there? What is A or An called? Why? What is The called? Why? What is A used before? What is An used before? In what sense is a noun without an article taken? How is the article parsed?

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THE ADJECTIVE

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say a man, or an man? and why? a apple, or an apple? and why? a house, or an house? and why? a hour, or an hour? and why?

[Prefix the indefinite article in the proper form to the following words:] Chair, table, horse, cart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, ear, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, book, pot, bench, open wagon, round stone, old hat, penny trumpet, ice house, house, honor, hopeful boy, honest man.1

[Correct the Errors in the following examples, and give a reason for the change; parse the articles:]

An cup, an door, a apple, an pear, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, a honor, an crow, a ostrich, an pen, a ugly beast, an pretty beast, an pretty thing, an huge monster, a upper room, a ice house, an nice house, an humorous poem, a open wagon, an hard nut, a industrious boy, a honest man. The mankind are divided into the different races. Farmers live in a country. The lions roam in a forest.

[Write the singular of the plural nouns (Ex. 2, page 14), and prefix the indefinite article.]

LESSON 10.—The Adjective.

102. An Adjective is a word used to qualify a substantive; as, A good boy; a square box; ten dollars. To lie is base. That I said so is true. He is poor.

** For the word Substantive, see Lesson 4.

103. Adjectives may be classified as follows:

104. I. Common adjectives, denoting quality; as, good, large, sweet, etc.

105. II. Numeral adjectives, denoting quantity and number. Of these there are four kinds:

1. Definite numerals, denoting some exact number; as, six dollars, the eighth page. These are distinguished as

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ENDIX

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are there? ? What is oun without (a) Cardinal, which indicate how many; as, one, two. These are sometimes written in figures; thus, 1, 2, 3, 4.

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- (b) Ordinal, which indicate which one of a number; as, first, second, etc. Sometimes written, 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, etc.
- 2. Indefinite numerals are such as do not denote any exact number; as, few, many, several.
- 3. **Distributive** numerals point out a number of objects individually; as, each, every, either, neither. These are also called *indefinite pronouns*. (See 171.)
- 4. Those denoting quantity as applied to materials; as, much, little, some, any.
- 106. III. Circumstantial Adjectives express some condition of time, place, nation, etc.; as, daily bread, Eastern clime, American continent.

Under this head may be included *proper* adjectives derived from nouns; as, *Roman*, *Grecian*, *Napoleonic*.

- **107.** IV. *Participial* adjectives, consisting of participles or compounds of participles used as adjectives; as, an amusing story, unmerited rebuke. [See APPENDIX IV, 3.]
- 108. ILLUSTRATIONS.—The name of a thing, mentioned without qualification, brings before the mind only the idea of the thing itself. Thus, the word "horse," for example, may stand for any horse. But if we wish to describe or point out a particular horse more definitely, and to distinguish it from others of the same species, we qualify the term; i.e., we connect with the name or noun a word denoting some property, or quality, or circumstance by which it may be known or distinguished; as, "a little horse;" "an old horse;" "a black horse;" "an American horse," etc. Words used for this purpose are called Adjectives. Sometimes several of these may be joined with the same noun; as, when we say, "a little old black horse;" "a smooth white round stone;" "the good old way."

*** In any phrase or sentence, the adjective qualifying a noun may generally be found by prefixing the expression, "What" or "What kind of," to the noun in the form of a question; as, What kind of a horse? What kind of a stone? What kind of a way? The word containing the answer to the question is an adjective.

Observations.

109. Other parts of speech, when used to qualify or limit a noun, or pronoun, perform the part of adjectives, and should be parsed as such; as, A gold ring, a he bear, the then king, the above remark, etc. Sometimes an entire phrase or clause performs the office of an adjective; as, "The love of money." What love? "The boy who studies." What kind of boy?

110. Adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the good, and punishes the bad." "The virtuous are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are plural: they denote more than one.

QUESTIONS.—What is an adjective? What are adjectives denoting number called? What is a numeral adjective? How many classes of numeral adjectives are there? What are the cardinal numbers? What do they express? What are the ordinal numbers? What do they express? When do nouns or other parts of speech become adjectives? Are adjectives ever used as nouns? Of what number are they considered?

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following exercise, let the pupil first point out the **nouns**, and then the **adjectives**; and tell how he knows them to be so.]

A round table, a pretty dog, a little mouse, a low chair, a small book, a sharp knife, white paper, dirty books, ugly faces, a beautiful flower, a rich man, fresh fish, a wild horse, a short man, an old hat, a fierce dog, a good pen, a wise king, an honest man, tame rabbits, a fine day, a sweet apple, a long stick, a little handsome old woman, a thick square book, a large white cat, a new book, a clean white frock, a full cap, an empty mug, a warm room, a wet towel, a cold rainy night, a cloudy sky, windy weather, hard frost, deep snow.

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[2. In the above exercises, let the pupil take each noun and prefix to it as many adjectives as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, for example. "table," high table, low table, long table, etc., etc., and in reciting put the emphasis on the adjective.

3. Let him take each adjective, and add to it as many nouns as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, "round," a round ball, a round hole, a round house, a round cake, etc., and put the emphasis on the noun.

4. Write out these exercises.]

LESSON 11.—Comparison of Adjectives.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

111. Adjectives usually have three forms, called degrees of comparison; the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

112. The **Positive** expresses the quality simply; as, John is tall.

*13. The Comparative expresses the quality in a higher degree in one object than another; as, James is taller than John.

114. The Superlative expresses the quality in the highest degree in one object compared with two or more; as, Joseph is the tallest of all.

115. Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding er to the positive; and the superlative, by adding est; as, sweet, sweeter, sweetest.

116. Adjectives ending in e silent, drop e before er and est; as, large, larger, largest.

117. Adjectives of more than one syllable are commonly compared by prefixing more and most; as, beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

REMARK.—Some prefer to regard the words more and most as adverbs, modifying the adjective.

- 118. To these rules there are some exceptions. Adjectives of two syllables are sometimes compared by er and est; as, our tenderest cares; a happier state; and adjectives of one syllable are sometimes compared by prefixing more and most; as, more wise, most fit.¹
- 119. A lower degree of comparison is expressed by prefixing less and least to the positive; as, less beautiful, least beautiful.²

Observations.

- **120.** Dissyllables ending in le after a mute, are generally compared by er or est; as, able, abler, ablest. After a consonent, y is changed into i before er and est; as, dry, drier, driest; happy, happier, happiest; y with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, gay, gayer, gayest.
- 121. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding most to the end of the word; as, upper, uppermost. So undermost, foremost, hindmost.
- 122. When the positive ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before er and est; as, hot, hotter, hottest.³
- 123. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz:
 - 1st. Such as denote number; as, one, two; third, fourth.
 - 2d. — figure or shape; as, circular, square.
 - 3d. — posture, or position; as, perpendicular, horizontal.

4th. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, true, perfect, universal, chief, extreme.

Adjectives compared irregularly.

124. Some adjectives are compared irregularly, as follows:

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Positive	Comparative.	Superlative
Good	better	best
Bad, evil or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

125. Much is used to denote quantity; as, much corn, much money, much mischief; many to denote number; as, many men, many dollars. Elder and eldest are applied to persons only; older and oldest, to either persons or thinys.

QUESTIONS.—How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive denote?—the comparative?—the superlative? How are monosyllables compared?—words of more than one syllable?—dissyllables in le after a mute? in y after a consonant? What sort of adjectives double the final consonant before er or est? What adjectives are not compared? What adjectives are compared irregularly?

PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

126. Adjectives are parsed by stating their class, the degree of comparison (if compared), and the nouns which they qualify.

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out the **adjectives** in the following Exercise: parse them; compare them; thus, a good father; "Good," an adjective, positive degree, qualifies "father," compared irregularly, good, better, best.

2. Point out the **nouns**, and tell their gender and number as directed; thus, "father," a noun, masculine, singular.]

A good father, a wiser man, a more beautiful girl, wild horses, young colts, a sweeter apple, the wisest prince, green trees, the honest farmers, the most virtuous people, the richer tradesman, the better scholar, the tallest girl, the finer sheep, large oranges, the merriest fellows, the old soldier, pretty dogs, an ugly calf, the tamest rabbits, the little mouse, the longest

stick, a wider table, a most excellent thing, the highest house, the most fruitful garden.

Numerals.—Four men, the fourth day, six days, the seventh day, 365 days, ten horses, the first time;—of four houses, the first is of wood; the second, of stone; the third and the fourth, of brick.

[Turn back, and go over the adjectives in the exercise, Lesson 10, in the same way.

2. In both exercises, change singular nouns into plural, and plural into singular; give the rule for the plural, and then read the phrase so changed; thus, Futher, pl. fathers. "The plural is commonly formed by adding s to the singular," good fathers.

5. Write Sentences containing any of the adjectives in the preceding list, or any others you can think of. Teacher may give a new list to be used in the same way.]

LESSON 12.—Pronouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

127. A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun; as, John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies. The boy who studies will learn.

128. The word to which the pronoun relates, and for which it stands, is called its antecedent.

129. Sometimes a pronoun is used as a *substantive* ¹ (*46*) in a general sense, without any antecedent expressed; as, *He* who studies will learn.

130. A pronoun sometimes has another pronoun for its antecedent; as, *You* and *I* attend to *our* duties.²

131. Pronouns may be divided into four classes; Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.

132. The Accidents of Personal, Relative, and Interrogative pronouns, like those of nouns, are Person, Gender, Number, and Case. [APPENDIX IV, 4.]

133. ILLUSTRATION.—Generally pronouns are used to avoid the too frequent repetition of the nouns for which they stand.

A. & P. Gr.-1109.

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y dogs, ongest Thus, instead of saying, John is a good boy; John is diligent in John's studies; we say, "John is a good boy; he is diligent in his studies."

134. Some pronouns relate to nouns or substantives; as, "He who studies will learn;" others are used to ask questions; as, "What did he say?" and others are used, like adjectives, in connection with nouns; as, "My book," "That horse." But, though a pronoun may indicate a new, it does not express any quality of it as an adjective does.

I.-Personal Pronouns.

135. Personal Pronouns are those which distinguish the person by their form. They are either simple or compound.

They stand directly for the nouns which they represent. The place of any personal pronoun may be supplied by its noun.

136. The **simple** personal pronouns are *I*, thou, he, she, it; with their plurals, we, ye or you, they.

One n d in a general sense to represent a person, may be regarded as a **personal** pronoun; as, "One can never know, etc."

137. I is of the first person, and denotes the speaker.

138. Thou is of the second person, and denotes the person spoken to.

139. He, she, it, are of the third person, and denote the person or thing spoken of.

140. The personal pronouns are thus inflected:

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SINGULAR.				PLURAL.		
 m. or f. m. or f. masc. fem. 	Nom. I Thou He	Poss. mine thine his	<i>Obj.</i> me	Nom. We You They They	Poss. ours yours theirs theirs	us you them them
3. neut.	\mathbf{It}	its	it	They	theirs	them

Observations.

- 141. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, we is frequently applied to one person; thus an editor writes, "We think."
- 142. In addressing persons, you is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural Thou is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to mark special emphasis; or, in the language of contempt. The plural form, ye, is now but seldom used.
 - **143.** The pronoun it has a variety of uses:
- 1. Regularly as the neuter pronoun of the third person: as, Life is short; it should be improved.
- 2. As an indefinite subject of the verb to be, followed by a substantive in any person or number; as It is I. It is you. It is they; or after the verb in interrogative sentences; as, Who is it?
- 3. As an introductory subject before a verb followed by a substantive clause; 1 as, It is certain that he will never mend. It is wrong to be idle.
- 4. Indefinitely before impersonal verbs, (291); as, It hails, it rains, etc.
 - 5. As a mere *expletive*; as, Come and trip it as you go.
- 144. The possessive case of the pronoun can not, like the possessive of the noun, be followed by the name of the thing possessed. Thus, we can say, Mary's book, but not "hers book;" and yet we can say equally well, "It is Mary's," or "it is hers." In both these last expressions, the name of the thing possessed is not expressed but implied.2

** Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, should never be written her's, it's, our's, your's, their's.

Compound Personal Pronouns.

145. The compound personal pronouns are

¹ Anal. 120, 121.

² A. & P. Gr. 241.

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Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself; with their plurals, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

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146. These pronouns are used, without change of form, in the nominative and the objective cases. They have no possessive. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns or nouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I myself did it;" "lamself shall come." In the objective they are reflexive, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged himself."

Ourself and yourself are used as compounds corresponding to we and you applied to individuals; as, "We ourself will follow." "You must do it yourself."

PARSING.

147. The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus; *I* is a pronoun of the first person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative singular.

What is a personal pronoun? When it is a personal? What are they? Decline the first—the second—the third? Of what person is I?—thou?—he, she, it? What does the first person denote?—the second?—the third? To what class do myself, thyself, etc., belong? In what cases are they used? How are they applied in the nominative?—in the objective? How is you applied?—thou?—it?

EXERCISES.

[1. Go over the following list of pronouns and tell their person. Go over them again and tell their gender; again, and tell their number; again, and tell their case; and lastly, tell their gender, number, and case, together.]

I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we, thou, thine, ye, ours, yours. Himself, yourselves, herself, themselves, ourself, yourself, itself.

[2. Point out the **pronouns** in the following Exercise. Parse them by telling their person, gender, number, and case; thus, "me," a pronoun, first person, masculine, in the objective, singular.

3. Point out the nouns and parse them; the adjectives and parse them, compare and tell the degree of comparison.

4. Read over each sentence, and tell for what each of t' ronouns stands; hus, me stands for the speaker; you for the person poken to, etc.

Give me the pears you bought of him; I like them better than the apple he bought; it was sour. She told us what we said to her, and they heard her. Put it on, will you? He likes them because they are sweet. Take them to John. I gave them to her. We will do it, if you wish. The men said they would do it. The girl said she did not know them. The boy thought he knew them. You and I went with them to meet her after she had seen him. He and I can do it, though you can not. James bought that book; it is therefore his, and not hers.

"Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth." "Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee." "As yo would that others should do to you, do ye even so to them." "He who loves money more than honor, will rate it above honesty." "One that is perfectly idle will be perfectly weary." "Praise not the unworthy, though they roll in riches."

[5. Take any easy reading lesson, and go over it in the same way.

6. Read the preceding exercises, using nouns instead of pro-

LESSON 13.—II. Relative Pronouns.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

148. A Relative Pronoun is one that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it, called the *antecedent*; as,

"The master who taught us."

- 149. 1. The antecedent is commonly a noun or pronoun; sometimes a phrase (335) or a clause (334).
- 2. The antecedent is always *limited* or *explained* by the relative clauses; ¹ as,

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¹ Anal.-115.

The boy who reads;

He who does well, will be rewarded;

James is sick, which accounts for his absence.

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150. Relative Pronouns are Simple or Compound.

151. The simple relative pronouns are who, which, that, and what. Who and which are alike in both numbers; and are thus inflected:

Nominative	Sing. and Plur. Who	Sing. and Plur. Which
Possessive Objective	Whose	Whose
	Whom	Which

152. 1. Who is applied to persons; as,

The boy who reads.

- 2. And also to *inferior animals*, and things without life when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.
- 153. 1. Which is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as,

The dog which barks; the book which was lost.

- 2. And also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, "the court of Spain, which;" "the company which." And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, "The court of Queen Elizabeth, which was but another name for prudence and economy."
- 154. Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.
- 155. That is often used as a relative, instead of who or which. It is applied both to persons and things; as, the man that walks; the stone that rolls.
 - 156. What, as a relative pronoun, is applied to

things only, and is never used but when the antecedent is omitted; as,

"This is what I wanted "=that which I wanted."

Observations on the Relative.

157. The compound relatives are whoever, whosoever, whatever, and whatsoever, and are equivalent to the relative and a general, or indefinite, antecedent; as,

"Whosoerer committeth sin, is the servant of sin;" that is, "any one," or "every one who committeth sin," etc. "Whatsoever things are of good report;" i.e., "All things (without exception) which are of good report." [See A. & P. Gr. 752.]

158. The office of the relative is twofold.—1st. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of further describing it. Thus used, it is said to be additive; as, "Light is a body which mores with great celerity "=and it mores, etc. 2d. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of limiting or restricting it like an adjective or adjunct. Thus used, it is said to be restrictive; as, "The man who is good is happy"=The good man is happy.

159. Which and what are sometimes used as adjectives, and have a noun following them; as, "Tell me what books you are reading;" "Which things are an allegory." In this sense which applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to this or these.

160. Who, and also which and what, without a noun following, are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; as, I do not know who will be our next President.

PARSING THE RELATIVE.

161. The relative pronoun is parsed by stating its gender, number, person, and case, and its antecedent.

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¹ A. & P. Gr.-265.

(The gender, number, and person, are always the same as those of the antecedent.)

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"The boy who."—" Who" is a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to "boy" as its antece-

QUESTIONS.—What is a relative pronoun? What is the word to dent. which it relates called? What is the proper use of the relative pronoun? What are the relative pronouns? What is who applied to? What is which applied to? Why is that used as a relative? To what is it applied? What sort of a relative is what? What does it include? What sort of words are whoever, etc.? When which and what are followed by nouns, what part of speech are they? In parsing the relative what are mentioned? How are the gender, number, and person of the relative determined

EXERCISES.

	EAERCISSE	1 9
	Is it proper to say—the man who, or the man which? the dog who, or the dog which?	why?
	or the man	why?
	Is it proper to say—the man will, of the dog which?	Willy
11.	Is it proper to and the dog who is	why?
•	the dog who, of the tree which? the tree who, or the family which?	44 113
	the tree who, or the family which?	why?
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	the family who, of the re-	A A TOPE
	the family who, of the relative, and	CITO MOL

2. In the following sentences, point out the relative, and the word to

3. What is the use of the relative in the first sentence? in the second? which it relates.

The boy who studies will improve. I love the man who in the third? etc.] (158.) tells the truth, but all hate him who deals in falsehood. Do you remember the man whom we met? There is the book which you lost. It is the same book that you bought. That is the lady who has been kind to us, and whose hand is ever open to the poor. It is the hand of the diligent that maketh rich. He that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord. The temple which Solomon built. He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal.

[4. In the preceding sentences, wherever possible, change the relative clause for an adjective; as, "The boy who studies"=studious boy; and write out the sentences.]

Interrogative Pronouns.

162. Who, which, and what, when used in asking questions, are called Interrogative pronouns.

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ed in askconouns. 163. The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun is found in the answer to the question; as, "Who did this? John did it." John is the antecedent.

164. As interrogatives, who is applied to persons only; which and what, either to persons or things. What is indeclinable.

165. Who, which, and what, used responsively, are indefinite pronouns; 1 as, "I know who did it."

PARSING.

166. Interrogative Pronouns are parsed by stating the gender, number, and case. Thus,

"Who saw the accident?" Who is an interrogative pronoun, masculine or feminine, third person, in the nominative singular.

"Who did that? John." Who is an interrogative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular. Its antecedent is "John" in the answer to the question.

QUESTIONS.—What are the interrogative pronouns? Why are they called interrogative? As an interrogative, what is who applied to?—which?—what? In parsing the interrogative, what is mentioned?

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out in which of the following sentences, who, which and what are relatives; in which interrogatives; in which indefinites. Parse the interrogative and indefinite pronouns.]

Who steals my purse steals trash.—To whom did you give that book?—What I do thou knowest not now.—Who you are, what you are, or to whom you belong no one knows.—What shall I do?—Who built that house?—Do you know by whom that house was built?—Is that the man who built that house?—Which book is yours?—Do you know which book is yours?—What is wanted?—I know what is wanted.

[2. Write sentences, each of which shall contain one of these pronouns in one or other of these different senses.]

LESSON 14.—Adjective Pronouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

167. Adjective Pronouns are words used sometimes like adjectives to qualify a noun, and sometimes like pronouns to stand instead of nouns. There are four sorts; viz., the Possessive, Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.

168. The **Possessive** pronouns are such as denote possession. They are my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their.

169. The **Distributive** pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are **each**, **every**, **either**, **neither**.²

170. The **Demonstrative** pronouns point out objects definitely. They are this and that, with their plurals, these and those.

171. The Indefinite pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are none, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other, another. The three last are inflected like nouns.

Observations.

172. These pronouns are called adjective, because, like adjectives, they either are, or may be, followed by a noun which they limit.

as the possessive pronouns have the same meaning relate, but are used differently. The possessive pronoun must always have a noun after it, the possessive case of the personal, never, as it always refers to a noun previously expressed; thus,

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Possessive Pronoun.
This is my book;
That is her pen;
This is your hat;
It is their house;

Possessive Case.
This book is mine.
That pen is hers.
This hat is yours.
The house is theirs.

Note.—The word **own** (properly an adjective) is sometime: added to a possessive to make it emphatic; as, "my own," "their or n," the boy's own book."—A. & P. Gr. 295.

174. His and her, followed by a noun, are possessive pronouns; not followed by a noun, they are personal pronouns.

175. That is sometimes a demonstrative, sometimes a relative, and sometimes a conjunction; thus,

Dem. That book is mine.

Rel. It is the book that I bought.

Conj. I read, that I may learn.

176. Among indefinites may also be reckoned such words as no, few, many, several, etc.;—the compounds whoever, whatever, whichsoever, etc., and who, which, and what, in responsive sentences. (165.)

*** None is used in both numbers; but it can not be joined to a noun.

PARSING.

177. Adjective pronouns are parsed by stating their class, and the word which they qualify; thus,

"My book." My is a possessive adjective pronoun; and qualifies book.

QUESTIONS.—How many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. Why called adjective pronouns? What is a possessive pronoun? Name the possessive pronoun. What is a distributive pronoun? Name them.—A demonstrative pronoun? Name them.—An indefinite pronoun? Name them. In what are possessive pronouns and the possessive case of personal pronouns the same? In what do they differ? Give an example of the use of each. How is "own" used? When are his and her possessives?—when personals? In how many different ways is "that" used? How is "none" used? How are adjective pronouns parsed?

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¹A. & P. Gr.-284.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjective pronouns, and parse them; the nouns, and parse them. Point out the personal pronouns in the possessive case.]

My book, her shoes, your horse, their father, his brother, every hour, that table, these quills.—This is my book; that book is yours.—Where is my hat?—These apples are good; give some to your brothers.—I will give one to each.—I have given them all away, every one.—Every day try to do good to some person.—This book will do as well as that one.—Every boy should keep his own books.—Do good to all men—injury to none.—This book is mine—that is yours.

LESSON 15.—Exercises.

Nouns, Articles, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

[1. In the following Exercise, point out the articles, and parse them;—the nouns, and parse them;—the adjectives, and parse them;—the pronouns, and parse them:

I found my hat upon your table; but where is yours?—
Who put that glove in my cap?—Have you seen the book which my father gave to me?—That rod of yours is longer than mine, but not so long as John's.—Those trees have lost their leaves.—Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them.—Keep this knife for my sake; it is a good one.—All men are mortal; time waits for no one; a wise man will improve every moment to some useful purpose.—An idle man will come to poverty; but he that is diligent increases his store.—They that walk with the wise shall be wise; but a companion of fools shall be destroyed.—Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee, turn not thou away.

Write other sentences containing the parts of speech above named, and parse them as directed.

[1. Review thoroughly from Lesson 10, answering promptly and accurately all the questions.

2. Review from the beginning topically, reciting accurately all the definitions and rules. This may require two or three recitations. Write additional exercises under each lesson.]

LESSON 16.-Verbs.

178. A Verb is a word or words used to express the act, being, or state of its subject; as,

I write; grass is green; the letter has been written.

179. The *subject* of a verb is that person or thing whose act, being, or state the verb expresses.

Classification of Verbs.

180. 1. In relation to their *meaning and office* in a sentence, verbs are of three kinds: *Transitive*, *Intransitive*, and *Attributive*.

2. In relation to their form verbs are Regular, Irregular, and Defective (191).

3. In the formation of *Compound tenses* they are distinguished as *Principal* and *Auxiliary.*—(236.) [APPENDIX IV, 5.]

Meaning and Use of Verbs.

181. A Transitive Verb expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, James strikes the table; The table is struck by James.

182. An Intransitive Verb expresses the being or state of its subject, or an act not done to another; as, I am; he sleeps; you run.

183. An Attributive Verb asserts and connects an attribute with its subject; ¹ as, Snow is white.

Observations.

184. Transitive verbs are those which express an act that passes over from the actor to the person or thing acted upon; as, He loves us. Here, "He" is the actor, "loves"

1 A. & P. Gr.-319.

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expresses the act, and us, the object loved, or acted upon. The same thing can be expressed by another form; thus, "We are loved by him." Of these two forms of the verb, the first is called the active voice, and the second, the passive voice. (201.)

185. Intransitive verbs are verbs not transitive, whether they express action or not. They may form of themselves a complete predicate (340); and they have only one form, namely, that of the active voice; as, I am; you walk; they run.

186. Attributive verbs require, to complete the predicate, some word or words expressing a quality or circumstance affirmed of the subject.

187. Sometimes a verb, usually intransitive, becomes transitive by being followed by a noun of a similar signification; as, intransitive, "I run;" transitive, "I run a race." Also by the addition of another word; as, intransitive, "I laugh;" transitive, "I laugh at him."

188. A transitive verb is sometimes used in an *intran-sitive sense*, when the nature of the act and not its effect is considered; thus, transitive, "The boy *reads* a book;" intransitive, "The boy *reads* well."

189. Transitive, intransitive, and attributive verbs may be distinguished by the sense, as follows:

1st. A transitive verb in the active voice (205) requires an object after it to complete the sense; as, The boy studies grammar, in the passive voice the person or thing that receives the act becomes the subject. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, He sits; you ride. An attributive verb requires after it, to complete the sense, some word, phrase, or clause, not an object, to limit or explain the subject; as, "The sun is bright."

2d. In the use of the transitive verb, there are clways three things implied; the actor, the act, and the object

acted upon. In the use of the *intransitive*, there are only two—the subject or thing spoken of, and the state or action ascribed to it. In the use of the attributive verb, there are three—the subject, the verb, and the attribute.

190. Illustration.—The verb is a necessary word in every sentence (346). Without it, we can neither affirm nor deny, nor express any fact or proposition. As we wish to express an act or state in a variety of ways; as, present, past, future, actual, contingent, conditional, etc., so there is a variety of forms assumed by the verb in order to express these things. Two important things must be attended to:

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1. Distinguish the verb from every other part of speech. This can easily be done, if the pupil will only remember that every word that tells us what a person or thing is or does, or what is done to a person or thing, is a verb. Thus, when we say, "John writes," we know that "urites" is a verb, because it tells us what "John" does.

2. Discriminate when a verb is transitive, when intransitive, and when attributive, as described above (189).

QUESTIONS.—What is a verb? What is the subject of a verb? How are verbs divided, in relation to their manner and use?—in relation to their form?—in the formation of compound tenses? What is a transitive verb?—an intransitive?—an attributive? What do transitive verbs express? In how many forms can a transitive verb express any thing? What are these forms ealled? How many forms have intransitive verbs? Does a verb usually intransitive ever become transitive? How? Are some verbs used transitively and intransitively? What requires an object after it to complete the sense? What requires no object after it? What does an attributive verb require after it to complete the sense? In the use of the transitive, what three things are implied? What in the use of the intransitive verb? How do you know which word in a sentence is a verb? How do you know whether the verb is transitive—intransitive—attributive?

EXERCISES.

- [1. In the following Exercises, point out the **verbs**, and tell how you know them to be verbs; thus, "learn" is a verb, because it tells us what "boys" do; "rides" is a verb, because it tells us what "a man" does, etc.
- 2. Tell which verbs are transitive, which intransitive, and which attributive, and how you know them to be such; thus, "learn" is transitive, because

it tells what "boys" do to lessons; "rides" is intransitive, because what "a man" does is not done to any other person or thing; "tastes" is attributive, because it affirms the attributive or quality "sour" of the subject "apple."]

Boys learn lessons.—A man rides.—The apple tastes sour.—We read a book.—My dog barks.—The fire burns me.—He took their apples.—You saw them.—We touched it.—They strike her.—I threw a stone at his window.—They killed my rabbit.—
The horses eat their corn.—The cows drink water.—I can ride well.—A ride improves the health.—That man walks fast.—America was discovered by Columbus.—A long walk tires me.—I love her and you.—Sheep are animals.

[In the following sentences, it takes two, and sometimes three words to make the verb; and these two or three are always parsed together as one word.]

J will water the garden.—James can write a letter.—You may ride on my horse.—Robert will give a book to you.—Yes, he will give you a book.—You must light the candle.—Your father has sold his horse.—I have bought him.—John will brush your coat.—He should have brushed it before.—James will have written his letter before night.—He may have written it already.—He should be told of his mistake.—He may have been misinformed.

LESSON 17.—Forms of Verbs.

[Review thoroughly the preceding Lesson.]

191. In respect of form, verbs are divided into Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

192. A Regular Verb is one that forms its Past tense (232) in the Indicative mood (215), active voice (205), and its Past participle (251) by adding ed to the Present; as, Present, act; Past, acted; Past participle, acted.

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N.B.—Verbs ending in e silent, drop the e before ed; as love, loved. The pronunciation of some forms of several regular verbs is different from the written form; thus, stop, stopped, is pronounced stopt; bar, barred, bard; walk, walked, walkt, etc.

193. An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its Past tense in the Indicative active, and its Past participle, by adding ed to the Present; as, Present, write; Past, wrote; Past participle, written (288).

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194. A Defective Verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly Auxiliary and Impersonal verbs (290).

Auxiliary Verbs.

195. The Auxiliary or helping verbs are those by the help of which verbs are inflected. They are the following, which, except be, are used as auxiliaries only in the present and the past tense; viz:

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, must Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was,

196. The verb to be is used as an auxiliary in all its tenses.

197. Be (Pres. Ind. am,) do, and have are also principal verbs:

As Principals—I am a man; I do the work; I have a horse. As Auxiliaries—I am loved; I do speak; I have heard.

Observations.

198. The auxiliary (or helping) verbs are so called, because, by their help, the verb is enabled to express varieties of time and manner of acting or being, which it could not do without them. The auxiliary always stands before its verb, and the two are regarded in pursing as one word; as, I will write, he has written, we may write.

199. Of the auxiliaries, shall implies duty or obligation; will, purpose or resolution; may, liberty; can, ability. The past tense of these verbs is should, would, might, could; but in this tense these verbs express the idea of time very indefinitely.

200. In affirmative sentences, will, in the first person, infimates resolution and promising; as, "I will go;" in the second and third, it commonly foretells; as, "You will be happy."

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201. Shall, in the first person, only foretells; as, "I shall go to-morrow;"—in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; 2 as, "Thou shall not steal."

QUESTIONS.—How are verbs divided in respect of form? What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—a defective verb? What are the principal defective verbs? Why are auxiliary verbs so called? What verbs are principal verbs as well as auxiliary? How are the auxiliaries shall and will distinguished?

EXERCISES.

[Write the Past tense, and Past participle of the following regular verbs as in the succeeding exercise No. 3:]

Fear, love, look, hope, show, learn, move, wash, clean, walk, desire, return, oblige, form, force, punish, support, turn, touch, disturb, place, try, deny, cry, delay.

[2. Change the following verbs from the Past tense into the Present:]
Marked, protected, composed, favored, turned, hated, mixed, believed, wounded, rushed, preached, hunted, crushed, warned, pleaded, loved, ended.

[3. In the following list, tell which verbs are regular, and which are irregular; and why:]

and why .1		
Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Spoil	spoiled	$\mathbf{spoiled}$
Go	went	gone
Take	took	taken
Write	wrote	written
Hope	hoped	\mathbf{hoped}
Run	ran	run
Freeze	froze	frozen
Spy	spied	spied
Obey	obeyed	obeyed

1 Anal. 217.

² A. & P. Gr.-335-344.

LESSON 18.—Inflection of Verbs.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

202. The Accidents of Verbs are Voices, Moods, Tenses; Numbers, and Persons (33).

Of Voice.

- 203. Voice is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the subject, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.
- 204. Transitive verbs have two voices, called the Active and the Passive.
- 205. The Active Voice represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some subject; as, James strikes the table.
- 206. Here the verb "strikes," in the active voice, indicates what its subject, "James," does to the object, table.
- 207. The Passive Voice represents the subject of the verb as acted upon by some person or thing; as, The table is struck by James (287).
- **208.** Here the verb "is struck," in the passive voice, indicates what is done to the subject, "table," by James.
- **209.** Intransitive verbs have the form of the active voice. A few admit a passive form, but not a passive sense; thus, I am come, means the same thing as, I have come.
- 210. When a verb, usually intransitive, is made transitive (187), it is then capable of a passive voice; as, "My race is run." "He is laughed at by me."
- 211. ILLUSTRATION. Both the active and the passive voice express precisely the same act, but each in a different way. With the active voice, the subject does the act, or is active; with the passive voice, the subject is acted upon, or is passive. The words active and passive then strictly belong to the subject, but are properly used to distinguish those roices

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or forms of the verbs which show that the subject acts, or is acted upon: that is, the form of the verb which represents its subject as active, is called the *Active* voice; and that which represents its subject as passive, is called the *Passive* voice.

212. Remembering, then, that the subject of a verb is the person or thing spoken of, when, in any sentence, we see that that subject acts, we know that the verb is in the active voice; thus, when we say, "Cain killed Abel," we see that "Cain," the person spoken of, is represented as acting, and therefore "killed" is in the active voice. Again, when we say, "Abel was killed by Cain," the subject or thing spoken of is Abel: it is represented as acted upon, and therefore "was killed" is in the passive voice.

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Note.—Notwithstanding the same act may be expressed by the active and the passive voice, the writer or speaker makes choice of the one or the other, according as he wishes to give prominence to the actor, the act, or the person or thing affected by the act (see Analysis 288).

QUESTIONS.—What belongs to the inflection of verbs? What is meant by voice? How many voices has the transitive verb in English? What are they? How does the active voice represent its subject? How does the passive voice represent it? What voice have intransitive verbs? Have they ever a passive form? Have they ever a passive sense? When intransitive verbs are made transitive, can they be used in the passive voice?

EXERCISES.

[In each of the following sentences, the pupil may be questioned, as on the first, in the following manner: Who is the person spoken of in this sentence?—Ans.—John.—What is said of John?—Ans.—He studies.
—Does the word "studies" represent John as acting, or as acted upon?
—Ans.—As acting.—In what voice then is "studies"?—Ans.—Active voice.—Change the sentence so as to make "grammar" the thing spoken of, and express the same meaning.—Ans.—"Grammar is studied by John."—Analyse this sentence in the same way as the other.]

John sudies grammar.—Cain slew Abel.—Noah built the ark.—The temple was built by Solomon.—Columbus discovered America.—Pride ruins thousands.—Most men are governed by custom.—I have written a letter.—Them that honor me, I will honor.—Perseverance overcomes all obstacles.

LESSON 19.-Moods

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

- 213. Mood is the mode or manner of expressing the signification of the verb.
- 214. Verbs have six moods; namely, the Indicative, Potential, Subjunctive, Imperative, Infinitive, and Participial.
- 215. The Indicative mood declares the fact expressed by the verb simply, and without limitation; as He loves; He is loved.
- 216. The **Potential** mood declares, not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its possibility; or the liberty, power, will, or obligation, of the subject with respect to it; as,

The wind may blow; we may walk or ride; I can swim; He would not stay; You should obey your parents.

Both the indicative and potential moods may be used in interrogative sentences. Have you written? May I go?

217. The Subjunctive mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as conditional, desirable, or contingent; as,

"If he go away I will go with him."—"O that men were wise!"

Note.—This mood is subjoined to another verb, and dependent on it.

218. The Imperative mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as,

Do this; Remember thy Creator; Hear, O my people; Go thy way.

219. The Infinitive mood expresses the meaning of the verb in a general manner, without any distinc-

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*** For the uses of the infinitive see 492-500.

220. The Participial mood is used to assume action or state of some subject: 1. As continuing or incomplete; as, "I saw him running." 2. As complete or finished; as, "We saw him ruined."

The participle is always used in the same sentence with another verb, and can not be used alone.

Observations.

221. The *form* of the *subjunctive* mood differs from that of the indicative only in the second and the third person singular of the present tense. The verb "to be" differs also in the past tense.

222. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, etc., the language of address is always used; thus, "Let him love," is equivalent to "Let thou him (to) love;" where Let is the proper imperative, and love the infinitive depending on it. (494.)

223. The *infinitive* mood is often used as a *verbal* noun as the *subject* of another verb; as, "To play is pleasant;" or as the *object* of a transitive verb; as, "Boys love to play." It has always a *subject of its own* 1 expressed or implied, but its use is sometimes so general that it is unimportant to ascertain its subject, or impossible to designate any particular person or thing as such.

*** The use of the infinitive as a verbal noun does not deprive it of any attribute as a verb; 2 for, if transitive, it may be followed by an object; as, To forgive injuries is a duty. Strictly speaking, it is the infinitive clause which is used as a substantive, and not the verb alone. (See Analysis, 116.)

224. A participle always has a subject 1 expressed or understood, to which it relates.

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225. ILLUSTRATION.—If we regard the mode or manner in which an action presents itself to our minds, we may consider it either as an actual reality, or as a possibility, or as a contingency, or as a command, or as general and indefinite, or as merely assuming an act of some subject. The expression of these different circumstances gives rise to what are called moods. Thus we may say, he goes, or he may go, or if he go, or go, or to go or going. These six forms of expression indicate the six moods as given above.

QUESTIONS.—What is mood? How many moods are there? What does the Indicative mood declare?—the Potential? What does the Subjunctive mood represent? What does the Imperative mood do? What does the Infinitive mood express? How is the Participial mood used? In what parts does the Subjunctive differ from the Indicative? How many persons has the Imperative mood? What is a frequent use of the Infinitive mood:

LESSON 20.—Tenses.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

226. Tenses are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

227. Time is naturally divided into Present, Past, and Future; and an action may be represented, in any of these periods, either as incomplete and continuing, or as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs; thus,

 $\mathbf{P_{RDSENT.}} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \textit{Action continuing} \; ; \; \text{as, I love, I do love, I am loving.} \\ \textit{Action completed} \; ; \; \text{as, I have loved.} \end{matrix} \right.$

PAST. { Action continuing; as, I loved, I did love, I was loving. Action completed; as, I had loved.

FUTURE. { Action continuing; as, I shall or will love. Action completed; as, I shall have loved.

Note.—The time of the action expressed by a verb, may be further distinguished by an adverb; as, "He came vesterday;" "He will come soon."

228. The tenses in English are six; namely, the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, the Past-perfect, the Future, and the Future-perfect.

Tenses of the Indicative Mood.

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229. The indicative mood has all the six tenses; they are used as follows:

230. The Present tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, I love you; I am loved.

231. The **Present-perfect** tense represents an action or event as **completed** at the **present time**; or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "John has cut his finger." "I have sold my horse." "I have done nothing this week."

232. The Past tense expresses what took place ir past time; as, "God said, let there be light;" "The ship sailed when the mail arrived."

233. The Past-perfect tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "I had walked six miles that day;" "All the judges had taken their places before Sir Roger came."

234. The Future tense expresses what will take place in future time; as, "I will see you again, and your hearts shall rejoice."

235. The Future-perfect intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time, yet future; as, "I shall have got my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow."

236. The tenses inflected without an auxiliary, are called Simple tenses; those with an auxiliary are called Compound tenses. (180, 3.)

LESSON 21.—Tenses of the Other Moods.

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237. The Potential mood has four tenses; the Present, the Present-perfect, the Past, and the Past-perfect.

238. The tenses in this mood indicate the time, not of the act expressed by the verb, but of the liberty, power, will, or obligation, expressed by the auxiliary, or sign of the tense; thus "I may write," does not express the act of writing as present, but only the liberty to write, expressed by the auxiliary may.

239. Hence the time expressed by the verb in the mood is less definite, and depends not so much on the tense as on other words with which it stands connected. This is the case especially with the Past tense.¹

240. The Subjunctive mood in its proper form, has only the present tense. The verb to be has the present and the past.

The indicative and potential moods are also used in dependent clauses. (484.)

241. The Imperative mood may always be regarded as present; i. e. the command, etc., is present, though the doing of the act commanded is future.

242. The Infinitive mood has two tenses; the Present and the Perfect.

243. These do not so much indicate the time of the action as its state—the present, incomplete or indefinite; the perfect, completed or finished at the time indicated by the principal verb or some other word with which it is connected.

244. The Participial mood has three tenses; the Present, the Past, and the Perfect; as, Active,

¹ A. & P. Gr. -428-432.

Loving, loved, having loved. Passive, Being loved, loved, having been loved. 2

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245. Since the Participial mood does not affirm, but only assumes an action or state of its subject, it partakes of the character of the adjective, and limits or qualifies the subject to which it refers.

Observations on the Tenses.

246. The *Present* tense is used to express, 1st—the simple *existence* of the fact; as, "He *speaks*." 2d—what is habitual or *always true*; as, "He *takes* snuff." 3d—in *historical narration*, it is used for the past; as, "Cæsar *leaves* Gaul," for "Cæsar *left* Gaul."

247. The Present-perfect is used, 1st—To express what has taken place at the present time, or in a period of time of which the present forms a part; as, "My father has arrived." 2d—To express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to and including the present; as, "He has [now] studied six months." 3d—To express an act long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished as still existing; as, "Milton has written poems."

248. The time indicated by the *Past tense* is regarded as *entirely past*, however near; as, "I saw him a moment ago." It is also used to express what was customary in past time; as, "She attended church regularly."

249. The Past tenses of the Potential, and the Subjunctive mood, are less definite in regard to time, than the same tenses in the Indicative.

250. The **Present Participle** active ends always in ing, and has an active signification; as, James is building a house. In many verbs, nowever, it has also a passive signification; as, The house was building, when the wall fell.

251. The *Past Participle* has the same form in both voices. In the active voice, its signification is active, and it

is never used except in connection with the auxiliary have or had; as, He has concealed a dagger under his cloak;—In the passive voice, its signification is passive; as, He has a dagger concealed under his cloak.¹

** Teacher illustrate this difference fully.

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252. The *Perfect Participle* is always compound, and has an active signification in the active voice, and a passive signification in the passive voice.

253. The participle in -ing is often used as a verbal or participial noun, having the nominative and the objective case, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb, or it may be divested of it by inserting an article before it, and the preposition of after it; as, In keeping his commandments, or, In the keeping of his commandments, there is a great reward.²

254. Some participles, laying aside the idea of time, and simply qualifying a noun, become participial adjectives, and as such admit of comparison; as, An amusing—a more amusing—a most amusing story. A most devoted friend.

255. A participle may take a prefix and become a *verbal* adjective; as, "Unauthorized use of his credit."

QUESTIONS.—What are tenses? How is time naturally divided? In each of these, how may an action or state be represented? How many tenses are ther in the English verb? How many has the Indicative mood? What are they? What does the Present tense express?—the Past?—the Future? What does the Present-perfect tense represent?—the Past-perfect? What does the Future-perfect tense intimate? How many tenses has the Potential mood?—the Subjunctive?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive?—the Participial? In what different ways is the Present tense used?—the Present-perfect?—the Past? Has the participle in ing ever a passive signification? Give an example. How is the perfect participle used? Describe the use of the present participle as a verbal noun? How do participles become adjectives? What are such adjectives usually called? Do they admit of comparison? Give an example of a verbal adjective derived from a participle.

[Before proceeding to the next Lesson, review thoroughly from the beginning in two or three recitations.]

LESSON 22.-Number and Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

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256. Every tense of the verb, except in the Infinitive and Participial moods, has two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural; and each of these has three Persons, except in the Imperative, which has only the Second.*

257. The singular number is used with a subject in the singular, and the plural number with a subject in the plural (446).

258. The **First** person asserts of the person speaking; its subject is always *I* in the singular, and we in the plural; as, *I* write; we write.

259. The Second person asserts of the person spoken to; its subject is always thou in the singular, and ye or you in the plural; as, Thou writest; ye or you write.

260. In the second person the *plural form* is generally used for the singular; as, John, *you are* idle.

261. The **Third** person asserts of the person or thing **spoken of**; its subject is any noun, or the pronoun he, she, it, or they, or any substantive clause used as a noun; as, John reads; he walks; they run; That I said so, is most true; To succeed in business requires close attention.

Observations.

262. The forms of the verb in the first, second and third persons plural, are always like the first person singular.

^{*}Strictly speaking, the verb itself has neither number nor person, but certain forms to correspond with the number and person of the subject.

¹ Anal.-120.

263. The *second* person singular of the present indicative active, ends in *st* or *est*; as, thou *lovest*; thou *readest*;—of the past, generally in *st*; as, thou *lovedst*. All the other persons in both numbers in this tense are alike.

264. Verbs that end in s, sh, ch, z, x, or o, form the third person singular of the present indicative active, by adding es; (65) as, He teaches. All others add s; as, he loves,—reads. (See 274.)

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265. An ancient form, now little used except in solemn address, has the ending eth in the third person singular; as, teacheth, doeth, saith; as, "All that a man hath will he give for his life."

266. Verbs ending in y with a consonant before it, change y into i before the terminations est, es, eth, ed; but not before ing; as, try, triest, triest, tried, trying. Verbs ending in e silent preceded by i change ie into y before ing; as, lie, lying.

267. The *Infinitive* mood, or *any substantive* clause sometimes expresses that of which a person speaks, and is therefore the *subject* of the verb. When it does so it is always regarded as the third person, and a pronoun standing instead of it is in the neuter gender; as, *To play* is pleasant; it promotes health.

QUESTIONS.—How many numbers has each tense? What mood has no distinction of number or person? How many persons are in each number? What mood has only the second person? Of whom does the first person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom does the second person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom or what does the third person assert? What is its subject? What parts in each tense are alike? How is the second person singular formed in the present indicative?—in the past tense? When is the third person singular of the present indicative formed by adding es, or eth?—When by adding s, or th, or eth? How is it formed when the verb ends in y after a crusonant?—in is?

EXERCISES.

[1. Tell the second person singular of the following verbs, and how it is formed.

¹ A. & P. Gr.-869.

2. Tell the third person, and how it is formed.

3. Prefix thou to each verb, when put in the second person singular; as, "thou tellest;" and he to each, when put in the third; as, "he tells."

Instead of thou, use the pronoun you, and change the verb to the proper form. Write out these exercises.

4. Write Sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following verbs.

Tell, speak, sleep, walk, read, learn, smell, see, hear, taste, touch, handle, write, pay, eat, drink, warm, teach, go, do, fill, play, stand, sell, buy, study, copy.

[5. In the following words, tell which are in the first person, and why; —in the second, and why; —in the third, and why.

6. Prefix to each verb, in the following list, the **pronoun** of the same person and number as the verb; as, I love, thou lovest, etc.]

Love, lovest, loves, runs, runnest, sleep, teach, preaches, teachest, writes, write, eats, goes, goest, go, tell, teaches, speaks, read, readést, sews, pay, look, walks, jump, hop, skip, laughs, sing, cry, criest, study, studies.

LESSON 23.—Conjugation of Verbs.

[The pupil should be thoroughly drilled in this Lesson, till he is able to tell every part at once and correctly—and to give promptly any part of the verb that may be required.]

268. The **Conjugation** of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *moods*, tenses, numbers, and persons.

269. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms; the Common; as, I read; and the Progressive; as, I am reading (285).

270. Besides these, in the present and the past indicative active, there is a third form called the *emphatic*: as, I do read, I did read. The other tenses, and also the progressive and the passive form, are rendered emphatic by placing a greater stress of voice on the first auxiliary; as, I have read—I am reading—it is read.

271. The principal parts of the verb are the Present Tense Indicative, the Present Participle, the Past Tense Indicative, and Past Participle. In parsing, the mentioning of these parts is called conjugating the verb.

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Present. Present Part. Past. Past Part.

ACTIVE, Love, Loving, Loved, Loved.

PASSIVE, Am loved, Being loved, Was loved, Been loved.

272. A synopsis of a verb consists of the figure person singular of each tense in the finite moods, and the forms of the several tenses of the infinitive and participal moods.

The Verb TO BE.

273. The attributive irregular verb To Be is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

Principal Parts.

Present, am. Present Part., being. Past, was. Past Part., been.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE

	PRESENT TEASE.	
Singular.		Plural.
1. I am.	-	1. We are.
2. Thou art.		2. You are.
3. He is.		3. They are

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sgn, have.

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2.	 I have been. Thou hast been. He has been. 	 We have been. You have been. They have been
		PAST TENSE.

I was.
 Thou wast.
 You were.
 He was.
 They were.
 They were.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

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Sign, naa.	
Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. Thou shalt be.	2. You shall be.
3. He shall be.	3. They shall be.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. Thou shalt have been.	2. You shall have been.
3. He shall have been.	3. They shall have been.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, may, can, must.—Inflect with each.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be.	1. We may be.
2. Thou mayst be.	2. You may be.
3. He may be.	3. They may be.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs. may have, can have, or must have. - Inflect with each,

 I may have been. Thou mayst have been. 	1. We may have been. 2. You may have been.
	3. They may have been. TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

1. I might be.	1. We might be.
2. Thou mightst be.	2. You might be.
Me might be.	3. They might be

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.—Inflect with each.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. I might have been.
- 1. We might have been.
- 2. Thou mightst have been.
- 3. You might have been.
- 3. He might have been.
- 3. They might have been.

Subjunctive Mood.*

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1. If I be.

1. If we be.

2. If thou be.

If you be.
 If they be.

3. If he be.

- PAST TENSE.
- I. If I were.

- 1. If we were.
- 2. If thou were or wert.
- 2. If you were.

3. If he were.

3. If they were.

Imperative Mood.

_ Singular.

Plural.

2. Be, or be thou.

2. Be, or be ye or you.

Infinitive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

PERFECT TENSE.

To be

To have been.

Participial Mood, (or Participles.)

PRESENT, Being.

Past, Been.

Perfect, Having been.

^{*} Both the **indicative** and the **potential** mood are used in dependent clauses to express contingency, with a conjunction prefixed; thus, If I am, If I have been, If I was, If I had been, If I shall or will be, If I shall have been, If I may be, etc.

EXERCISES.

[1. Let the pupil tell the tense, mood, person, and number of the following words—parts of the verb to be; thus, "Am." present, indicative, first person, singular.

2. Let him parse the same words; thus, "Am" is a verb, attributive, irregular; am, was, been; in the present, indicative, first person, singular.]

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, we had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayst be, canst be, she may be, you may be, he must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldst be, you could be, he may have been, wast.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldst have been; (if) thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were.

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

[3. In the following sentences, **parse the words** in order; thus, "Snow" is a noun, neuter, the nominative singular, because the subject of "is." "Is" is a verb attributive irregular; am, being, was, been; in the present, indicative, third person, singular. "White" is an adjective, qualifies snow; compared, white, whiter, whitest.]

Snow is white; he was a good man; we have been younger; she has been happy; it had been late; we are old; you will be wise; it will be time; if they be thine; be cautious; be heedful youth; we may be rich.

LESSON 24.—The Verb TO LOVE.

274. The regular verb To Love, in the common form, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

Principal Parts.

Present, love. Pres. Part., loving. Past, loved. Past Part., loved.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I love.

2. Thou lovest.

3. He loves (or loveth).

Plural.

1. We love.

2. You love.

3. They love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.

I have loved.
 Thou hast loved.
 You have loved.
 He has or hath loved.
 They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

I loved.
 We loved.
 Thou lovedst.
 You loved.
 He loved.
 They loved.

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PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, had.

I had loved.
 Thou hadst loved.
 We had loved.
 You had loved.
 He had loved.
 They had loved.

* PRESENT TENSE, (Emphatic form.)

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does or doth love.
3. They do love.

† PAST TENSE. (Emphatic form.)

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.
3. They did love.
3. They did love.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall love.

- 1. We shall love.
- 2. Thou shalt love.
- 2. You shall love.
- 3. He shall love.
- 3. They shall love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have.—Inflect with each.

- 1. I shall have loved.
- 1. We shall have loved.
- 2. Thou shalt have loved.
- 2. You shall have loved.
- 3. He shall have loved.
- 3. They shall have loved.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, may, can, must.—Inflect with each.

1. I may love.

- 1. We may love.
- 2. Thou mayst love.
- 2. You may love.

3. He may love.

3. They may love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, may have, can have, * must have.-Inflect with each.

- 1. I may have loved.
- 1. We may have loved.
- 2. Thou mayst have loved.

3. He may have loved.

2. You may have loved. 3. They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

1. I might love.

- 1. We might love.
- 2. Thou mightst love. 3. He might love.
- 2. You might love. 3. They might love.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.-Inflect with each.

- 1. I might have loved.
- 1. We might have loved.
- 2. Thou mightst have loved. 2. You might have loved.
- 3. He might have loved.
- 3. They might have loved.

^{*} Can have is not used in affirmative sentences.

Subjunctive Mood.*

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I love. 2. If thou love

3. If he love.

Plural.

1. If we love.

2. If you love.

3. If they love.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.

Plural.

Common form. 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you. Emphatic form. 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ve or you love.

Infinitive Mood.

PRESENT, To love.

PERFECT. To have loved.

Participial Mood. (OR PARTICIPES.)

Past, Loved. PRESENT, Loving. PERFECT, Having loved.

PARSING.

275. A verb is parsed by stating its kind (i.e., whether transitive, intransitive, or attributive); its form, (whether regular or irregular); conjugating it, and telling in what tense, mood, voice, number and person, it is found; also its subject: thus.

"He loves us." Loves is a verb, transitive, regular; love, loving, loved, loved; found in the present, indicative, active; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject, he.

N.B.-It is important in parsing to state every thing belonging to a word in as few words as possible, and always in the same order.

*The present subjunctive or elliptical form, is used when both contingency and futurity are implied; the indicative is used when contingency only, and not futurity is implied. In parsing, the latter may be called the "indicative used subjunctively," being the indicative mood in form, and rendered subjunctive only by the conjunction prefixed. This is true also of the other tenses in this mood.

The emphatic forms of the present subjunctive are, If I do love, if thou do love, if he du tove, etc.; of the past, If I did love, if thou didst love, etc., as in the indicative.

QUESTIONS.—What is the conjugation of a verb? How is a verb conjugated? Conjugate the verb love in the active voice. Say the indicative-present—past—future—the present-perfect—the past-perfect—future perfect. Say the first person singular in each tense—the second—the third—the first person plural—the second—the third. Say the emphatic form, in the present—in the past. What are the signs (or auxiliaries) of the present-perfect?—the past-perfect?—the future?—the future-perfect?—the subjunctive present? etc. What is the sign of the infinitive? Name the participles.

EXERCISE I.

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[1. Go over the following Exercise, and tell the **tense**, **mood**, and **voice** of each verb; thus, "He *loves*," present, indicative, active.

2. Go over it again, and tell the **person** and **number**; thus, loves, third person, singular.

3. Go over it again, and join these together; and so tell the tense, mood, voice, number, and person; and always in this order; as, loves, present, indicative, active, third person, singular.*]

[N.B.—The pronoun is no part of the verb, but helps to show its person and number; and the auxiliaries (or signs) are not taken separately, but always with the verb; so that the two words, and sometimes three, as in the past-perfect potential, are parsed together as one word; thus, have loved, the present-perfect, indicative, active.

*** This Exercise should be repeated till the pupil can do it correctly, rapidly, and easily, and without missing, either in the number or order of the things to be stated.]

He loves, they love, I have loved, you will love, thou teachest, they will learn, he has written, I had given, James will go, John may come, he might read, they would have studied, they did study.—Write thou, come ye.—To love, to sing, to have played, reading, sleeping, running, love, learned, having loved, having gone, birds fly, horses galloped, the fire burns, the sun did shine, the moon has changed.

[N.B.—Pupils may be required to write out exercises of this kind for themselves, and parse them as directed above.]

^{*}In the imperative, omit the tense, and say thus, love thou, imperative, active, second person, singular.

In the infinitive, omit the person and number, and say thus, To love; present, infinitive, active.

In the participle, name only the tense and voice; thus, loving; present participle, active.

EXERCISE II.

[Before beginning this Exercise, let the pupil go back and review thoroughly Lesson 16, and the exercises on it; then

- 1. Tell which words are verbs, and why; and whether transitive, intransitive, or attributive, and why.
- 2. Tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number, as in the preceding Exercise.
- 3. Go over it again, and parse each verb by putting all these together; thus, loves, is a verb transitive, regular, in the present, indicative, active, third person, singular.]

He loves us, I will love him.—Good boys will study their lessons.—Children love play.—The dog killed my rabbit.

—James has written a letter.—Cows eat hay.—A fire warms the room.—Bring some wood.—I have studied grammar.—Girls may write letters.—Your sister can sing.—He would like to hear a song.—Give that book to me.—I will give this book to you.—Lend me your pen.—Children should obey their parents; they should love God.—Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it.—All men must die.—Time waits for no man.—Do good to all men.—John will mend my pen; I will thank him.—You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson.—Tell Henry to shut the door.—Snow is white.—The apple tastes sweet.—Washington was a wise and just man.

"And he opened his mouth, and taught them, saying, Blessed are the poor in spirit: for theirs is the kingdom of heaven.—Blessed are they that mourn: for they shall be comforted.—Blessed are the meek: for they shall inherit the earth.—Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst after righteousness: for they shall be filled."

EXERCISE III.

1. THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

276. A verb in the *active voice* tells what some person or thing does. That person or thing then is its *subject*, and, in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, and imperative

moods, is always in the nominative case; thus, in the first sentence of the preceding Exercise, the word "loves," tells what "he" does; he, therefore, is its subject, and is in the nominative case.

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[Point out the werb in each sentence of the preceding Exercise; tell what word is its subject, and why? What case is the subject in?]

2. THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

277. A transitive verb in the active voice tells what its subject does to some person or thing. That person or thing is the object of the verb, and is in the objective case. Thus, in the above sentence, "He loves us," loves is a transitive verb, and tells what its subject, he, does to us. Us, then, is its object, and is in the objective case.

The subject is usually before the verb; the objective case generally follows it.

EXERCISE II

PARSING.

[Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order,the nouns as directed, (88); the articles as directed, (101); the adjectives as directed, (126); the pronouns as directed, (147); and the verbs as directed, (275.)]

LESSON 25.—Negative Form.

278. The verb is made to deny by placing the word not after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest not;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do not love." When two auxiliaries are used, not is placed between them; as, "I would not have loved.

279. In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first; as, Not to love; not loving.

280. The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and the past tense, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the negative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. I do not love. 2. Thou dost not love, etc.
PRES. PERF. 1. I have not loved. 2. Thou hast not loved, etc.
PAST. 1. I did not love. 2. Thou didst not love, etc.
PAST PERF. 1. I had not loved. 2. Thou hadst not loved, etc.
FUTURE. 1. I will not love. 2. Thou wilt not love, etc.
FUT. PERF. 1. I shall not have 2. Thou shalt not have loved, loved. etc.

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POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. I can not love. 2. Thou canst not love, etc.
PRES. PERF. 1. I may not have 2. Thou mayst not have loved. loved, etc.

PAST. 1. I might not love. 2. Thou mightst not love, etc.
PAST PERF. 1. I might not have loved, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. If I do not love. 2. If thou do not love, etc.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Love not, or do not thou Plur. 2. Love not, or do not ye love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. Not to love. Perf. Not to have loved.

PARTICIPIAL MOOD.

PRESENT. Not loving. (Past. Not loved.)

PERF. Not having loved.

LESSON 26.—Interrogative Form.

281. The verb is made to ask a question by placing the subject after the simple form; as, Lovest thou? and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, Do I love? When there are two auxiliaries the subject is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved?

282. The subjunctive, imperative, and infinitive needs, and the participles, can not have the interrogative forms.

283. The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form.

is put mio	me monoganvo ioi	111.
PRESENT.	1. Do I love?	2. Dost thou love? etc.
PRES. PERF.	1. Have I loved?	2. Hast thou loved? etc.
PAST.	1. Did I love?	2. Didst thou love? etc.
PAST PERF.	1. Had I loved?	2. Hadst thou loved? etc.
FUTURE.	1. Shall I love?	2. Wilt thou love? etc.
FUT. PERF.	1. Shall I have	2. Wilt thou have loved?
	loved?	etc.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. May I love?	2. Canst thou love? etc.
PRES. PERF.	1. May I have	2. Canst thou have loved?
	loved?	etc.
PAST.	1. Might I love?	2. Couldst thou love? etc.
PAST PERF.	1. Might I have	2. Couldst thou have loved?
	loved?	etc.

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284. Obs. *Interrogative* sentences are made *negative* by placing the negative either before or after the nominative; as, Do I not love? Do not I love?

QUESTIONS.—How is a verb made negative? Where is the negative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? Where, in the infinitive and participles? Say the indicative present in the negative form throughout;—the other tenses. How is the verb made interrogative? Where is the nominative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? What parts of the verb can not be used interrogatively? Say the indicative present throughout, interrogatively? Say the other tenses.

EXERCISES.

- [1. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the negative form.

 2. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the interrogative form and write out the exercise.
- 3. Distinguish the different parts of speech, and parse them, as in the preceding Exercise, IV. (277.)]

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I love you.—You loved me.—James studies grammar.

Your father has come.—He will go soon.—The ship foundered at sea.—John would eat apples.—Apples will grow on this tree.—The horse will run a race.—The fox had caught the goose.—Rabbits eat clover.—Study overcomes most difficulties.—Labor promotes health.—Wealth makes the man.—Poverty scatters friends—The ships sail.—The sun has set.—The moon rose.—The stars will shine.

N.B.—Let the pupils write similar exercises for themselves, and parse them.

LESSON 27.—Progressive Form.

ACTIVE VOICE.

285. The Progressive form of the varb is inflected by prefixing the verb to be, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus,

PRESENT. 1. I am writing. 2. Thou art writing, etc.
PRES. PERF. 1. I have been writing. etc.

Past. 1. I was writing. 2. Thou wast writing, etc.

Past Perf. 1. I had been writ- 2. Thou hadst been writing. ing, etc.

FUTURE. 1. I shall be writing. 2. Thou shalt be writing,

Fut. Perf. 1. I shall or will have 2. Thou shalt or wilt have been writing. been writing, etc.

[In this manner go through the other moods and tenses.]

286. Note. Verbs, which in the common form imply continuance, do not usually admit the progressive form; thus, "I am loving," (if proper) would mean nothing more than, "I love."

EXERCISES.

[Change the following verbs from the simple into the **progressive** form:]

He writes, they read, thou teachest, we have learned, he had written, they go, you will build, I ran, John has done it, we taught, he stands, he stood, they will stand, they may read, we can sew, you should study, we might have read.

[Change the following, from the progressive into the simple form:]

We are writing, they were singing, they have been riding, we might be walking, I may have been sleeping, they are coming, thou art teaching, they have been eating, he has been moving, we have been defending, they had been running.

[3. Parse the above verbs in the progressive form; thus, "We are writing;" "are writing," is a verb, trans., irreg.; write, writing, wrote, written; (286) in the present, indicative, active, first person, plural, progressive form.]

LESSON 28.—Passive Voice.

287. The Passive Voice is inflected by adding the past participle passive to the auxiliary verb to be, through all its moods and tenses; thus,

Present.	Present Part.	P^{ast} . Was loved.	Past Part. Loved.*
Am loved.	Being loved.	was loved.	TOAGO

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Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

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

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign. have.

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

^{*}The past participle is used by itself in a passive sense without an auxiliary. [See Appendix II.]

PAST TENSE.

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

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PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, had.

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

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall be loved.	1. We shall be loved.	
2. Thou shalt be loved.	2. You shall be loved	
3. He shall be loved.	3. They shall be love	

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall have been loved.	1. We shall have been loved.
2. Thou shalt have been loved.	2. You shall have been loved.
	3. They shall have been leved

Potential Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs,	may,	can,	must.—Inflect	with	each.
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Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be loved.	1. We may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be loved.	2. You may be loved.
3. He may be loved.	3. They may be loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs	, may ha	ve, can	have,	must have.—Inflect with each.
1. I may	have be	een lov	ed.	1. We may have been loved.
2. Thou	mayst	have	been	2. You may have been loved

21 Inou maybe have been	2. I ou may mave been loved.
loved.	•
3. He may have been loved	3. They may have been loved.
of 220 may have been loved.	o. They may have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, might, could, would, should.—Inflect with each.

Singular.

Plural.

- 1. I might be loved.
- 1. We might be loved.
- 2. Thou mightst be loved.
- 2. You might be loved.
- 3. He might be loved.
- 3. They might be loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, might have, could have, would have, should have.—Inflect with each.

- 1. I might have been loved. 1. We might have been loved.
- 2. Thou mightst have been 2. You might have been loved.
- 3. He might have been loved. 3. They might have been loved.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

1. If I be loved.

- 1. If we be loved.
- 2. If thou be loved.
- 2. If you be loved.

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- 3. If he be loved.
- 3. If they be loved.

PAST TENSE.*

- 1. If I were loved.
- 1. If we were loved.
- 2. If thou were or wert loved. 2. If you were loved.
- 3. If he were loved.
- 3. If they were loved.

Imperative Mood.

Singular.

Plural.

2. Be thou loved.

2. Be ye or you loved.

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To be loved.

Perf. To have been loved.

^{*} All the tenses of the **indicative** and **potential** are used in conditional clauses with a conjunction prefixed, to express present contingency; thus, If I am loved, If I have been loved, If I was loved, If I had been loved, If I shall or will be loved, If I shall have been loved, If I may be loved, etc.

Participial Mood.

PRESENT. Being loved.

PAST. Loved.

EXERCISE I.

ON THE PASSIVE VOICE.

[1. Tell the tense, mood, person, and number of the following words in the

passive voice;—change them into the active form.

2. Go over the exercise again, and parse each word in order; thus, "They," is a pronoun of the third person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative plural, the subject of are loved: "are loved," is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, passive, third person, plural, because its subject, "they," is third person, plural.]

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved; we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; if thou wert loved; though we be loved; though they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

[3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active progressive form.

EXERCISE II.

Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb.

[1. In the following Exercise, tell which words are articles-which are nouns-and why; -which are adjectives-and why; -which are pronouns -and why; -which are verbs-and why.

2. Point out the verbs; tell whether transitive or intransitive; -- and

why; -active or passive-and why.

3. Go over again, and point out the nouns, and tell whether proper or common-and why;-singular or plural-and why;-their gender-and why.]

He has learned his lesson.—I loved him because he was good.—A good man will forgive those who may have in-

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conıtinhad w be jured him.—Love your enemies; do good to them that nate you.—Remember your Creator in the days of your youth.

—We are commanded to love our neighbour as ourselves.

That book was printed in New York.—The winter has been cold, but the ground was covered with snow.—

Columbus discovered America.—America was discovered by Columbus.—I have been studying grammar.—It is never too late to learn that which is good and useful.—

Peter Parley has written some pleasing books.—Good boys love reading.—Study to understand what you read.—A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is heaviness to his mother.

[4. Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order, as heretofore directed.]

** It will now be important to review thoroughly and repeatedly from Lesson 23, particularly Lessons 23, 26, and 28, with the Exercises under them. This will require several recitations. And while that is going on, the pupil may also go forward with Lesson 29, conjugating from memory the irregular verbs, in such portions daily as the teacher may direct.

[5. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following irregular verbs. Use all of the forms here given.]

LESSON 29.—Irregular Verbs.

288. Irregular Verbs are those that do not form their past tense and past participle by adding ed to the present; as, Am, was, been.

289. They may be conveniently divided into three classes:

1. Those which have only one form for the three parts given; viz.:

Present.

Bet bet 2°* bet r

Burst burst past.

Past Participle.

bet r

burst

^{*}Those verbs that are also conjugated regularly are marked with an r. When two forms are given, the first is most used.

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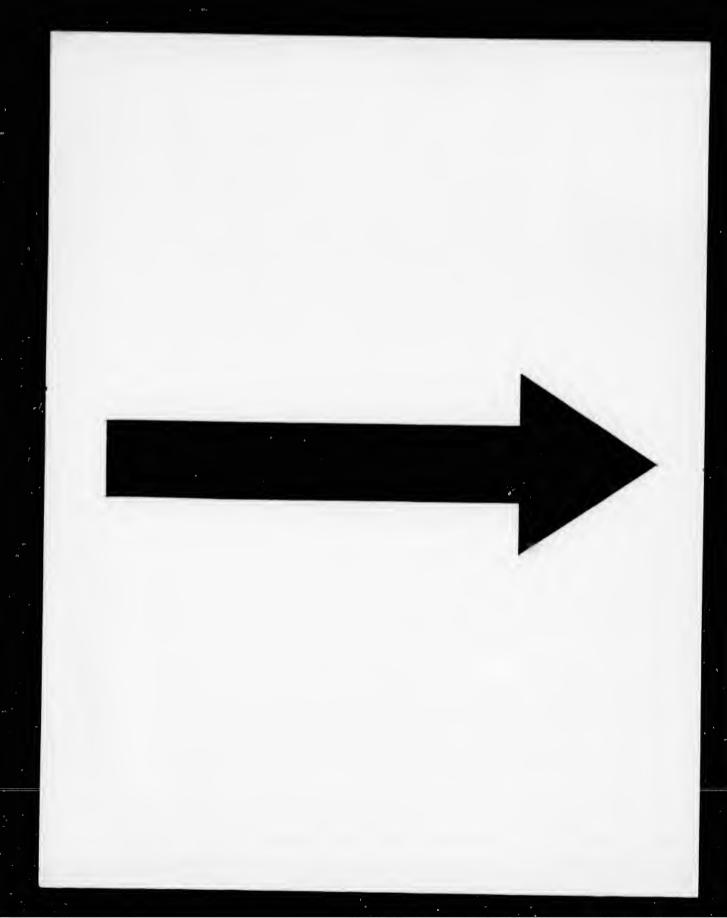
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Prevent. Past. Past Participle. Cast cast cast Cost cost cost Cut cut cut Hit hit hit Hurt hurt hurt Knit knit r knit r Let let let Put put put Quit quit r quit r Rap r rapt rapt rapt Read read rĕad Rid rid rid Set beset beset be-Shed shed shed Shred shred shred Shut shut shut Slit slit slit, slitted Spit spit (spat, obsolete) spit Split split split Spread bespread bespread be-Sweat r sweat r sweat Thrust thrust thrust Wet r wet r wet Whet r whet r whet

2. Those that have two forms for the parts given; viz.:

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Abide	abode	abode
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Bend	bent r	bent r
Bereave	r bereft	r bereft
Beseecl	besought	besought
Betide	r betid	r betid
Bless	r blest	r blest
Bind un-	bound un-	bound un-
Bleed	bled	bled



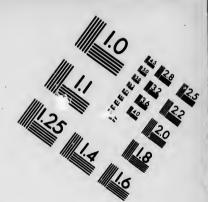
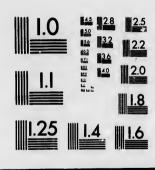


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Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build re-	built re- 2	built re- r
Burn	r burnt	r burnt
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught r	caught r
Cling	clung	clung
Come be-	came be-	come be-
Creep	crept	crept
Deal	dealt \boldsymbol{r}	dealt r
Dig	$\mathbf{dug}\; \boldsymbol{r}$	dug 🇨
Dream	r dreamt	r dreamt
Dress	r drest	r drest
Dwell	$\mathbf{d}\mathbf{welt}oldsymbol{r}$	dwelt r
Feed	\mathbf{fed}	${f f}{f e}{f d}$
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	\mathbf{fled}
Fling	flung	flung
Gild	r gilt	r gilt
Gird be- en-	r girt be- en-	r girt be- en-
Grind	ground	ground
Hang	hung	hung
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Hold be- with-	held be- with-	held, holden be- with-
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	r knelt	knelt r
Lay be-	laid be-	laid be-
Lead mis-	led mis-	led mis-
Lean	r leant	r leant
Leap	r leapt	r leapt
Learn	r learnt	r learnt
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Lie	lied	lied
Light	r lit	r lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	\mathbf{met}
Pass	r past	r past
Pay re-	paid re-	paid re-
Pen, to enclose	r pent	r pent
Rend	rent	rent
Ride	\mathbf{r} ode	rode, ridden
Run	ran	run
Say	said	said
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Shine	shone r	shone ?
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	\mathbf{shot}	shot
Sit	sat	sat (sitten, obsolete)
Sleep	slept	slept
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Smell	r smelt	r smelt
Speed	\mathbf{sped}	sped
Spell	r spelt	r spelt
Spend mis-	spent mis-	spent mis-
Spill	r spilt	r spilt
Spoil	spoilt r	r spoilt
Stand with- etc.	stood with-	stood with-
Stave	r stove	r stove
Stay	r staid	r staid
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.		
Sweep	swept	swept		
Swing	swung	swung		
Teach mis-	taught mis-	taught mis-		
Tell	told	told		
Think be-	thought be-	thought be-		
Weep	wept	wept		
Win	won	won		
Wind	wound r	wound \boldsymbol{r}		
Work	wrought r	wrought r		
Wring	r wrung	wrung r		

3. Those which have three forms for the parts given; viz.:

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3. Those which I	nave three forms	for the parts given; v	
Am	was	been	
Arise	arose	arisen	
Awake	awoke r	awaked	
Bake	baked	r baken	
Bear, to bring forth	bare, bore	born	
Bear for-	bore, bare for-	borne for-	
Begin	began	begun	
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid	
Bite	bit	bitten, bit	
Blow	blew	blown	
Break	broke, brake	broken, broke	
·Chide	chid	chidden, chid	
Choose	chose	chosen	
Cleave, to adhere	r clave	cleaved	
Cleave, to split	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft	
Clothe	clothed, clad	r clad	
Crow	r crew	crowed	
Dare, to venture	r durst	dared	
Dive	r dove	dived	
Do mis- un-	did mis- un-	done mis- un-	
Draw	drew	drawn	
Drink	drank	drunk	
Drive	drove	driven	
Eat	ate, eat	eaten	

Present. Fall be-Flv Forbear Forget Forsake Freeze Freight Get be-Give for- mis-Go Grave en-Grow Heave Hew Hide Know Lade Lie, to lie down Load Mow Ring Rise a-Rive Saw See Seethe Shake Shape mis-Shave Shear Show Shrink Sing Sink Slav

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Past. fell beflaw forbore forgot forsook froze freighted got, gat begave for- miswent graved engrew r hove hawad hid knew laded Tay loaded mowed rang, rung rose arived sawed Saw r sod shook shaped misshaved r shore showed shrunk, shrank sung, sang sunk, sank slew slid r

Past Participle fallen beflown forborne forgotten, forgot forsaken frozen fraught ? gotten, got begiven for- misgone r graven engrown r hoven 2 hewn hidden, hid known laden lain r laden r mown rung risen ar riven r sawn seen r sodden shaken r shapen misr shaven shorn r shown shrunk, shrunken sung sunk slain slidden, slid r

Present. Sling Smite Sow Speak be- Spin Spring Steal Stride be- Strive Strow be- Swear Swell Swim Take be- under- Tear Thrive Throw Tread Wax Wear	swore, sware swelled swum, swam took be-under- tore (tare, obsolete) r throve threw r trod (trode, obs.)	Past Participle. slung smitten, smit sown r spoken be- spun sprung stolen stridden, strid be- striven strown be- sworn r swollen swum taken be- under- torn thriven thrown r trodden, trod r waxen worn
		worn
		woven
Weave	WOVE	
Write	wrote (writ, obs.)	written (writ, obs.)

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QUESTIONS.—What are irregular verbs? Into how many classes may they be divided? What are they? Are any verbs both regular and irregular? Give an example. Since there is no list of regular verbs, how may we know what verbs are regular? Is "am" regular or irregular—and why?

EXERCISE I.

[1. Name the **present** and **past** tenses, **indicative** mood, and the present and past **participles** of the following verbs; thus, *Take*, took, taken.

2. Write a sho. sentence on the slate or blackboard, with each verb, in the present tense—in the perfect tense—in the past tense—in any tense; thus, We take breakfast early. John took my hat. I have taken his coat.]

Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay,

ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

[3. In the sentences made as directed No. 2, tell which verbs are transitive, and which are intransitive—and why. Point out the subject in each sentence, that is, the person or thing spoken of, and parsed in the nominative. Tell which nouns or pronouns are in the nominative-and why :- in the objective-and why.

4. In each sentence, put the verb in the emphatic form-in the progressive form-in the negative form-in the interrogative form-in the negative-interrogative form.]

EXERCISE. I.

[1. In the following Exercise, point out which verbs are regular, and which are irregular-and why.

2. Write short sentences with each verb, as in the preceding Exercise, and do with each as there directed, in Nos. 2, 3, 4.]

Love, hope, trust, weep, throw, keep, brush, hunt, count, reckon, ask, sleep, eat, drink, spin, save, go, teach, wipe, am, draw, bruise, water, know, wash, spoil.

[3. Take the sentences containing transitive verbs, and express the same idea by the passive form; thus, suppose the sentence to be, "James loves praise;" passive form, "Praise is loved by James."

4. Parse the sentences so changed.]

LESSON 30.—Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

290. Defective verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary. These are,-

Present. Can May Must	Past. could might	Past Part.	Present. Shall Will	Past. should would	Past Part.
Ought	ought		Wis Wit or)	wist	
Quoth	quoth		Wot }	wot	

Imperative,-Beware.

291. Impersonal verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are preceded by the pronoun it, and are always in the third person singular: as, it seems; it becomes, etc.

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292. To this head may be referred such expressions as, It hails, it snows, it rains, it thunders, it behooveth, it irketh, and perhaps also, methinks, methought, meseems, meseemed, in which, instead of it, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, me, is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

QUESTIONS.—What is a defective verb? Are they regular or irregular? What are they? What tenses do the most of them have? What tense has must?—ought? Is it proper to say "I had ought to read?" Why? What is an impersonal verb? By what are they preceded? In what person and number are they? What other word besides "it" is sometimes put before impersonal verbs?

LESSON 31.—Adverbs.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

293. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, or to denote some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks distinctly: she is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly. [APPENDIX IV, 6.]

294. Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,

1. Quality or Manner simply; as, well, ill, bravely, prudently, softly, with very many others, formed from adjectives by adding ly, or changing le into ly; thus, tame, tamely; sensible, sensibly, etc.

2. Place; as, here, there, where; hither, thither; hence.

3. Time; as, now, then, when; soon, often, seldom; ever.

4. Direction; as, upward, downward, backward, forward.

5. Affirmation; as, verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes.

6. Negation; as, nay, no, not, nowise, never.

7. Interrogation; as, how, why, when, wherefore.

8. Comparison; as, more, most; less, least; as, so, thus.

- 9. Quantity; as, much, little, enough, sufficiently.
- 10. Order; as, first, secondly, thirdly.
- 11. Uncertainty; as, perhaps, peradventure, per-1 -nce.
- 12. Conjunctive Adverbs; as, when, where, h. shile.

Observations.

- **295.** The chief use of adverbs is to **shorten** discourse, by expressing in one word what would otherwise require two or more; as, here, for "in this place;" nobly, "in a noble manner."
- **296.** Some adverbs admit of comparison, like adjectives; as, soon, sooner, soonest; nobly, more nobly, most nobly. A few are compared irregularly; as, well, better, best; badly, or ill, worse, worst.
- **297.** Some words become adverbs by prefixing a, which signifies at, or at, as, abed, ashore, afloat, aground, apart.
- 298. In comparisons, the antecedents as and so are usually reckoned adverbs; the corresponding as and so are adverbs also; thus, It is as high as Heaven.
- **299.** Circumstances of time, place, manner, etc., are often expressed by two or more words constituting an *adverbial phrase*; as, in short, in fine, in general, at most, at least, at length, not at all, by no means, in vain, in order, long ago, by and by, to and fro, which may be parsed together as adverbs, or by supplying the ellipsis; thus, in a short space; in a general way.
- **300.** A *Conjunctive Adverb* is one that modifies two different words, and connects the clauses to which they belong; as, "I will see you *when* you come." "He is happy *where* he is." 1
- **301.** There, commonly an adverb of place, is often used as an introductory expletive to the verbs to be, to come, to appear, etc.; as, "There is no chance." "There are five boys here."

PARSING.

302. An adverb is parsed by stating its class, and the word which it modifies; thus,

"Ann speaks distinctly." Distinctly is an adverb of manner, and modifies "speaks."

QUESTIONS.—What is an adverb? In the sentence, "Ann speaks distinctly," which is the adverb? Why? Into how many classes are adverbs commonly divided? Name the first three—the second three—the next three-the last three. How are adverbs formed from adjectives? How are adverbs compared like What is the chief use of adverbs? adjectives? Give an example. Are any compared irregularly? Give an example. What is an adverbial phrase? Give examples. How are such phrases to be parsed? For what do conjunctive adverbs stand? How is there used? How are adverbs parsed?

EXERCISE I.

[1. In the following list of adverbs, point out the class to which each

2. Compare those that admit of comparison.

3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the adverbs in the following list; and parse the sentences.]

Here, there, softly, boldly, wisely, seldom, upward, once, twice, hitherto, yesterday, how, more, little, secondly, enough, perhaps, yes, no, truly, not, already, hence, whence, better, sufficiently, wisely, somewhere.

EXERCISE II.

[]. In the following sentences, tell what words are articles—what words are nouns, and why-adjectives, and why-pronouns, and why-verbs, and why-whether transitive or intrans., and why-regular or irregular, and

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2. Which words are adverbs?—why? What do they modify? Parse.] why.

Peter wept bitterly.—He is here now.—She went away yesterday.—They came to-day.—They will perhaps buy some to-morrow.—Ye shall know hereafter.—She sang sweetly.—Cats soon learn to catch mice.—Mary rose up hastily.—They that have enough may soundly sleep.— Cain wickedly slew his brother.—I saw him long ago.— He is a very good man.—Sooner or later all must die.— You read too little.—They talk too much.

LESSON 32.—Prepositions.

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303. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun following it and some other word in the sentence; as,

"The book is upon the table." "The book is under the table." "They speak concerning virtue." [APPENDIX IV, 7.]

304. In these sentences, the propositions, "upon" and "under," show the relation between "table" and "book;" and "concerning" shows the relation between "virtue" and "speak."

305. Note.—A preposition may be followed by an infinitive mood, a phrase, or a clause, used as a substantive ¹ instead of a noun or pronoun; as, "We are about to depart."—"Honored for having done his duty."—"The crime of being a young man."

306. The principal words of this class are contained in the following—

List of Prepositions. About Below From Through Above Beneath In Throughout Beside) Across Into Till After Besides J Notwithstanding To Against Between Of Touching Betwixt Off Along Toward ? Amid Beyond On Towards 5 Amidst 5 But Out of Under Underneath Among $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y}$ Over Amongst 5 Until Concerning Past Around Down Pending Unto At Regarding During Up Athwart Ere Respecting Upon Bating Except Round With Before Within Excepting Save Behind For Since Without

Observations on Prepositions.

307. Every preposition requires the noun or pronoun, which is its object after it, to be in the objective case;

as, I gave the paper to him. When any word in the preceding list is **not** followed by an objective case, it is generally an adverb; as, He rides about.

308. But, in such phrases as cast up, hold out, fall on, the words up, out, on, may be considered as a part of the verb, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

309. 1. Of the words related, that before the preposition is called the antecedent term of the relation; and that which follows it is called the subsequent term, or the regimen of the preposition. The preposition and its regimen together constitute a prepositional phrase. (335.)

2. The antecedent term is always limited by the prepositional phrase, which is in character, adjective or
adverbial, according as the antecedent is a substantive or
some other word; ¹ as, He walks with great rapidity. It is a
work of much merit. There was another large of understanding.

Note.—For a fuller discussion of prepositions, their uses and classification, see A. & P. Gr. 538-554.

PARSING.

310. The preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech it is, and the words between which it shows the relation; thus,

"Before honor is humility." "Before" is a preposition, and shows the relation between "honor" and "humility."

QUESTIONS.—What is a preposition? In what case is a noun or pronoun, after a preposition? When an objective does not follow a preposition, what part of speech is it to be considered? What is the related word before the preposition called?—the one after it?

EXERCISES.

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[1. Point out the prepositions in the following exercises.

2. Point out the noun or pronoun after the preposition, and the word to which it is related; thus, "I went from Albany to New York." The preposition from, stands before Albany, and shows its relation to the verb, "went." So, also, to stands before New York, and shows its relation to "went."]

I went from London to Bath.—The king walked about the garden with his son.—They dined without me.—I fell off a ship into the river near (to) the bridge.—This box of wafers is for you.—Charles put it upon the table against the inkstand.—Turn down the lane through the gate.—I shall go up the road after him.—Run to that tree near the house.—It stands between the trees.—Put it on the table at the side of the house.—I found the knife among the ashes under the grate.—Sit by me.—John is at school.—They all went except me.

[3. Parse the words in preceding Exercises.]

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LESSON 33.—Conjunctions.

311. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as,

"You and I must study; but he may go and play." "Two and two make four."

*** Conjunctions sometimes begin sentences; for example, see the first chapter of Genesis.

312. Conjunctions are of two classes: Copulative and Disjunctive. [APPENDIX IV, 8.]

313. A copulative conjunction unites the meaning of the terms which it connects. There are two kinds—

1. Connective, which simply connect the meaning of two united sentences; as, "The sun shines, and the day is warm."

2. Continuative, which add on a limiting clause, and extend the sense of the principal; as, "We will go, when my brother arrives."

Note.—The latter generally introduce and connect a subordinate clause, which limits the principal clause, or some part thereof.

314. A *Disjunctive* conjunction is one which, while it joins two sentences together, disconnects their meaning. There are two kinds of disjunctives—

1. **Distributive**, which simply disconnect, or distribute, the meaning of the united sentences; as, "You may go, or you may stay."

2. Adversative, which contrast the meaning of united sentences: as. "He will go, but I will stay."

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A List of Conjunctions.

Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore, although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.

315. Obs. The copulative conjunctions connect things that are to be taken together; as, "You and I (i. e. both of us) must go." The disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest; as, "You or I (i. e. the one or the other, but not both) must go."

Note.—When conjunctions connect sentences, they do not connect individual words in the sentence. When they connect words, the words connected must be of the same class,—if nouns, of the same case; if verbs, same mood and tense, and with the same subject; if adjectives or adverbs, they must limit the same word 1 (526).

PARSING.

316. Conjunctions are parsed by stating to what class they belong, and the words, phrases, or sentences which they join together; thus,

"You and I must study." And is a conjunction, copulative, connective, and connects You and I.

QUESTIONS.—What is a conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What are the copulative? How many classes? Define each, and give an example. The disjunctive? How are they distinguished? Give an example of each. How do these two classes differ? How are conjunctions parsed?

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out the conjunctions in the following Exercise, the class to which each belongs, and the words or sentences which they connect

2. Parse all the words in order.l

Henry and Charles read their lessons.—I or he will be there.—I will be with you, unless you call.—I slept well, though the dog barked.—Read that you may learn.—John says that he will do it.—As he writes, so do I read; for I am fond of reading.—Neither the boys nor the girls are asleep.—I would call if I could, but I can not.—Take care lest you fall.—Two and two make four.—He is better than I thought he was, though he behaved ill.—Since that has happened, I must go.—Do to others as you would that they should do to you.—I study that I may improve.—When the sky falls, we shall catch larks.—If we study, we shall learn.—Not only the men, but also the women were present.

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LESSON 34.—Interjections.

317. An Interjection is a word used in exclamations, to express some emotion of the mind; as, Oh? what a sight is here! Well done!

A List of Interjections.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! begone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! heydey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! etc.

Observations on Interjections.

318. The Interjection is thrown in among the other words in a sentence, but does not affect their construction.

319. O is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or a pronoun, in a direct address; as, "O Virtue! how amiable thou art!" Oh is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "Oh! what a sight is here."

PARSING.

320. Interjections are parsed by naming them as such, stating why, and the emotion expressed.

QUESTIONS.—What is an *Interjection?* Name some of them. Does the interjection affect the construction of the other words in a sentence? How do O and Oh differ in meaning? How, in the manner of writing them? How are interjections parsed?

EXERCISES.

- [1. Point out the Interjections in the Exercises.
- 2. Name all the other parts of speech, and parse them.

Hah! I am glad to see you.—Well-a-day! I did not expect this.—Alas! I am ruined.—Indeed! is that true?—What! is it possible?—Lo! there he is.—Hem! I do not think so.—O what a benefit education is!—Ah! you are a happy fellow.—Hush! what was that?—Ha! ha! ha! how laughable that is!—Ho! come this way.—Ah! poor tellow, he is to be pitied.—Hurrah! we have finished our lesson.—Come! now for the next.

LESSON 35.—How to distinguish the Parts of Speech.

321. The articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, are so few in number, that they may be easily committed to memory. [APPENDIX IV, 9.]

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- **322.** The other four, namely, the noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, will be best distinguished by comparing their meaning and use with the definitions of these parts of speech in their place; thus,
- 1. Every word that is the name of a person or thing, is a noun; because "A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing."
- 2. A word that qualifies a noun by describing, limiting, or distinguishing it, is an *adjective*; because "An adjective is a word used to qualify a substantive."
- 3. A word that expresses what a person or thing does, or is, or what is done to a person or thing, is a *verb*; because "A vero is a word used to express the act, being, or state of its subject."

- 4. A word that modifies another by expressing a circumstance of time, place, manner, etc., is an *adverb*; because "An adverb," etc. (293.)
- **323.** The following technical method, though neither very accurate nor certain, may assist the young people in distinguishing these four parts of speech; but the preceding should always be preferred.
- 1. A word that makes sense after an article, or the phrase, "I speak of," is a noun; as, A man; I speak of money.
- 2. A word that makes sense before the word thing, is commonly an adjective; as, A good thing; an old thing.
- 3. A verb makes sense with 1, thou, he, or to before it; as, I write; he writes; to teach.
- 4. The answer to the question, How? When? Where? is generally an adverb; as, How do you do? Very well. When did you arrive? Yesterday. Where do you live? I live here.

Observations.

- **324.** Many words are sometimes to be regarded as one part of speech, and sometimes as another, according to their meaning and use in the place where they are used; thus.
- That, { Demonstrative Pronoun; as, "Give me that book." Relative Pronoun; as, "It is the same that I bought." Conjunction; as, "I am glad that you are come." (Adverb; as, "It is much better to give than to receive."
- Much, { Adjective; as, "In much wisdom is much grief." Noun; as, "Where much is given, much is required." (Conjunction; as, "Since we must part."
- Since, Preposition; as, "Since that time."

 Adverb; as, "Your friend has gone long since."
- But, { Conjunction; as, "Poor but honest." Preposition; as, "All but one." Adverb; as, "He has but just enough."
- Only, $\begin{cases} Adjective; as, "An only son." \\ Adverb; as, "It is only evil." \end{cases}$

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** Write additional sentences containing these words in the several senses indicated above.

325. When the same word is in one place a preposttion, and in another a conjunction, let it be remembered that the preposition is followed by an objective case; the conjunction is not. For additional suggestions upon certain of the parts of speech, see Appendix III, and A. & P. Gr.—Appendix I.

QUESTIONS.—How may we most readily distinguish articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections? How do you distinguish the noun from other parts of speech?—the adjective?—the verb?—the adverb?

LESSON 36.—Parsing.

326. Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements, or parts of speech. Words are parsed two ways: *Etymologically* and *Syntactically*.

1. In Etymological parsing, the pupil is required to state the part of speech to which a word belongs, and to

describe it by its accidents and uses.

2. In Syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these

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relations are governed.

N. B. Before proceeding to Syntax, the pupil should be expert in etymological parsing. This he can hardly fail to be, if he has attended, in the manner directed, to the exercises already given. Lessons from the reading book, or sentences from any plain writer, may now be analyzed and parsed, as already directed. To assist further in this, observe the following

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

327. In order to parse a sentence, it is necessary to understand its proper meaning. Then, in parsing it, let the following general principles be remembered, viz.:

- 1. Every Article, Adjective, Adjective pronoun, or Participle, belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.
- 2. The *subject* of a verb, i.e., the person or thing spoken of, is usually in the *nominative*.
- 3. Every noun or pronoun, in the *nominative* case, when spoken of, is the *subject* of a verb, expressed or understood, i.e., it is that of which the verb affirms. To this there are a few exceptions.

Note.—A word is **expressed**, when it appears in the sentence; it is **understood**, when it is implied but does not appear. Thus, "Mary's paper is white, but John's is brown;" in the first member of the sentence "paper" is expressed, in the last it is understood.

- 4. Every **verb** in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, must have a **subject** in the nominative case, expressed or understood, i.e. something of which it affirms.
- 5. Every *transitive* verb in the active voice, and every *preposition*, governs a noun or pronoun in the *objective* case; and every objective case is the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, or of a preposition.

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6. Every verb in the *infinitive* mood depends upon a verb or adjective; sometimes a noun; and sometimes it stands after the conjunction, than or as.

QUESTIONS.—What is parsing? How many kinds of parsing are there? What is done in etymological parsing?—in syntactical parsing? What is necessary before parsing a sentence? To what does every article, adjective, etc., belong? In what case is the subject of a verb? When a noun or pronoun in the nominative case is spoken of, what must it have? What must every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood have? What case does every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, have after it? By what is the objective case always governed? When a verb is in the infinitive mood, by what is it governed?

[For the answer to the f 'llowing questions, go back to the pages indicated.]

How is a noun parsed? (88)—an article? (101)—an adjective? (126)—a pronoun? (147, 161, 166, 177)—a verb? (275)—an adverb? (302)—a preposition? (310)—a conjunction? (316)—an interjection? (320.) Parse all these as directed in the places referred to, and as described in the next Lesson.

LESSON 37.—Etymological Parsing.

MODEL.

328. "Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."

Give....a verb, transitive, irregular; give, giving, gave, given; in the imperative, active, second person, singular. Its subject is thou understood, and its object, instruction.

'Instruction...a noun, neuter, in the objective singular; the object of give.*

To...a preposition; it points out the relation between its chiect, man, and give.

'A...an article, indefinite, belongs to man.

Wise...a common adjective; compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and expresses a quality of man.

Man...a noun, masculine, in the objective singular; pl. men. And...a conjunction, and connects the members.

He...a pronoun of the third person, masculine, in the nominative singular; the subject of will be, and stands for man.

[Will be.... a verb attributive, irregular; am, being, was, been; in the future, indicative, third person, singular, and affirms of its subject, he.

Yet.... an adverb, modifying wiser.

Wiser... an adjective, comparative degree; wise, wiser, wisest; and belongs to man, or is predicated of he.

329. As a further exercise, the pupil may be required to give a reason for every thing affirmed in the preceding model; thus,

Why do you say that give is a verb? Why transitive? Why irregular? Why the imperative? Why the second person? Why singular?

Why do you say that instruction is a noun? Why neuter? Why singular? Why the objective? etc.

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^{*} The person and class of the noun are omitted for reasons stated, ILLUSTRATION, p. 17, note.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

330. After the same manner as in the preceding Lesson, parse and practice on the following

Maxims for Young and Old.

I. EARLY PIETY.—Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth; while the evil days come not, nor the years draw nigh, when thou shalt say, I have no pleasure in them.

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Children, obey your parents; honor thy father and mother, is the first commandment with promise.

A wise son heareth a father's instruction, but a scorner heareth not rebuke.—The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pluck out, and the young eagles shall eat it.—A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.—Whose loveth instruction loveth knowledge, but he that hateth reproof is brutish.

II. EDUCATION.—Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Quintilian recommends to all parents the timely education of their children; advising to train them up in learning, good manners, and virtuous exercises; since we commonly retain those things in age which we entertained in youth.

'Tis education forms the common mind; Just as the twig is bent, the tree's inclined.

An industrious and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance for them than a great estate.

III. PROSPERITY AND ADVERSITY.—If I must make choice either of continual prosperity or adversity, I would choose the latter; for in adversity no good man can want comfort, whereas, in prosperity, most men want discretion. Adversity overcome is the greatest glory; and, willingly undergone, the greatest virtue; sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

IV. Anger.—The continuance of anger is hatred; the continuance of hatred becomes malice; that anger is not war-

rantable which has suffered the sun to go down upon it. Let all men avoid rash speaking. One unquiet, perverse disposition, distempers the peace and unity of a whole family, or society—as one jarring instrument will spoil a whole concert.

V. RICHES.—Riches beget pride; pride, impatience; impatience, revenge; revenge, war; war, poverty; poverty, humility; humility. patience; patience, peace; and peace, riches.

The shortest way to be rich, is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires. A great fortune in the hands of a fool, is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

VI. PERSEVERANCE.—It is astonishing to see how much can be done by perseverance. Jessie is not so smart as either of her sisters, yet it strikes me, she will grow up the most sensible woman of the three; and what do you think is the reason? Why, because she never says she can not do a thing, but tries, over and over again, till she does it.

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LESSON 38.—Analysis of Sentences.

- : 331. Syntax is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.
- **332.** A **Proposition** is a single statement or affirmation; as, "Bees make honey."—"It will be cold in winter."
- 333. A Sentence is such an assemblage of words as expresses a proposition and makes complete sense;* as, John studies.—He will leave to-morrow.—Buy the book, if it is a good one.—Go to school early.—Do you go to school?
- 334. A Clause is a sentence used in another sentence to limit it, or any part of it; as, If John study, he will improve. (388.) It is an element of a sentence containing within itself a subject and a predicate.
- **335.** A *Phrase* is two or more words rightly put together, but not making complete sense or expressing a proposition; as "A good boy." "By and by." "In truth, he did it."
- **336.** The term *phrase*, in grammar is now generally limited to the *preposition and its regimen* as an adjunct of the antecedent term. (309.)
- 337. Infinitives and Participles with their regimen are clauses. (See Anal. 136.)
- 338. A word, phrase, or clause used to qualify or limit another word, is called an adjunct.
- **339.** When the adjunct is in the predicate and affirmed of the subject, it is called an *attribute*; as, Snow is white.

EXERCISES.

[In the following, which are sentences?—which are clauses?—which are phrases?—which are adjuncts?—which adjuncts are attributes?]

^{*}The word "proposition" refers to the substance of what is stated. The sentence is the language which expresses it.

Ice is cold.—In truth.—God is good.—Life is short, and it should be well improved.—Truth will prevail.—Birds sleep in the open air, and awake early in the morning.
—To be sure.—The grass of the prairies is good food for cattle.—How many men were there?—Listen to good advice.

LESSON 39.—Parts of a Sentence.

340. Every sentence consists of two parts,—the Subject and the Predicate.

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- **341.** The Subject is that of which the affirmation is made; as, "Life is short." "Birds sing." "Haste makes waste."
- **342.** The subject of a sentence is commonly a noun or proxoun, or a clause used as a substantive; as, God is good; he does good.—To be a good scholar is an honor.—"That the world is a sphere, has been abundantly shown."—"Dust thou art, to dust returnest, was not spoken of the soul."
- 349. The **Predicate** is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, "Life is short." "Rome was not built in a day."
- **344.** The predicate properly consists of two parts—the attribute affirmed of the subject, and the copula, by which the affirmation is made. Thus, in the sentence, "God is love," God is the subject, and is love is the predicate, in which love is the attribute, and is the copula.
- 345. In the analysis of a sentence, first find the entire subject, and the entire predicate, before any discussion of individual words; for although there is generally a leading substantive, and always a principal verb, yet for the purposes of discourse the affirmation is made not of the noun simply, but of all the words, phrases, and clauses that limit it—and although it is the verb that affirms, yet the affirmation is incomplete unless we also take into account all the elements that modify the verb. The following are examples:

Subject.
Birds
Grass
Good boys
A good man
A bad man
The lazy boy
The active boy

Predicate.
fly.
is green.
obey their parents.
is respected by all.
is not respected.
moves slowly.
moves rapidly.
came while you were gono.

The man whom you saw

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The industrious man | enjoys the fruit of his labor.

Note.—The teacher should illustrate fully by use of the blackboard,

questioning the pupils until this distinction is perfectly understood.

346. The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word, which in that case must be a verb; as, "The fire burns," = "The fire is burning." Hence,

347. The attribute may be a noun or pronoun, an adjective, a preposition with its case, an adverb, an infinitive or part of a sentence, connected with the subject by an attributive verb as a copula.¹

348. The attributive verbs are such as, be, become, seem, etc.; and the passive forms of deem, call, name, consider, etc.; as, He became wise. He was called a benefactor.²

349. The Verb of the predicate is called the Affirmer.

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences mention the affirmer of each predicate—the attribute—the copula. Mention the subject of each—the predicate of each.]

Snow is white.—Ice is always cold.—Birds fly.—Home should be pleasant.—The fields are green in the spring.—Be sure that truth will prevail.—Does he go to school?—To learn a lesson well is commendable.—The man saw him.—Horses eat hay.—John and Jane will come, if invited.—Crows are never the whiter for washing themselves.—Between virtue and vice, there is no middle path.

[Write additional sentences, with another predicate for each of these subjects, and another subject for each predicate.]

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LESSON 40.—Classes of Sentences.

- **350.** Sentences as to the **Form** of the affirmation or mode of expressing it, are divided into *four* classes, viz.:
- 1. **Declaratory**, or such as declare a thing; as, "God is love."
- 2. Interrogatory, or such as ask a question; as, "Lovest thou me?"
- 3. Imperative, or such as express a command, entreaty, etc. (218); as, "John, go home." "Grant me my request."
- 4. Exclamatory, or such as contain an exclamation; as, "See how he runs!"
- 351. Sentences are Transitive, Intransitive, or Attributive, according to the kind of verb in the predicate. (181, 182, 183.)
- 352. As to the Number of Propositions they contain, sentences are divided into two classer, Single and Compound.
- **353.** A *Single Sentence*¹ expresses only *one* proposition; as, "John runs."—"John runs faster than the dog."—"I will go if the sun shines."—"John and James left the table."
- **354.** A Compound Sentence consists of two or more single sentences so united as to express several related propositions; ² as, "John runs and James walks."—"The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are as bold as a lion."

EXERCISES.

[State which of the following sentences are single, which compound, and of each whether declaratory, interrogatory, imperative, or exclamatory, and why?—transitive, intransitive, or attributive, and why?]

Birds fly.—Do any fish fly?—He is a gentleman and a scholar.—Bring me the book and I will read it.—Write

to me.—Ah! I see it.—The tide rises twice in twenty-four hours.—The land is good, but the buildings are old.—Do you intend to buy the farm?—Yes; and I shall build a house on it.—By improving the land I shall have better crops.—Who made the noise?—Charles, sir.

LESSON 41.—Single Sentences.

S55. Single Sentences (expressing only one complete proposition) are of three kinds, viz., Simple, Composite, and Complex.

356. A Simple Sentence contains but one subject, one affirmer, and, if transitive or attributive, one object or attribute; as, Horses run.—John strikes Thomas.—Sugar is sweet.—The boy reads (the paper).

357. The Simple Sentence may be enlarged—1. By an adjunct word or phrase in any or all of its parts; as "Wise men use rightly their time." 2. By the substitution of a clause for its subject, object, or attribute; as, "To be angry is to be mad."

358. The Composite Sentence, in expressing one proposition, may have two or more subjects, affirmers, objects, or attributes, and is said to be compound in the part thus affected; as, "Time and tide wait for no man." "He studies and recites grammar." "The sky is bright and clear."

359. The Complex Sentence is a single sentence containing a subordinate or rependent clause which limits the principal clause, or some part of it; as, "The boy who studies will excel." "We will go when the train leaves."

EXERCISES.

[In the following single sentences, which are **simple?** which are **composite** with compound subject? with compound predicate? which are **complex** sentences, and why?]

Grass is green.—Wood and coal will burn.—Coal burns readily when properly ignited.—He can read and

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write well.—I will finish the work when you wish me.—
If the road is good, we can travel fast.—I bought a book and a slate for a good boy.—And now abideth faith, hope, and charity.—That is gold which is worth gold.—Learn to unlearn what you have learned amiss.

LESSON 42.—The Subject.

- **360.** The **subject** of a sentence is either grammatical or logical.
- **361.** The *grammatical* subject is the person or thing spoken of, *unlimited* by other words; as, " *Horses* are strong."
- **362.** The *logical* subject is the person or thing spoken of, together with all the words, phrases, or clauses by which it is limited or defined. Thus: in the sentence, "Every man at his best estate is vanity,"—the grammatical subject is "man;" the logical subject is, "Every man at his best estate."
- **363.** A relative clause which limits a grammatical subject is called an adjective adjunct; as, "The boy who studies will improve."—(Studious boy.)¹
- **364.** When the grammatical subject has no limiting words connected with it, then it and the logical subject are the same; as, "God is good."—" Birds sing sweetly in the spring."
- 365. The subject of a proposition is either simple or compound.
- 366 A simple subject consists of one subject of thought; as, Snow is white. The boiler of the steamboat exploded.
- **367.** A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs the same predicate; as, You and I are friends.—Time and tide wait for no man.—Two and three are five.

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, which is the grammatical, and which

the logical subject? State whether simple or compound—limited or unlimited. Distinguish the simple and the compound subject. Point out the subject and the predicate in each.]

The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.—All men have not faith.—The memory of the just is blessed.—
Happy is the man that findeth wisdom.—The blessing of the Lord maketh rich.—Wise men lay up knowledge.—
The rich and the poor meet together.—Wealth makes many friends.—James and John are cousins.—A grammatical subject is unlimited.—Some dogs are savage.—The white horse died.

[Write predica es to the following compound subjects:]

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John and James.—He and she.—You and I.—The rich and poor.—Virtue and vice.—Heat and cold.

LESSON 43.—Modifications of the Subject.

368. A grammatical subject, being a noun or pronoun, may be modified, limited, or described in various ways; as,

- +1. By a noun in apposition; as, "Milton, the poet, was blind."
 - 2. By a noun in the *possessive case*; as, "Aaron's rod budded."
 - 3. By an adjunct phrase; as, "The works of Nature are beautiful."
- +4. By an *adjective word* (i.e. an article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle); as, "A good name is better than riches."
 - 5. By a *relative* and its clause; as, "He who does no good, does harm."
 - 6. By an *infinitive clause*; as, "A desire to learn is praiseworthy."
 - 7. By a clause in apposition; as, "The fact that he was a scholar, was manifest."

8. Each grammatical subject may have several modifications; as, "Several stars of less magnitude which we had not observed before now appeared."

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369. When the grammatical subject is an *infinitive*, or a *participle* used as a noun, it may be *modified* like the verb in the predicate (384).

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, point out the grammatical subject—the logical—and state how the grammatical subject is modified.]

A wise man foreseeth evil — Wisdom's ways are pleasantness. — Treasures of wickedness profit nothing. — He that walketh uprightly walketh surely. — Nature does nothing in vain. — Socrates, the philosopher, died by poison. — A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion.

LESSON 44.—Modifications of the Modifying Words.

- **370. Modifying or limiting words** may themselves be modified.
 - 1. A *noun* modifying another may itself be modified in all the ways in which a noun, being a grammatical subject, is modified.
 - 2. An adjective qualifying a noun may itself be modified—
 - (1.) By an adjunct phrase; as, "Be a man just in your dealings."
 - (2.) By an adverb; as, "A truly good man hates evil."
 - (3.) By an *infinitive*; as, "Be swift to hear, slow to speak."
 - 3. An adverb may be modified—
 - (1.) By an adjunct phrase; as, "Agreeably to Nature."
 - (2.) By another adverb; as, "Yours, very sincerely."
 - 371. A modified grammatical subject regarded as

a complex idea, may itself be modified; as, "The old black horse is dead;" "The first two lines are good."

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EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, by what words are the modifying nouns modified?—the adjectives?—the adverbs?]

Great wealth properly used is a blessing.—The very best remedy for certain evils is exercise.—Truly great men are far above worldly pride.—Your very kind letter has been received.—The river flows very rapidly.

LESSON 45.—The Predicate.

- 372. I. The **predicate**, like the subject, is either grammatical or logical.
- **373.** The *grammatical* predicate consists of the *attribute* and *copula*, not modified by other words.
- 374. The attribute, which together with the copula forms the predicate, may be expressed by a noun or pronoun—James is a scholar—James is he; an adjective—James is diligent; a participle—James is learned; a preposition with its regimen—James is in health; and sometimes an adverb—John is not so.
- **375.** The *attribute* is also expressed by an infinitive or other dependent *clause*; as, "To obey is *to enjoy*."—"The order is *that we must go.*"
- **376.** The *logical* predicate is the grammatical, together with all the words and phrases and clauses that modify it:—Thus, "Nero was cruel to his subjects,"—grammatical predicate, "was cruel"—logical, "was cruel to his subjects."
- 377. When the grammatical predicate has no modifying terms connected with it, the grammatical and logical predicates are the same; as, "Life is short."—"Time flies."
- 378. II. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

379. A simple predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as, "Truth is mighty."

380. A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates, affirmed of the same subject; as, "Truth is mighty and will prevail."

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, name the subject and the predicate—state whether the predicate is **simple** or **compound**—tell what is the **grammatical**, and what is the **logical** predicate.]

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The wind blows.—The fire burns.—Man is mortal. — Wisdom is the principal thing.—He that tilleth his land shall be satisfied with bread.—The way of a fool is right; in his own eyes.—A soft answer turneth away wrath.—The fields are green.—Cæsar came, saw, and conquered.—John reads and writes well.—The cities of the enemy were plundered and burned to the ground.—The night was dark and rainy.—He is a colonel in the regular army.

LESSON 46.—Modifications of the Predicate.

381. A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in various ways.

382. When the attribute in the grammatical predicate is a noun, it is modified—

- 1. By a noun or pronoun limiting or describing the attribute; as, "He is John the Baptist."—"He is my father's friend."
- 2. By an *adjective* or *participle* limiting the attribute; as, "Solomon was a *wise* king."

383. When the affirmer (349) contains the attribute, it may be modified—

1. By a noun or pronoun in the objective case, as the object of the verb; as, "We love him."—"John reads Homer."

- 2. By an adverb; as, "John reads well."
- 3. By an adjunct; as, "They live in London."
- 4. By an infinitive; as, "Boys love to play."
- 5. By a substantive clause; as, "Plato taught that the soul is immortal."
- **384.** An *infinitive* or *participle* may be modified in all respects as the finite verb in the predicate.
- *** The *object* of a transitive sentence, or any substantive in the objective case, may be modified in all the ways in which a subject may be modified.
- **385.** A modifying clause, if a dependent proposition, may be modified in both its subject and predicate as other propositions.
- **386.** All other modifying words may themselves be medified, as similar words are, when modifying the subject.
- **387.** Several modifications are sometimes connected with the same predicate; as, "He reads a good book carefully every evening."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, distinguish the grammatical predicate—state whether the attribute is a noun, or whether it is contained in the affirmer or verb—state how it is modified."

His father and mother are dead: they died a year ago.—Hannibal crossed the Alps.—Livy and Tacitus were Roman historians.—His intention was to destroy the fleet.—Time flies rapidly.—Sincerity and truth are the basis of every virtue.—I wish that he would come soon.

LESSON 47.—Limiting Clauses.

388. Clauses limiting single sentences, or the members of compound sentences, may be classified as to their office into substantive, adnominal, and adverbial.

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as the reads **389.** A substantive clause performs the office of a noun; as, "That I said so is most true."—"He loves to do right."

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- **290.** An *adnominal* clause limits like an *adjective*; as, "The boy who studies will improve."—"The master directed him to study."—"Admired, he became vain."
- **391.** An *adverbial* clause performs the office of an *adverb*; as, "He goes to school to learn."—"He is wiser than his brother."
- **392.** The clause on which another depends is called the *leading clause*, its subject the *leading subject*, and its predicate the *leading predicate*.
- **393.** In a **complex** single sentence, the dependent clauses are usually connected by *relatives*, *conjunctive* adverbs, or *conjunctions*; thus—

Relative.—"The apples that are in the basket are sold."

Conjunctive Adverb.—"We shall go when the cars go."

Conjunction.—"The miser lives poor that he may die rich."

- **394.** The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the book (which) I lost."
- **395.** A dependent clause is frequently abridged by omitting the connecting word and changing the verb of the predicate into a participle or infinitive; as, "When we have finished our lessons, we will play."—Adridged, "Having finished our lessons, we will play."
- **396.** When the dependent clause is the *object* of the verb in the leading clause, it may often be changed for the *infinitive with a subject;* as, "I know that he is a scholar."—Abridged, "I know him to be a scholar."
- **397.** When in such cases the *subject* of the *dependent* clause is the same as the subject of the principal clause, it is *omitted* in the abridged form; as, "I wished *that I might go.*"—Abridged, "I wished *to go.*"
 - 398. A dependent clause may be abridged by sub-

stituting an equivalent qualifying word or an adjunct; as, "The man who is honest will be respected."—Abridged, "The honest man will be respected."

EXERCISES.

[1. Abridge the following propositions, and write them out:]

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When our work is finished, we will play.—When I had visited Europe, I returned to America.—It is said that "the love of money is the root of all evil;" daily observation shows that it is so.

[2. Extend the following abridged propositions, and write them:]

Time past can never be recalled.—The road leading to the castle was blocked up.—I know it to be genuine.—You know him to be your friend.—We hold these principles to be self-evident.—His being successful is doubtful.—The war being ended, trade revived.

LESSON 48.—Compound Sentences.X

399. A **compound sentence** consists of two or more single sentences so united as to express several related propositions; as, "The man walked, and the boy ran."

400. The propositions which make up a compound sentence are called **members.**

401. The *members* of a compound sentence are *gram-matically independent* of each other; each will make sense by itself.

*** After stating the members, and how they are connected, analyze each as if it were a single sentence.

402. The members of a *compound* sentence are *connected* by such conjunctions as *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *yet*, etc.; as, "The harvest is passed, the summer is ended, and we are not sayed."

In such sentences, the connective is often omitted.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following sentences, state which are single, and which are compound. In the compound sentences, point out the members.]

We may not always have time to read, but we always have time to reflect.—Time passes quickly, though it appears to move slowly.—Care for yourself, and others will care for you.—The eyes of the Lord are in every place beholding the evil and the good.—Righteousness exalteth a nation.—John is taller than I, though I am older than he.

[2. In the following compound sentences, name the members—name the connecting words.]

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The weather was fine, and the roads were excellent, but we were unfortunate in our companions.—Beauty attracts admiration, as honor (attracts) applause.—Time is ever advancing, but it leaves behind it no traces of its flight.—When I was a child I spake as a child, but when I became a man I put away childish things.—He may go, or he may stay.—He was not a good speaker, yet he was an admirable writer.

Classification of Sentences.

SENTENCES.	2. Nature of Affirmation.	Declaratory. Interrogato: Imperative. Exclamatory. Transitive. Intransitive.		
	3. Number of Propositions.	Attributive. Single Compound	Simple. Composite. Complex. No logical re Logical sequ	

LESSON 49.—Directions for Analysis.

403. 1. State whether the sentence is single or compound; whether transitive, intransitive, or attributive; whether declaratory, interrogatory, imperative, or exclamatory.

2. If single, state whether it is simple, composite, or

complex.

3. Name the logical subject and the logical predicate.4. Name the grammatical subject.

5. Show by what words, phrases, or clauses, if any, the grammatical subject is **modified** in the logical.

6. Show by what modifying words, if any, each modify-ing word is modified.

7. Name the grammatical predicate.

8. Show by what words, phrases, or clauses, if any, it is modified in the logical.

9. Show by what modifying words, phrases, or clauses, if any, each modifying word is modified.

10. If the sentence is compound, mention the members.

11. Show how the members are connected.

12. Analyze each member as a single sentence, by showing its subject, predicate, etc., as above.

N.B.—In analyzing sentences, it will be necessary always to *supply* words left out by ellipsis, and to supply the antecedent to the relative *what*, and to the compound relatives *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*; making also the change which is necessary in the relatives themselves, when the antecedent is supplied.¹

Models of Analysis.

404. 1. God is good.

This is a single sentence, simple, because it contains a single affirmation; declaratory because it declares something; attributive—it affirms the attribute good of the subject God.

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God is the logical subject, because it is that of which the quality good is affirmed.

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Is good is the logical predicate, because it affirms of its subject. Is is the verb or copula, and good is the attribute.

In this sentence, the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by other words.

Or, more briefly, thus:—The logical subject is **God**. The logical predicate is **is good**, in which **is** is the verb or copula, and **good** the attribute. The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

2. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

This is a single sentence, simple, declaratory, attributive.

The logical subject is The fear of the Lord.

The logical predicate is is the beginning of wisdom.

The grammatical subject is fear. It is limited by the adjunct, of the Lord, and shown to be limited by the article the. (368, 4.)

The grammatical predicate is *is beginning*, in which *is* is the verb or copula, and *beginning* the attribute. It is modified by the adjunct of wisdom, and shown to be limited by the. (382).

3. Two and two make four.

This is a single sentence, composite (with a compound subject), declaratory, transitive.

The logical subject is two and two, compound.

The logical predicate is make four.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is make; it is modified by its object four.

4. Will the king fight and not conquer?

This is a single sentence, composite (with a compound predicate), interrogatory, used intransitively, (object omitted.)

The logical subject is the king.

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The logical predicate is will fight and not conquer, compound.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The first grammatical predicate is will fight; the second is not conquer; they are connected by and.

5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

This is a single sentence, simple, imperative, transitive. The logical subject is thou understood.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The logical predicate is Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

The grammatical predicate is **Remember**. It is modified by now, an adverb of time, also by its object *Creator*, limited by the possessive adjective pronoun thy. It is further modified by the adjuncts in the days of thy youth. In the first of these adjuncts, the term days is limited by the second adjunct, and shown to be so by the definite article the.

6. A good man does what (= that which) is right, from principle.

This is a single sentence, complex, declaratory, transitive, containing one leading affirmation and one dependent clause, connected by which.

The logical subject of the whole sentence is A good man; the logical predicate is does what is right from principle.

The leading affirmation is A good man does that from principle. The dependent clause is which is right, and is restrictive of that in the leading proposition, the antecedent to which, the connecting word.

In the first or leading clause—

The logical subject is A good man.

The logical predicate is does that from principle.

The grammatical subject is man, qualified by good, and shown to be indefinite by a.

The grammatical predicate is does, modified by its object that,

and the adjunct from principle; that is modified by the relative clause.

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In the second or dependent clause-

The logical subject is which. It also connects its clause with the antecedent that, and restricts it.

The logical predicate is is right, in which is is the verb or copula, and right is the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.¹

7. Righteousness exalteth a nation; but sin is a reproach to any people.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two members, connected by but. Declaratory.

The first member, "Righteousness exalteth a nation," is a single, simple sentence, transitive, of which

The logical subject is Righteousness.

The logical predicate is exalteth a nation.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is exalteth (265). It is modified by its object nation, and this is shown to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed.

The second member, sin is a reproach to any people, is also a single, simple sentence, attributive, and connected with the preceding member by the conjunction but, expressing contrast or opposition.

Of this member, the logical subject is sin.

The logical predicate is is a reproach to any people.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is is a reproach, of which is is the copula, and reproach the attribute, shown to be used indefinitely by the article a prefixed. It is modified by the adjunct to any people. In this adjunct, the word people is used in a general or unlimited sense, as intimated by the indefinite adjective pronoun any prefixed.

¹ A. & P. Gr.-610, 624.

EXERCISES.

[Thus analyze the following sentences:]

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is the Man is mortal.—All men are mortal.—The man and woman arrived to-day.—He sold his horse and wagon.—The hand of the diligent maketh rich.—The love of money is the root of all evil.—A friend in need is a friend indeed.—He that trusteth in his riches shall fall.—If I do not go you must.—The fire burns fiercely when the wind blows it.—It was I who wrote the letter, and he carried it to the post-office.—He gave the book to some one, I know not to whom.

LESSON 50.—Construction of Sentences.

405. Words are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules, called the Rules of Syntax.

406. General Principles.

- 1. In every sentence there must be a verb and its subject, expressed or understood.
- 2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive, expressed or understood.
- 3. Every *subject* has its own *verb*, expressed or understood.
- 4. Every *finite verb* (that is, every verb not in the infinitive or participial mood) has its own *subject* in the nominative case, expressed or understood.
 - 5. Every possessive case limits a noun or substantive.
- 6. Every objective case is the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, or of a preposition; or denotes circumstances of time, value, weight, or measure. (473.)
- 7. The *infinitive mood* depends upon a verb, noun, or adjective.
 - 8. Every adverb limits a verb, adjective, or adverb.

9. **Conjunctions** unite words and phrases that stand in the same relation in a sentence. They also serve to connect members and clauses in complex and compound sentences.

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*** The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

Parts of Syntax.

407. The Rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads; viz., Concord, or agreement, Government, and Position.

408. Concord is the agreement one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

409. Government is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, or case of another word. The word governed by another word is called its regimen. (309.)

410. Position means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

*** In the English language, which has but few inflections, the *meaning* of a sentence often depends much on the *position*¹ of its words.

LESSON 51.—Substantives in Apposition.

Person or thing, agree in case; as, Cicero, the orator. Carlo, the large dog, is dead.

412. Words thus used are said to be in apposition.

413. Explanation.—A noun is placed in apposition after another noun, to express some attribute, description, or appellation, belonging to it. Both nouns must be in the same member of the sentence, that is, in the subject, or the predicate. This Rule applies to all words used substantively, and it is only when the word in apposition is a pronoun that there is any danger of error, because in pronouns only the nominative and objective are different in form. The word

¹A. & P Gr.-541, 755, 759, 832.

in apposition is sometimes connected with the preceding by the words as, being, and the like.

EXERCISES.*

[1. In the following Exercise, point out the words in apposition. See if they are in the same case. If they are, the sentence is right; if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. In the following, some sentences are right, others wrong.]

First in the hearts of his countrymen is Washington, the hero, the statesman, and the patriot.—La Fayette, the friend of Washington, is no more.—Your brother has returned, him who went abroad.—I bought whis paper from a bookseller, he who lives opposite; will you please to give it to that boy, he that stands by the door?—Is your sister well, her that was lately sick?—Hand that book to John, he who reads so well.—The premium for the best writer is given to Thomas, he who took so much pains to excel.—Brutus slew Cæsar, him who was the great conqueror.—Solomon, king of Israel, built a temple for Jehovah, his Lord.—The President, Lincoln, was assassinated—Us, boys, were there.—Him, being a child, was forgiven.

[2. Write correct sentences, each to contain a noun, or a noun and its pronoun, in apposition.]

LESSON 52.—Adjective and Substantive.

414. Rule II.—1. An adjective or a participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs; as, "A good man." "A horse wearied by labor."

An adjective used as an attribute (344) in the predicate must qualify the subject; as, "Sugar is sweet."

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^{*} N.B.—Throughout the Exercises in Syntax—first, correct the errors, and write the exercises as corrected; second, analyze orally the sentences corrected; thirdly, parse any word etymologically; and, lastly, parse syntactically the word or words to which the rule refers. (552.)

¹A. & P. Gr.-684.

- 2. Adjectives denoting one qualify nouns in the singular—adjectives denoting more than one qualify nouns in the plural; as, "This man." "These men." "Six feet."
- 415. EXPLANATION.—This Rule applies to all adjective words, namely, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles. These being indeclinable in English, there is danger of error only in the use of such as imply number.

Observations.

- 416. Adjectives denoting one are this, that, one, each, every, either, neither; and the ordinal numerals, first, second, third, etc.
- 417. Adjectives denoting more than one are these, those, many, several; and the cardinal numerals, two, three, four, etc.
- 418. Some adjectives implying number can be joined with either singular or plural nouns, according to the sense; as, some, no, etc.; thus, Some man—some men.
- 419. EXCEPTION.—When a noun following the numeral is used in an adjective sense (109), it has not the plural termination; thus, we say, A four inch plank; a three foot wall; a four horse team; a ten acre field, etc.
- **420.** Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, miserable poor; sings elegant, should be, miserably poor; sings elegantly.¹
- **421.** When two or more objects are contrasted, *this* and *these* refer to the last mentioned, *that* and *those* to the first; as, "Virtue and vice are opposite qualities; that ennobles the mind, this debases it."
- 422. Comparison.—1. When two objects are compared, the comparative degree is commonly used; when more than two, the superlative; as, "He is taller than his father." "John is tallest amongst us."

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2. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper;

thus, "James is more taller than John,"—omit more. "He is the most wisest of the three,"—omit most.

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ore his 423. Position.—An adjective is generally put before its noun; but in the following instances it is put after: 1. When it qualifies a pronoun. 2. When other words depend on the adjective. 3. When the quality results from the action expressed by the verb. 4. When the adjective is predicated.

[*** For other varieties and exceptions, see A. & P. Gr. 677-706.]

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjectives, and the substantives (41) which they qualify. Tell which denotes one, and which more than one, and make the substantives singular or plural as the adjectives require.]

A well six fathom deep.—A pole ten feet long.—A field twenty rod wide.—I have not seen him this ten days.—
Those sort of people are common.—These kind of things are useless.—You will find the remark in the second or third pages.—Each have their own place, and they know it.—The second and third page were torn.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adjective of number (416—418), and a substantive in the number required by the adjective. Thus, Every man had a pole six feet long.]

LESSON 53.—The Article.

- 424. Rule III.—1. The article a or an is put before common nouns in the singular number, when used indefinitely; as, "A man"—"An apple;" that is, "any man"—"any apple."
- 2. The article the is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used definitely; as, "The sun rises"—"The city of New York."
- **425.** Explanation.—It is impossible to give a precise Rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule

¹ A. & P. Gr.-705.

is, to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed. (For others, see A. & P. Gr. 707-728.)

Observations.

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426. The article is *omitted* before a noun that is *unlimited*, or that stands for a *whole species*; as, Man is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, etc. Some nouns denoting the species have the article always prefixed; as, *The dog* is a more grateful animal than *the cat*. The lion is a noble animal. Others never have it; thus, *Lead* is softer than iron. *Wood* is lighter than stone.

427. The *last* of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than writer.

428. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, are used to qualify the same noun, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; but when they belong to different subjects, the article is prefixed to each; thus, "A red and white rose," indicates one rose, partly red and partly white. "A red and a white rose," means two roses, one red and one white. "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," denotes one person. "Johnson the bookseller, and the stationer," denotes two.

EXERCISES.

[1. The following sentences are wrong only in the use of the article. Show why they are wrong, and correct them.]

A great talents without a virtue are dangerous.—A man is mortal.—A time flies.—The money is scarce.—John is a better farmer than a scholar.—The black and the white spaniel runs fastest.—The black and white spaniel run together.—The time and the tide wait for no man.—A red and a white rose grows on this bush.—The black and white man came together.—Smith, the tanner and currier, entered into partnership.—Smith, the tanner and the currier, is a man of a great industry.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the article a oran, or the;—others, which shall contain nouns without an article.

LESSON 54.—Personal Pronouns.

429. Rule IV.—Personal pronouns agree with the words for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, All that a man hath, will he give for his life.

EXPLANATION.—Only *personal* and *possessive* pronouns have *different forms* for the several genders, numbers and persons, and this Rule means, that when any of these pronouns is used, it must be of the same gender, number, and person, with the noun for which it stands.

Special Rules.

- 430. Rule 1. When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and if the words are of different persons, it prefers the first; erson to the second, and the second to the third; as, "He and she did their duty."—"John and you and I will do our duty."
- 431. Ruld 2. When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular, taken separately; or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, "A clock or a watch moves merely as it is moved."
- 432. Rule 3. But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, "Neither he nor they trouble themselves."

Observations.

- 433. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the noun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, "The army proceeded on its march."—"The court were divided in their opinions."
- 434. The word containing the answer to a question (163), must be in the same case as the word that asks

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a le. it; as, "Who said that?" Ans. "I (said it)." "Whose books are these?" Ans. "John's."

[*** For other Notes and Observations, see A. & P. Gr. 736-741.]

EXERCISES.

[In the following Exercise, point out the **personal** and **possessive** pronouns (168) and the nouns for which they stand. Change the pronoun, if necessary, for one of the same gender, number, and person, with its noun.]

Give to every man their due.—Answer not a fool accordto her folly.—Také handfuls of ashes and sprinkle it
toward heaven.—Rebecca took raiment and put them
upon Jacob.—Thou and he shared it between them.—
Who is there? Me.—Who did that? Him.—Whom
did you meet? He.—Whose pen is that? Her or mine's.
—Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or
later it is sure to be rewarded.

LESSON 55.—Relative and Antecedent.

435. Rule V.—The relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number and person; as, "Thou who speakest."—"The book which was lost."

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436. EXPLANATION.—The relative stands instead of the noun or pronoun called its antecedent, and also connects the idea expressed in its clause with the antecedent, either for the purpose of further describing it, or of limiting and restricting it. (158.) Consequently, the relative is always regarded as of the same gender, person, and number as its antecedent; and if the subject of a finite verb, the verb will be of the same number and person also. The relative has the same form in all genders.

For remarks respecting the antecedent, and the use of who and which, see Lesson 13.

Special Rules.

437. Rule 1.— Who is applied to persons or things per-

sonified; as, "The man who."—"The fox who had never seen a lion."

438. Rule 2.—Which is applied to things, and inferior animals; as, "The house which;" "The dog which."

439. Rule 3.—That, as a relative, is used instead of who or which—

- 1. After the superlative degree, the words same, all, and sometimes no, some, and any; and generally in restrictive clauses; as, "It is the best that can be got."
 - 2. When the antecedent includes both *persons* and *things*; as, "The man and the horse *that* we saw yesterday."
 - 3. After the *interrogative who*, and sometimes after the *personal* pronoun; as, "Who that knows him will believe it."—"I that speak in righteousness."
 - 4. Generally, when the propriety of who or which, is doubtful; as, "The child that was placed in the midst."
- **440.** REMARK.—The **relative** as the **object** of a verb, generally **precedes the verb** on which it depends; as, "The man whom I saw, is here."—"I have found that which I lost."

[*** For other remarks, see A. & P. Gr. 743-759.]

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out the **relative**, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Tell the use of the relative and its clause in each sentence. Alter the relative, if necessary, as required by its antecedent, according to Sub-Rule 1. (437.) If the relative is in the nominative, put its verb in the same number and person as the relative or the antecedent. Give a reason for each change.]

The friend which I love.—The vice whom I hate.—There is the dog who followed us.—They which seek wisdom, find it.—All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave.—"I who speak unto you, am he."—It is the best situation which can be got.—The man and the horse whom we saw.

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[2. Write ten short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the following nouns or pronouns limited by a relative and its clause; viz., Man, house, dog, tree, field, hat, boot, chair; I, thou, he, we, you, they; thus, "There is the man who makes baskets." Parse the sentences, and tell the number and person of the relative, and why.]

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LESSON 56.—Subject Nominative.

- **441.** Rule VI.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, "I am."—" Thou art."—"He is."—" They are."—" Time flies."
- 442. EXPLANATIONS.—A finite verb is the verb limited by person and number, i. e. a verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative mood.
- 443. The subject of a finite verb may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or a substantive clause. Any of these, when the subject of a verb, may be regarded as a substantive in the nominative.¹

Note.—In *comparative* sentences,² the substantives in the second member must be in the *same case* as the corresponding substantives in the first; as, "One *vice* costs more than many *virtues* (cost)."—"He reads more than she (reads)."

EXERCISES.

[In each sentence, point out the verb and its subject. If the subject is not in the right ease, change it.]

Him and me are of the same age.—Suppose you and me go.—Them are excellent.—It is probable that her and me will return.—Robert is taller than me, but I am as strong as him.—I am older than him; but he is taller than me.

LESSON 57.—Nominative Absolute.

444. Rule VII.—A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute.

¹ A. & P. Gr.-761-767.

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Special Rules.

- 445. RULE 1.—A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute; as, "He being gone, only two remain."
- 446. RULE 2.—A substantive denoting a person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word, is put in the nominative; as, "I remain, dear sir, yours truly." "Plato, thou reasonest well."
- 447. Rule 3.—A substantive unconnected in mere exclamation, is put in the nominative; as, "O the times!—O the manners!"
- **448.** Rule 4.—A substantive **used by pleonusm**, before an affirmation, is put in the nominative; as, "Your fathers, where are they?"
- *** Under these Rules, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISES.

[Point out the word in the case absolute or independent: if wrong, put it in the right case, and state why it should be in the nominative.]

Me being absent, the business was neglected.—Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.—Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings.—Thee too! Brutus, my son! cried Cæsar overcome.

LESSON 58.-Verb and its Subject.

- 449. Rule VIII.—A verb agrees with its subject in number and person; as, "I read;" "Thou readest:" "He reads:" "We read," etc.
- 450. Explanation.—This Rule means, that a verb must take the form or termination denoting the same number and person with its subject. This Rule and the Special Rules under it apply, also, when the subject is an infinitive or other clause. See under Rule VI.

EXERCISES.

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[1. In the following Exercises, tell which words are verbs—which the subjects—whether the verb and its subject agree—and if not, make them agree by putting the verb in the person and number of its subject.]

You was there.—They was absent.—Your brother has been abroad.—Has your sisters come home?—Was you present?—The letters has come.—Fair words costs nothing.—There is no roses without thorns.—So much of ability and merit are seldom found.—In the work of education the order of studies are important.—The value of the jewels are very great.

[2. Take the verb to write, and make it agree with I—with you—with he—with they—in all the tenses of the indicative mood. Take any other verb, and do the same.]

LESSON 59.—Verb and its Subject.

Special Rules under Rule VIII.

- 451. Rule 1.—A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, "Ten sail (meaning ships) are in sight."
- 452. Rule 2.—Two or more substantives singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "James and John are here."
- **453.** Exc.—But when substantives connected by and denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "Why is dust and ashes proud?"
- **454.** RULE 3.—Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as, "James or John attends."—"The dog or the cat makes the noise."
- 455. Rule 4.—When substantives taken together are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next to it; as, "James or I am in the wrong." Better, "James is in the wrong, or I am."
- 456. Obs.—When the substantives are of different num-

bers, the plural number is generally placed last; as, "Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved."

- **457.** Rule 5.—1. A collective noun expressing many, considered as one whole, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company was large."
- 2. But when a **collective** noun expresses many, considered as **individuals**, the verb must be **plural**; as, "My people do not consider."

EXERCISES.

[In the following Exercises, put the verb in the number required by the Rule, and give the Rule for the correction.]

- (1.) Forty head of cattle was grazing in the meadow.—
 Twelve brace of pigeons was sold for one dollar.—(2.) Life and death is in the power of the tongue.—Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing.—(3.) Either the boy or the girl were present.—(4.) I or you am to blame.—(5.) The people was numerous.—The deer were caught.
 - [2. Write the sentences as corrected.]

LESSON 60.—The Predicate Substantive.

- 458. Rule IX.—The predicate substantive after an attributive verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as, "It is I."—"He shall be called John."—"I took it to be him."
- 459. EXPLANATION.—Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly those which signify to be, or to become; passive verbs of naming, making, choosing, and the like; as, "John became a scholar;" "David was made king." The substantive before the finite verb is the subject, the one after it is the predicate, and the verb is the copula. Hence they all form a simple sentence; and though the nouns denote the same person or thing, and are in the same case, they are not in apposition, as in Rule I; but the substantive after a verb is predicated of that before it.

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EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, in each sentence, point out the verb to which the Rule applies, and the noun or pronoun before and after it.

2. Tell the case of the one before, and why. Put the one after the verb in the same case as the one before it, give the Rule for the charge, and show how it applies. Tell the subject and predicate in each sentence.

It is me.—It could not have been them.—I am certain it was not me.—That is the man who I thought it to be.

—Is that thee?—Whom did they say it was?—I understood it to have been he.—Was it me that said so?

—It could not have been me; but it might have been him, or her, or both.

[3. Write similar correct sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, with the same case after it as before it, viz., is, are, became, was made, shall be chosen, to be, to be called, to be appointed. Apply the Rule as above.]

LESSON 61.—Object of a Verb.

460. Rule X.—A substantive being the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, is put in the objective ease; as, "We love him."—" Whom did you send?"

461. Explanation.—The transitive verb in the active voice, always tells what its subject does to some other person or thing, called its *object*. The rule means, that this *object* must always be put in the *objective case*. This rule is liable to be violated only when the object is a *pronoun*, because in all other words the nominative and the objective case are alike in form. (83.)

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462. Nouns and personal pronouns in the objective case, are usually placed after the verb—relative and interrogative pronouns, usually before it. (440.)

463. The infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or a substantive clause, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, "Boys love to play."—"He practised reading aloud."—"I know what he will do."

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, point out the transitive verb—its subject—its object,—put that object in the proper ease—tell what the case is, and why.]

He loves her and I.—Did they hurt ye?—We know he and they.—He and they we know.—The friend who I love.—Take care who you admit.—I will not give ye up.—He who you ignorantly worship, declare I unto you.—Let you and I go.—This is the boy who I saw.

[2. Write a number of sentences, each of which shall contain a transitive verb in the active voice; such as, do, have, touch, hirt, love, etc., followed by a personal pronoun in the proper case. Parse them, and give the Rule.]

Special Rules.

464. RULE 1.—An intransitive verb can have no object; as, "Repenting him of his design"—omit him.

465. Rule 2.—Intransitive verbs used in a transitive sense (187), govern the objective case; as, "He runs a race."—"I laugh at him."

466. Rule 3.—Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice, except when used transitively (210); as, "My race is run."

467. Rule 4.—A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it; as, "I will not allow of it"—omit of.

468. RULE 5.—Verbs signifying to name, appoint, constitute, and the like, generally govern two objectives, viz.: the direct, denoting the person or thing acted upon; and the indirect, denoting the result of the act expressed; as, "They named him John." 3

EXERCISES UNDER THE SPECIAL RULES.

[Show how the Rule is violated in each of the following sentences, and correct the error.]

(1.) Robert plays himself with his lessons.—He lies him down on the grass.—(2.) They expatiated themselves

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noun, ansitised largely.—Planters grow cotton.—Sit thee down.—(3.) I am resolved to go.—Is your father returned?—He is almost perished with cold.—(4.) They do not want for any thing.—His servants ye are, to whom ye obey.—False accusation can not diminish from his real merit.—(5.) He was chosen for a Senator.

LESSON 62.—Objective after a Preposition.

- 469. Rule XI.—A substantive being the object of a preposition, is put in the objective case; as, "To whom much is given, of him much shall be required."
- 470. EXPLANATION.—This rule can be violated only in the use of pronouns.
- **471.** Whom and which sometimes depend upon a preposition at some distance after them. But this should generally be avoided; thus, "This is he whom I gave it to,"—better—"to whom I gave it."
- **472.** The *preposition* is sometimes *omitted*. It is then said to be understood; thus, "Give (to) me that book." Here, "me" is the objective after "to," understood.

Special Rule.

473. Rule.—Nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure are commonly put in the objective case without a governing word; as, "He was absent six months last year."—"It cost a shilling."—"It is not worth a cent."—"It weighs a pound."—"The wall is six feet high, and two feet thick."

This may be called the objective of time, value, weight, etc.

EXERCISES.

[1. Point out the **preposition** and the word which is its **object.** Put that word in the proper case, if not in it already. Give the Rule.]

This belongs to my father and I.—Who did you get it from?—Who shall we send it to?—Divide it between

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ye, or give it to him and I.—This is a small matter between you and I.—Who did you give it to?—Who do you work for?

[2. In this way, write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain a preposition (see the list, 306), followed by a personal or relative pronoun in the proper case. Parse the sentences, and give the Rule for the case after the preposition.]

474. When the prepositions to, at, in stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed, viz.:

- 1. To—is used after words denoting motion toward; as, "He went to Spain;" but, in this case, it is omitted before home; as, "He went home."
- 2. At—is used before the names of houses, villages, towns, and foreign cities; as, "He resides at the Mansion house—at Geneva—at Lisbon."
- 3. In—is used before names of countries and large cities; as, "He lives in England—in London." But before these, at is used after the verbs touch, arrive, land; and sometimes after the verb to be.
- 4. In speaking of one's residence in a city, at is used before the number, and in (generally understood), before the street.
- 5. Into—is used after a verb implying motion; as, "He went into the house. In, after a verb implying absence of motion; as, "He is in the house.

EXERCISES.

[(474.) In the following sentences, change the preposition used, for that which usage requires, and give the special Rule.]

I have been to home all day.—Have you been to Boston?

—They live in Union Village; formerly they lived at New York.—He has been at England, and has just returned to home.—We touched in France on our way to home.—He lives to Washington, at B Street, but resided formerly in No. 50 Broadway, New York.—I saw him go in the barn a moment since.—Six is contained into thirty, five times.—He is into the store.

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ject. e.] et it [2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the name of some city, village, county, or state, preceded by a verb or word denoting motion toward, or by the verb be, live, dwell, etc., and the appropriate preposition.]

LESSON 63.—Prepositions after certain words.

475. Rule XII.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; Thus—

Accuse of.

Acquit of.

Acquiesce in

Adapted to.

Ask or inquire of a person for what we wish to see—after what we wish to hear of.

Believe in, sometimes on.

Betray to a person,—into a thing.

Call on a person,—at a place.

Change for,—to,—into.

Compare with, in respect to quality,—to, for illustration.

Confide in.

Conformable, consonant to, with.

Conversant with men, — in things.

Copy from life, nature,—after a parent.

Dependent upon.

Die of disease,—by an instrument or violence,—for another.

Differ from. Difficulty in.

Diminish from,—diminution of.

Disappointed in what we have,—of what we expect.

Discourage from.

Discouragement to.

Engaged in a work,—for a time.

Equal to, with.

Exception from,—sometimes to.

Expert at (before a noun),—
in (before an active participle).

Fall under disgrace; from a tree; into a pit; on the ice. Familiar to, with. A thing is familiar to us; we with it.

Fond of. Free from.

Glad of something gained by ourselves — at something that befalls another.

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Made of. Marry to.

Prejudice against. Profit by. upon,-(to overcome), over, against.

Protect (others) from,—(ourselves) against.

Provide with or for.

Reconcile (for friendship) to, (for consistency) with.

Reduce (to subdue) under,-(in other cases) to; as, to powder.

[For additional instances, see A. & P. Gr. 834.)

Martyr for. Need of. Observation of. Offensive to. Prevail (to persuade) with, on,

Share in or of. Sick of. Similar to.

Swerve from. Taste (meaning capacity or inclination) for, - (meaning actual enjoyment), of. Tax with, (e. g. a crime),—for

Regard for,-in regard to.

the state. Unite (transitive) to; (intrans.) with.

Value upon, or on. Worthy of,—sometimes the of is understood.

476. Explanation.—As words connected by prepositions, are differently related, care must be taken to employ the preposition which best expresses the relation intended. The sense and the practice of correct writers will here be our best guide. The preceding are only a few examples out of many.

477. Obs.—The same preposition that follows a verb or adjective, usually follows the noun derived from it; as, Confide in,—confidence in,—confident in.

478. What preposition to use often depends as much upon what follows, as upon what goes before; as, "To fall from a height"-"into a pit"-"in battle."

EXERCISES.

[1. Change the preposition where necessary in each of the following sentences, for that required by the Rule.]

He was accused with robbery, and acquitted from the charge.—I have been calling upon an old friend.—('all in the post office.—I differ with you in that matter.— John died by consumption, Henry died of the sword, and Robert is sick with the jaundice.—Try to profit from

experience.—You have a taste of poetry.—Conversant in men and things.—Compare this piece to that, and see which is the best.—I could never bear the taste for tobacco.—This is an exception against the general rule.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the words in the preceding table, followed by the appropriate preposition.]

LESSON 64.—The Possessive Case.

- 479. Rule XIII.—A substantive that limits the signification of another, denoting a different person or thing, must be put in the possessive case; as, "Virtue's reward."—"John's books."—"The sun's rays."
- 480. Explanation.—The noun or pronoun in the possessive, always limits the noun that governs it, and denotes a different person or thing: Thus, "Virtue's reward;" the latter word does not mean reward in general, or any indefinite reward, but a particular reward, viz., Virtue's. This Rule applies to the relative pronoun, and to the possessive case of the personal pronoun, when the noun denoting the thing possessed is understood; as. "That book is mine." When expressed, the possessor is denoted by the possessive adjective pronoun; 2 as, "That is my book."

Observations.

- **481.** When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying *common possession*, the sign of the possessive ('s) is *annexed to the last*, and *understood* to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i. e. books the common property of Jane and Lucy
- **482.** But if common possession is **not** implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be **annexed to each**; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i. e. books, some of which are Jane's and others, Lucy's.

¹ Anal.-149. 2A. & P. Gr.-842.

483. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar's Commentaries."—"The Bishop of London's Charge."

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484. The *noun* limited by the possessive is frequently understood; as, "He stays at his father's" (house).

485. The preposition of, with the objective, is frequently equivalent to the possessive, but not always; as, A picture of my father means a portrait of him. My father's picture may mean a picture belonging to him.

For several particulars belonging to this Rule, see A. & P. Gr. 840-856.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following Exercises, point out the noun or pronoun which limits, and the noun whose signification is limited by it; and if the latter is understood, supply it. Put the **limiting word** in the **possessive** case. When several words coming together should be in the possessive, or when the name is complex, add the sign of the possessive ('s) to the proper term. Write out the exercises when corrected.)

The boys book.—The girls bonnet.—The Ladys book, a birds nest, a bear skin.—A mothers tenderness, and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage.—A horse tooth.—James and Thomas feet are cold.—Williams and Marys reign.—Sheldon's & Company's bookstore is in New York.—James loss is Thomas gain.—The Farmers Guide.—The Scholars Companion.—The Court's session is put off.—The meeting's President was appointed.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain two nouns, one limiting the other. Put the limiting word in the proper case.]

LESSON 65.—Subjunctive Mood.

486. Rule XIV.—The subjunctive mood is used in dependent clauses, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity are expressed; as, "If he continue to study, he will improve."

¹A. & P. Gr.-857-864.

- 487. When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative or potential is used; as, "If he has money, he keeps it."
- 488. Explanation.—Doubt and futurity are both implied when the auxiliary shall or should, referring to future time, can be inserted before the verb without changing the meaning; thus, "Though he fall," and "Though he should fall," mean the same thing. It is only in the present tense and third person singular, that there is danger of error under this Rule, except in the verb to be.

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- 489. Remark.—Many of the best writers, and some distinguished grammarians, often use the subjunctive present, when mere doubt or contingency is expressed, and not futurity. A contrary practice of using the indicative where both doubt and futurity are implied, now begins to prevail; thus, "If he continues to study, he will improve." But the weight of good authority still is evidently in favor of the preceding Rules. A general adherence to them would have this advantage, that the mood used would be a certain guide to the sense intended.
- 490. Sub-Rule.—Lest and that, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, "Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty."—"Take heed that thou speak not to Jacob, either good or bad."
- **491.** The subjunctive mood, in the past tense, expresses a supposition with respect to something present, but implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I were a nightingale, I would sing;" implying, "I am not."

EXERCISES.

[In the following sentences, state whether the verb following "if" or "though" should be in the **subjunctive** or **indicative** mood, and why; and make the necessary correction.]

If there be a rule, it should be observed.—Though he be rich, he is not happy.—If the mail arrives to-morrow, we shall have letters.—If he studies diligently when he goes

to school, he will improve.——If he is discreet when he goes abroad, he will gain friends.——If he have money, he must have earned it.

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LESSON 66.—Infinitive Mood.

492. Rule XV.—The infinitive mood is governed by verbs, nouns, or adjectives; as, "I desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."

Special Rules.

- 493. Rule 1.—One verb being the subject of another, is put in the infinitive; as, "To study is profitable."
- 494. Rule 2.—A verb in the infinitive may be the object of another verb; 2 as, "Boys love to play."
- 495. Rule 3.—The infinitive, as the subject or object of a verb, sometimes has a subject of its own in the objective case; as, "For us to do so, would be improper."—"I know him to be prudent."
- **496.** When the *subject* of the infinitive is *not the same* as that of the principal verb, it is always in the *objective* case. The subject is not repeated when it is the same as that of the principal verb; as, "I desire to play."
- 497. Rule 4.—The infinitive is used as a predicate nominative after any verb as a copula; as, "You are to blame."
- 498. Rule 5.—To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let, in the active voice, nor after let in the passive; as, "I saw him do it;" not "to do it."
- 499. Rule 6.—The infinitive is used to express the purpose, end, or design of the preceding act; 3 as, "Some who came to scoff, remained to pray."
- 500. RULE 7.—In comparisons, the infinitive mood is put after so— is, too, or than; as, "Be so good as to read this."

 —" Too old to learn."—" Wiser than to undertake it."

¹ Anal -155. ² A. & P. Gr. -802 -871. 882. ² Anal, -136, 182, 6.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following sentences, tell which verb is in the **infinitive** mood, and upon what it depends. State whether it is the **subject** or **object** of the principal verb. Insert or omit **to**, the sign of the infinitive, and give a reason according to the Rule.]

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Strive learn.—Cease do evil.—Learn do well.—He needs not to write.—I would make you to take care.—
He dares not to do a wicked action; nor will he dare do it.—
I heard him to say so.—He was heard say so.—Let James to do this.—Bid him to speak to me.—Did you see him to do that?—No; but I heard him to do it.—Did you hear the bell to ring?—Make him to go.—He was made go.

[2. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one verb in the infinitive mood, as the subject of another verb—as the object—to express the end or design—with to properly omitted—with a subject of its own in the objective case.]

LESSON 67.—Construction of Participles.

- **501.** Rule XVI.—Participles have the construction of nouns, adjectives, and verbs.¹
- **502.** Remark.—To participles used in these ways, the Rules of Syntax for nouns, adjectives, and verbs may generally be applied.²

Special Rules.

- 503. Rule 1.—When the present or perfect participle is used as a noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently."
- **504.** Explanation.—The present participle is used as a verbal noun, whenever it is the subject of a verb or the object of a transitive verb or preposition. Under this Rule, the verbal noun may be modified in all respects as the verb.
- **505.** A pronoun before the verbal noun must be the possessive pronoun, and not the possessive case; as, "Much depends on *your* composing frequently," (not *yours*.)

506. Rule 2.—When the present participle used as a noun, has an article or adjective before it, the preposition of follows; as, "By the observing of these rules."—"A complete forsaking of the truth."

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507. Explanation.—When used in this way, the participle is regarded as a *noun simply*, and has not the government or modifications of the verb.

508. The sense will often be the same, if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the omission of the other; thus, "By observing these rules." In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary, as directed in the following rule.

509. Rule 3.—When the verbal noun expresses something of which the noun following denotes the doer, it should have the article and the preposition; as, "It was told in the hearing of the witness."—But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the doer, but the object, both should be omitted; as, "The court spent much time in hearing the witness."

510. Of, when followed by another preposition, can never be used after the verbal noun; thus, "By attending to these rules," can not be changed into, "By the attending of to these rules."

511. Rulf 4.—(1.) The **past participle**, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries have and be: as, "I have written" (not wrote).—"The letter is written" (not wrote).

(2.) So also, the past participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He ran;" not "He run." "I saw;" not "I seen."

512. EXPLANATION.—This Rule can be violated only when the past tense and past participle differ in spelling.

513. The participle in *ing* is sometimes used in a passive sense after the verb *to be*, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, "The house is building;" not is being built.

¹ A. & P. Gr. - 906, and Appendix ix.

EXERCISES.

[(RULE 1.)—In the following Exercise, tell which is the **verbal noun**, and how you know it to be used as such. If a noun stands before it, put that noun in the proper case, and give the Rule.]

My brother being sick, is the cause of his absence.—A man making a fortune, depends partly on him pursuing a proper course.—John attempting too much, was the cause of his failure.—Hers going away was not observed.

[(RULE 2).—In the following Exercise, point out the **participial moun**, and tell how you know it to be so used. See what words are before and after it, and if not right, according to the rule, make them so, and give the rule for the change.]

Learning of any thing well requires application.—The doing our duty is commendable.—By reading of good books the mind is improved.—Of the making many books there is no end.—By exercising of our faculties they are improved.—The giving to every man his own is a sacred duty.

[(Rule 3).—Consider whether the noun following the present participle denotes the doer, or the object of the act expressed by it, and correct the sentence accordingly.]

At hearing the ear, they shall obey.—Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them.—
The greatest pain is felt in the cutting of the skin.—By obtaining of knowledge, you will gain respect.

[(RULE 4).—1. In the following Exercise, when the **past tense** stands after the auxiliary have, or be, change it into the **past participle**, and give the rule for the change.]

He should have wrote.—Have you spoke to the master?
—I am almost froze.—She had just began to read.—
James has broke his arm.—You should have drove more slowly.—He has drank too much, and should be took home.—He might have rode if he had chose.—The thief has stole the spoons; I seen him do it.—John has shook the desk.—The boys book is tore, and he has went to get another.

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[2. Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change.]

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I seen him an hour ago.—I done what you told me.—
James run a mile in ten minutes, and has not began to be tired.—The school begun yesterday.—He ought to have went, or at least to have wrote.—That is wrong, you had not ought to done it.

- [3. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, in the present-perfect or past-perfect indicative active, viz., begin, run, write, freeze, eat, drink. Parse the sentences, and apply the Rule.
- 4. Write short sentences, with the following verbs in the passive voice; viz., write, begin, shake, sink, speak, give. Parse them, and apply the Rule.
- 5. In the preceding exercises under Rules 2, 3, and 4, change the participle for a finite verb, and the other words so to correspond that the same sense may be expressed.]

LESSON 68.—The Order of Time.

- 514. Rule XVII.—In the use of verbs, and words that in **point of time** relate to each other, the **order of time** must be observed; as, "I have known him these many years"—not "I know him these many years."
- **515.** Explanation.—This Rule is general, and here also the sense is the best guide. The following principles may be noticed here:
- 1. That which is always true, is expressed in the present tense; as, Vice produces misery.
- 2. That which is past, but viewed as continued in the present, is expressed in the present-perfect tense; as, I have been at school six months.
- 3. Verbs having the auxiliaries shall, will, may, can, can be associated in a sentence with other verbs in the present only; those with might, could, would, should,

¹ A. & P. Gr. -911.

with verbs in the past; as, I go now that I may be in time.—
I went that I might be in time.

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4. The *present infinitive* expresses what is cotemporary with, or subsequent to, the time of the governing verb; the *perfect infinitive* expresses what is antecedent to that time.²

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following sentences, point out the verb which is wrong in respect of tense. Put it in the proper tense, and tell why it is changed.]

It was said that fever always produced thirst; that heat always expanded metals; and that truth was immutable.

—He is now absent a week.—I have been abroad last year.—If he would lend me that book, I will be obliged to him.—He can do it if he would.—I intended to have written; but I still hoped he would have come.—Rome is said to be built seven hundred years before the Christian era.—Nero is said to persecute the Christians.—He has been gone long before I knew it.

[2. Write short sentences, and express, in each, something which you hoped, feared, desired, intended, to do yesterday, before yesterday;—which you hope, fear, etc., to do to-day, to-morrow. Also what some one did yesterday,—before yesterday,—always does,—dees now,—has just now done.—will do to-morrow,—before to-morrow night.]

LESSON 69.—Construction of Adverbs.

516. Rule XVIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, "John speaks distinctly; he is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly."

Special Rules.

517. Rule 1.—Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs; as, "The preceding (not the abore) extract." (420.)

518. Ruld 2.—Two negatives are equivalent to an A. & P. Gr.—1916. 2920, 921. 3923, 924.

affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended; as, "I can not drink any (not no) more;" or, "I can drink no more."

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319. RULE 3.—Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form; as, "He is very attentive, behaves well, and is much esteemed."

520. Explanation.—This is to be considered only as a general Rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. The best direction for the use of this Rule, is to place the adverb where the sense requires, having due regard to the harmony of the sentence. This Rule applies to adjuncts, or adverbial phrases, as well as to adverbs.

521. Where should not be used for in which, except when the reference is to place; as, "The situation in which (not where) I left him;" because "situation" does not here refer to place.

522. So is often used elliptically for an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence; as, "They are rich; we are not so."—"He is a good scholar, and I told you so."

523. Only, solely, chiefly, merely, too, also, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives; as, "Not only the men, but the women also were present." A prepositional phrase used as an adverbial adjunct of a verb, may, as a whole, be limited by an adverb; as, "He went NEARLY over the hill."

Remark.—In composition, great care must be exercised in the *position* of the adverbs *only*, *merely*, *solely*, *chiefly*, and a few others; as, "Only acknowledge their iniquity; acknowledge only their iniquity."

524. A negative is often made by the syllables dis, in, im, un, etc., prefixed to a word. When this is the case,

¹A. & P Gr.-940.

another negative is sometimes used, to express a diminished kind of affirmation; as, "He was not unkind." The negative terms are such as no, not, neither, nor, never, etc.

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[For a fuller account of the construction and use of adverbs, see A. & P. Gr. 923-941.]

EXERCISES.

[Adverbs being undeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their **position**; or in using as adverbs, words that are not so; or in using adverbs where other words are required. Correct the errors in the following sentences, as the Rules require:

(Rule 1).—1. Point out the **modifying words** in the following sentences. If not adverbs, make them so, and give the Rule.]

Come quick.—James does that very good.—That was done excellent.—Time moves rapid.—Apparent slow people accomplish much if sufficient steady.—You can read excellent well.—It is real cold.

[2. In the following, point out the adverb improperly used. Show why it is so; change it for the proper term, and give the Rule.]

Thine often infirmities.—Come the soonest day possible.—The soonest time will be late enough.—The then ministry opposed the measure.—The condition where I found him was truly bad.—He was here last year, since when I have not seen him.

[3. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adverb (293-302), modifying a verb or adjective, and see that it is placed as directed in 519, 520.

(Rule 2).—1. Point out the **two negatives** in the following sentences. Show why they are wrong; correct them, and give the Rule.]

I can not eat no more.—He is not able to walk no further.

We can not do that in no way.—He will never be no taller.—Never do nothing of the kind.—Time and tide will not wait for no man.—No man never did that.—You must not drink no more.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following words: worthy, just, discreet, kind, obliging, agreeable, happy, firm, etc. Then prefix to these words the appropriate negative prefix mentioned above. Then insert a negative word in each sentence, and mark the difference of meaning with each change; thus, "He is a worthy man," "He is an unworthy man," "He is not an unworthy man."

(Rule 3.)—1. In the following sentences, **place the adverb** as the Rule directs, provided the sense will thereby be clearly expressed.]

A man industrious eminently.—He is agreeable always.—He sweetly sings, charmingly converses, and prudently conducts himself on all occasions.—He unaffectedly spoke. He manfully has contended for the prize, and certainly will obtain it.—Time will wait never.—He could have not done it.—He will be always trusty.—That disaster might have easily been prevented.—That piece was executed beautifully.

[2. The following sentences have the adverb placed according to the Rule, but the sense and harmony of the sentence evidently require it to be in a different position. Make the change.]

Men contend frequently for trifles.—I only saw three persons.—Of the books I sent him, he only read one.—James can read very well.—You should slowly write.—He might plainly have told him.—He not only saw her pleased, but greatly pleased.

[3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more adverbs correctly placed. (See List, 294.)

4. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following adverbs, viz., only, merely, solely, chicly, first, at least, and tell the word which they modify. Place the adverbs in as many different positions, in each sentence, as you can, so as to make sense, and mark the change of meaning.]

LESSON 70.—Conjunctions.

525. Rule XIX.—Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences; as, "He and I must go; but you may stay." (315, note.)

Special Rules.

526. Rule 1.—Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "Do good, and seek peace."—"Honor thy father and mother."—"He and I saw it."

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¹A. & P. Gr .- 945.

- 527. Explanation.—The reason of this rule is, that words thus connected are generally in the same construction: that is, nouns and pronouns connected must be in the same case, because they are subjects of the same verb, or objects of the same verb, or preposition; and verbs thus connected have usually the same subject. In respect of case, errors occur chiefly in the use of pronouns.
- **528.** When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses, or when a contrast is stated with but, not, though, etc., the subject is generally repeated; as, "He may return, but he will not remain."
- **529.** The relative after than, is usually in the objective case; as, "Alfred, than whom," etc.
- **530.** After verbs of **doubting**, **fearing**, **denying**, the conjunction **that** should be used, and not lest, but, but that; as, "They feared that (not lest) he would die."
- **531.** Conjunctions are sometimes understood between words or sentences connected; ¹ as, "John, Charles, James, and Edward were in the boat."
- **532.** In the *compound tenses*, verbs connected in the same tense, have the *auxiliary expressed* with the first, and *understood* to the rest; as, "John can read, write, and spell." When different tenses are connected, the auxiliary must always be expressed; as, "He has come, but he will not stay."
- **533.** Rule 2.—Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connectives in the subsequent one: thus,
 - 1. In clauses or words simply connected—

Both requires and; as, "Both he and I came."

Either or; as, "Either he or I will come."

Neither nor; as, "Neither he nor I came."

Whether - cr; as, "Whether he or I came."

1 A. & P. Gr.-954.

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claus work vords Though requires yet; as, "Though he slay me, yet ion: will I trust in him." same Not only -- but also; as, "Not only he, but also jects his brother goes." ected 534. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison rrors The comparative degree requires than; as, "He is taller than I am." and Other requires than; as, "It is no other than he." ough, Else than; as, "What else do you expect turn, than this." As as (expressing equality); as, "He is as jectall as I am." As, the so (expressing comparison); as, "As thy hat; day is, so shall thy strength be." So as (with a negative, expressing inveen equality); as, "He is not so learned mes, as his brother." So that (expressing consequence); as, "He the is so weak, that he cannot walk." Such

as (expressing similarity); as, "He, or such as he." Such that (with a finite verb to express a

consequence); as, "The difference is such that all will perceive it." **535.** Note.—As and so, in the members of a comparison, are properly adverbs.

536. Explanation.—This Rule means, that, when any of the corresponding terms above stands in one member of a sentence, the other term should stand in the other member. After "though," "yet" is sometimes understood.

537. Rule 3.—When a subsequent clause, or part of a sentence, is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both; as, "That work always has been, and always will be, admired."

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538. EXPLANATION.—In order to see whether sentences are correct according to this Rule, join the member of the sentence common to the two clauses, to each of them separately, so as to make two sentences. If both of the sentences are grammatically correct, and express the sense intended, the sentence is right—if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. Thus, for example, "He has not, and he can not, be censured," is wrong, because if you add the member "be censured," to the first clause, it will make "He has not be censured," which is incorrect, according to Sub-Rule 4 under Rule XVI. This must be corrected by inserting "been" after "has not," so as to read, "He has not been, and he can not be, censured." The different clauses should be correctly marked by punctuation.

539. This rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Charles." Here, "as Charles," is applicable to the clause "so much admired," but can not be connected with "more beloved." In such sentences as this, the proper way is, to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; as, "He was more beloved than Charles, but not so much admired" (as Charles).

EXERCISES.

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[(Rule 1.)—1. In the following, point out the connected verbs. If they have the same subject, put them in the same mood and tense. If they must be in different moods or tenses, repeat the subject; and if that is a noun, repeat it by its pronoun. Point out the connected nouns or pronouns, and put them in the same case.]

He reads and wrote well.—If he say it, and does it, I am content.—If he be at home, and is well, give him the letter.—My father has read the book, and will return it tomorrow.—James and me ran all the way.—That is a small matter between you and I.—Him and I are great friends, and so are Mary and me.—Nobody knows that better than her and me.

[2. Write short sentences, in which two or more verbs are connected in the same mood and tense, and notice particularly 531. Put the verbs in the present—in the past—and in the present-perfect, etc. Express the same ideas, with the verbs in the passive voice.

3. Write sentences containing two or more verbs in different moods and tenses, paying attention to 528; write others, containing two or more nouns or pronouns connected in the same case.

(Rule 2.)—1. Point out the corresponding terms in the following sentences, make the second correspondent to the first, or the first to the second, as the sense requires. Supply the correspondent term where improperly omitted.]

He will not do it himself, nor let another do it for him.—
Though he slay me, so will I trust in him.—This is so far as I am able to go.—This book is equally good as that one.—Nothing is so bad as it can not be worse.—He was not only diligent, but successful in his studies.—It is neither cold or hot.

- [2. Write correct sentences, each of which shall contain one pair of the corresponding terms above, and state what they express.
- 3. In the following sentences, point out the **comparative** degree, or other correspondent terms, and make the one correspond to the other, according to the Rule.]

James writes better as I do.—There was more besides him engaged in that business.—No more but two can play at this game.—The days are longer in summer besides they are in winter.—Has James no other book but this?
—This is such conduct that I did not expect.—It can be no other but he.—They had no other book except this one.—I would rather read as write.—He had no sooner done the mischief but he repented.

[2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a w rd in the comparative degree, or the word other or such followed by the proper correspondent term.

(Rule 3).—Make trial of the following sentences, as directed in the explanation. If either of the clauses, when joined with the member of the sentence common to both, makes a grammatical error, point it out and correct it.]

He always has, and he always will, be punctual.—They might, and probably were, good.—James is taller, but not

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so strong as, his brother.—His book is not so good, though larger than I expected.—This house is larger, but not so convenient as that one.—I ever have, and I ever will say so.—"He depends and confides in me," is as correct as, "He confides and depends upon me."—I am older, but not so feeble as Thomas.—Warm weather is pleasant, but not so bracing as cold.—Iron is more useful, but not so valuable as gold or silver.

LESSON 71.—Prepositions and Interjections.

between the subsequent term of its phrase and the word which the phrase limits; as, "The book lies on the table."—"The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."—"I am confident of success."

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- 541. EXPLANATION.—Whatever word is *limited* or described by the prepositional phrase as a whole, is the antecedent term of the relation. The principal substantive in the objective case is the subsequent term. The antecedent is most frequently a verb; as, "He lives in Boston." Often a noun; as, "The love of wisdom." Sometimes an adjective; as, "There was another large of understanding." The prepositional phrase usually follows the antecedent; but it is sometimes placed before it; as, "This is he of whom I spoke." "Of making many books there is no end."
- 542. Rule XXI.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence.
- 543. After interjections, pronouns of the *first* person are commonly in the *objective case*; those of the *second*, in the *nominative*; as, "Ah me!"—"O thou!" In neither, however, does the case depend on the interjection. In the objective, there is an omission of the governing word; as, "Ah (pity) mo!" In the nominative, they are in the nominative independent, denoting the person addressed.

LESSON 72.—General Rule.

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544. In every sentence, the words employed, and ...e order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved the suphout.

Rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding. Though these embrace almost everything belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet there will sometimes occur instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which, no very specific rules can be given.

546. Among the evils to be avoided under this Rule, are the following,—

- 1. The use of words which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which convey another with equal propriety.
- 2. The arrangement of words or clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.
- 3. The *separating* of *adjuncts* from their principals, by placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong.
- 4. The separating of *relative clauses* improperly from their antecedents.
- 5. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third personal or possessive pronoun, especially in indirect discourse.

EXERCISES.

[1. The following sentences are not grammatically incorrect,

but, from some of the causes just mentioned, are obscure, inelegant, ambiguous, or unintelligible. Point out the impropriety, correct it, and give a reason for the correction.]

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(1) The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about, and halted with the river on their back.—
(2) Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip, the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.—(3) Lost, a new umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a curiously carved ivory head.—(4) Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of man.—(5) A farmer went to a lawyer and told him that his bull had gored his ox.

[2. Write the sentences as corrected.]

LESSON 73.—Ellipsis.

547. Rule 1.—An Ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible, when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense. Thus,

Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man;" we say, "He was a learned, wise, and good man."

Menever, therefore, a word can be spared from a sentence without obscuring its meaning, that word is often left out. This is called *ellipsis*. Thus, instead of the full form of the sentence, as follows: "I rise at six hours of the clock in the morning, I breakfast at seven hours of the clock in the morning, I go to school at nine hours of the clock, and study till twelve hours of the clock," we can say, (and be equally well understood), "I rise at six, breakfast at seven, go to school at nine, and study till twelve." This is the origin of abbreviated sentences; and in order to parse such, or to understand their grammatical construction, the words left out must be supplied.

EXERCISES.

[1. In the following sentences, leave out such words as may be omitted without obscuring the sense.]

He had an affectionate father and an affectionate mother.

— You may read, or you may write, as you please.

Will you study, or will you not study?——I have been at London, and I have seen the queen.——A house and a garden.——He would neither go, nor would he send.

[2. In the following sentences, supply the words left out, so as to show their full construction.]

It is six o'clock; we may study till seven.—We have done it, but you have not.—John will read, and Thomas write letters.—This apple is larger than that, but not so sweet.—Give this apple to James, that to Robert, and the other to Mary.—I have heard and read much about Washington and the Revolution.—"Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon; and thou, Moon, in the valley of Ajalon."

LESSON 74.—Ellipsis not Allowable.

549. Rule 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety; 1 for example—

"We speak that we do know, and testify that we have seen," should be, "We speak that which we do know, and testify that which we have seen.

when on account of improper ellipsis, the construction of the sentence is rendered doubtful, or is not clearly and readily perceived. When a sentence or clause is emphatic, ellipsis is less allowable. The antecedent to the relative, except in poetry, is seldom omitted; and the relative itself, if in the nominative case, never. The article should be repeated when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and an ox."

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¹ A. & P. Gr.-1149.

EXERCISES.

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[In the following sentences, point out the improper cilipsis. Show why it is improper, and correct it.]

Cicero made orations, both on public and private occasions.—He is the most diligent scholar I ever knew.—
Thou hast that is thine.—Thine the kingdom, the power, and the glory.—Depart in peace, be ye warmed, clothed, and filled.—I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me.—That is the best can be said of him.—He has a house and orchard.—We must all go the way we shall not return.

LESSON 75.—Model of Syntactical Parsing.

551. In syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, (326, 1.) to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed. To illustrate this more clearly, the sentence parsed etymologically (328) is here parsed syntactically.

"Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser."

Give......is a verb, transitive, irregular; give, giving, gave, given; in the imperative, active, second person, singular, and agrees with its subject thou, understood. Rule VIII. "A verb agrees," etc.

Instruction . . is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, object of give. Rule X. "A substantive being the object," etc.

Tois a preposition, and expresses the relation between the verb give and man, as the remote object of the verb. Rule XX. "A preposition shows the relation," etc.

A is an article, indefinite, belongs to man, and shows it to be used indefinitely. Rule III. "The article a or an is put," etc.

¹ Anal. -83, 2.

- Wise is an adjective, compared, wise, wiser, wisest; and expresses a quality of man. Rule II. "An adjective or a participle," etc.
- Man..... is a noun, masculine, in the objective singular, the object of to. Rule XI. "A substantive being the object," etc.

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- And.....is a conjunction, copulative, and connects the two clauses. Rule XIX. "Conjunctions connect," etc.
- He is a third personal pronoun, masculine, in the nominative, singular; stands instead of man, with which it agrees. Rule IV. "Pronouns agree," etc., and is the subject of will be. Rule VI. "The subject of a finite verb," etc.
- Will be is a verb, attributive, irregular; am, being, was, been; in the future, indicative; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject he, with which it agrees. Rule VIII. "A verb agrees," etc.
- Yet.....is an adverb, modifying wiser. Rule XVIII. "Adverbs modify," etc.
- Wiser is an adjective, comparative degree; wise, wiser, wisest; and qualifies he (representing man) of which it is predicated. Rule II. "An adjective or a participle," etc.

[Questions similar to those suggested at the close of Lesson 37, may be proper here also.

For Exercises in Syntactical Parsing, the pupil may now turn to Lesson 38, or take any plain passage in the ordinary reading books used in the school, as the teacher may direct.]

*** Classes of suitable age and culture may take up the regular study of the manual of "Analysis, Parsing, and Composition," prepared to accompany this series.

LESSON 76.—Promiscuous Exercises.

each sentence carefully, and see wherein it is wrong. See, first, whether words that should agree, do so—the verb with its subject—the numeral adjective with its noun—the pronoun, personal and relative, with its substantive; secondly, whether nouns and pronouns are in the case which the word on which they depend requires: and, lastly, whether the words are arranged in the order which the Rules require. Having found the error, correct it, and give the rule for the correction. These Exercises, when corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be written out, analyzed, and parsed.

1. John writes beautiful.—I shall never do so no more.

—The train of our ideas are often interrupted.—Was you present at last meeting?—He need not be in so much haste.—He dare not act otherwise than he does.—Him who they seek is in the house.—George or I is the person.

—They or he is much to be blamed.—The troop consist of fifty men.—Those set of books was a valuable present.

—That pillar is sixty foot high.—His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity.—The trees are remarkable tall.

2. He acted bolder than was expected.—This is he who I gave the book to.—Eliza always appears amiably.—Who do you lodge with now?—He was born at London, but he died in Bath.—If he be sincere, I am satisfied.—Her father and her were at church.—The master requested him and I to read more distinctly.—It is no more but his due.—Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain.—John told the same story as you told.—This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

3. Let he and I read the next chapter.—She is free of pain.—Those sort of dealings are unjust.—David, the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers.—You was very kind to him, he said.—Well, says I, what does thou think of him now?—James is one of those boys that was kept in

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at school, for bad behavior.—Thou, James, will deny the deed.—Neither good nor evil come of themselves.—We need not to be afraid.—It is all fell down.

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4. He expected to have gained more by the bargain.—You should drink plenty of goat milk.—It was him who spoke first.—Do you like ass milk?—Is it me that you mean?—Who did you buy your grammar from?—If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray.—Neither man nor woman were present.—I am more taller than you.—She is the same lady who sang so sweetly.—After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee.—Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite?—There is six that studies grammar.

LESSON 77.—Punctuation.

553. Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops.

554. The design of these points is to show the meaning more clearly, and also to serve as a guide to the pauses and inflections required in reading.

555. The *principal marks* used for these purposes are as follows:

The comma (,), the semicolon (;), the colon (:), the period or full stop (.), the note of interrogation (?), the note of exclamation (!), the parenthesis (), and the dash (—).

556. No very definite rule can be given for the length, in reading, of the pauses indicated by these marks. As a general rule, however, the comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; a colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and a period, a pause double that of the colon.

Comma.

557. The *commu* usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

- 1. In short simple sentences, the comma is not used; as, "Hope is necessary in every condition of life."
- 2. When the logical subject of a verb is long, a comma is usually inserted before the verb; as, "A steady and undivided attention to one subject, is a sure mark of a superior mind."
- 3. A comma is generally used between the members of a compound sentence; as, "Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them."
- 4. Two words of the same class connected by a conjunction have no comma between them; as, "The earth and the moon are planets." "He is a wise and good man." When the conjunction is not expressed a comma is inserted; as, "He is a plain, honest man."

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- 5. More than two words of the same class connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, have a comma after each; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts." But when the words connected are adjectives, the last should have no comma; as, "He was a brave, wise and prudent man."
- 6. Nouns in apposition are usually separated by a comma; as, "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles." But a noun in apposition, unlimited, is not so separated; as, "Paul the apostle."
- 7. The nominative independent and the nominative absolute with the clauses depending upon them, have a comma after them; as, "I am, Sir, your obedient servant." "The time of youth being precious, it should be improved."
- 8. A comma is generally placed after an adverb or adverbial phrase at the commencement of a sentence; as, "First, Secondly, In general, Indeed,".
- 9. When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man." 1

Semicolon.

558. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a

sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

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559. The parts of a sentence separated by a semicolon should contain in themselves a complete and independent proposition, but still having a connection with the other parts; as, "Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom."

Colon.

560. The *colon* is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less closely connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as to require a period; as, "Study to acquire the habit of thinking: no study is more important." It is also used before a direct quotation.²

Period.

- **561.** The *perioa* is used when a sentence is *complete*, with respect to the construction and the sense intended; as, "God made all things." "Have charity towards all men."
- **562.** A period must be used at the end of all books, chapters, sections, etc., also after all abbrevations; as, A.D., M.A., Art. II., Obs. 3., J. Smith, etc.
- **563.** But no pause is used between the different portions of a person's name when not abbreviated. Thus, we must not write, John, A. Smith, or James. Brown: but John A. Smith: James Brown.
- **564.** Such expressions, however, as, 1st, 2nd, 3's, 8vo, etc., being not strictly abbreviations, do not require a period after them.

Note of Interrogation.

565. The note of *interrogation* is placed at the end of a sentence in which a question is asked; as, "What have you done?"

Note of Exclamation.

566. The note of *exclamation* is used after expressions of *emotion* or *passion*, and after *solemn invocations*; as, "Hail! holy light!" "Offspring of heaven first-born!" "Oh, that he would come!"

The Dash.

567. The *dash* is used where a sentence is left unfinished: also to denote a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sentiment—or that the first clause is common to all the rest; as in this definition.

Other Characters used in Writing.

- **568.** Parenthesis () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, but which may be omitted without injuring the construction of the sentence; as, "Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?"
- **569.** Brackets [] are used to enclose a word or phrase, explaining, correcting, or supplying a deficiency in a sentence; as, "James told John that he [John] was to study."
- **;570.** The **Apostrophe**(') is used when a letter or letters are omitted; as, e'er for ever, tho' for though, or to mark the possessive case.
- **571.** Quotation marks ("") enclose words and passages quoted from another.
- **572.** The *Hyphen* (-) is used to connect compound words; as, lap-dog, horse-jockey: but in permanent compounds, the hyphen is not used. Also at the end of a line to show that one or more syllables of the last word are carried to the next line.
- **573.** Section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.
- **574.** Paragraph (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject.

575. The *Brace* () is used to connect words which nave one common term, or three lines in poetry having the same rhyme, called a *triplet*.

576. Ellipsis (—) or (***) is used when some letters are omitted; as, K—g or K**g for King.

578. The *Index* () is used to point out anything that requires special attention.

579. The *vowel marks* are: the *Dixresis* (") on the last of two concurrent vowels showing that they are not to be pronounced as a diphthong: the *Acute* accent ('): the *Grave* ('): the long sound ("): the short sound (").

580. The *marks of reference* are: the *Asterisk* (*); the *Dagger* (†); the *Double Dagger* (‡); the *Parallel* (\parallel), sometimes also the §, ¶, also small letters or figures referring to notes at the foot of the page.

LESSON 78.—Capitals.

581. The letters commonly used in printing are distinguished and represented as follows:

- (1.) CAPITAL LETTERS.
- (2.) SMALL CAPITALS.
- (3.) Italic Letters.
- (4.) Lower case* (small letters.)

582. In composition, the following words begin with *capital* letters:

1. The *first word* of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing; for examples, see the first word of this book, its chapters, etc.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other; as, "Love is

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^{*} So called by printers.

¹ A. & P. Gr.-77, 2.

stronger than death." "What did he to thee? How opened he thine eyes?" "Gone to be married! Gone to swear a peace! Gone to be friends!"

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- 3. **Proper names**, that is, names of persons, places, ships, etc.; ¹ as, George Washington, General Grant, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, America. The Ohio. Sheldon & Co., Broadway, New York.
- 4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals; as, O my Country! how I love thee!
 - 5. The first word of every line in poetry; as,

Life is real, life is earnest,
And the grave is not the goal:
"Dust thou art, to dust returnest"
Was not spoken of the soul.

- 6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, etc.
- 7. Adjectives derived from the *proper names* of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, etc.
- 8. The first word of a direct quotation, when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, Always remember the maxim, "Know thyself;" Solomon says, "Pride goeth before destruction." But when the quotation is indirect, so as not to form a complete sentence by itself, the first word does not begin with a capital; as, Solomon says that pride goeth before destruction.
- 9. Common nouns, when *personified*; 3 as, "Conto, gentle Spring."
- 10. Every *substantive* and principal word in the *titles* of books; as, "Euclid's Elements of Geometry;" "Goldsmith's Deserted Village."
- 11. Historical eras, remarkable events, extraordinary paysical phenomena, and generally, all words which are used in a specialized sense; as, The Iron Age, Magna Charta, The Declaration of Independence, The Polar Sea, Aurora Borealis, etc.

Note.—Other words besides the preceding may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably **emphatic**, or the principal **subject** of the composition. ¹

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EXERCISES.

[In the following Exercises, correct the mistakes, and give a reason for the correction; also, **punctuate** properly.]

in the beginning god created the heavens and the earth

dear sir your note is received sorry am i to be told of your sickness—i hope you may speedily recover—the boston courier makes fun of a learned disquisition in the philadelphia press—george washington was the greatest general of his age—yonder comes the powerful king of day

haste thee nymph and bring with thee mirth and youthful jollity

hail holy light offspring of heaven—holy holy lord god of sabaoth—macauleys history of england—prescotts conquest of mexico—dickens household words—the evangelical monthly—the edinburgh review—remember the saying that is written death is swallowed up in victory—the grecian sages were more learned than the roman—the erie canal passes through the state of new york—be it enacted by the senate and house of representatives etc—o my country how i weep for thee—unto thee do i lift up mine eyes o thou that dwellest in the heavens—lessons at home in spelling and reading—part 1 price 8 cents—the resources of california comprising agriculture mining etc.

LESSON 79.—Composition.

583. Composition is the putting of words together in sentences, for the purpose of expressing our ideas in writing, in the best manner, according to the Rules of Grammar, and the best usages of the language.

584. Almost all the Exercises in the preceding Grammar, and especially those under the Rules of Syntax, have been

framed with a view to exercise the pupil in the elementary parts of composition:

- 1. By leading him to vary his ideas, and to express the same idea in different forms.
- 2. By enabling him to detect and **correct errors** which often occur in the construction of sentences; and so to put him on his guard against similar errors.
- 3. By the exercise of forming *correct sentences* for himself, according to the particular directions laid down under the various Rules.
- 585. In committing his own ideas to writing, in the form of compositions, then, all he has to do, is to endeavor to select the *proper words*, and to *combine* and *arrange* these so as to express his meaning correctly, according to the Rules with which he is now supposed to be familiar. The few following hints may be useful:

General Directions to Young Composers.

- **586.** Spell every word correctly.* Pay proper attention to the use of capitals; always using them where they should be, and never where they should not be. (See 582.)
- **587.** Carefully *avoid all vulgar expressions* and cant phrases, and never use words which you do not understand, or which do not correctly express your meaning.
- **588.** At the end of the line, never divide a word of one syllable, nor any word in the middle of a syllable. If there should not be room at the end of the line for the whole syllable, do not begin it at all, but carry it to the next line.
- **589.** When you have written what you intended, look over it carefully; see if you can improve it by a better choice of words, or by a better arrangement of them, so as to express your meaning more clearly (**544**); and mark the changes proposed.

^{*} For the principal rules for spelling derivatives, consult the dictionary, or A. & P. Gr.—51—76.

590. Copy the whole over in as neat, distinct, and plain a manner as you can, guarding against blots and erasures, which disfigure any writing, dotting your i's, crossing your t's, and pointing the whole as well as you are able (553), so that any person, as well as yourself, may easily read and understand it.

591. Try to make every new composition better than the one before it. Never write carelessly, and though it may be somewhat difficult at first, a little practice will soon make it easy.

***For additional suggestions and directions, see "Analysis, Parsing and Composition," p. 181, and the "Analytical and Practical Grammar," of this series.

LESSON 80.—Construction of Sentences.

592. Although no excellence in composition is attainable without *adequate notions* of the subject of which we write, and *intelligent thought* in determining and adjusting the relations of ideas and in selecting the proper words to express them; yet practice in the *mechanical construction* of simple sentences may render important aid, and give facility, ease, and elegance to our style.

593. Let the following and similar Exercises be used judiciously in connection with the study of the regular lessons in the grammar. The teacher may extend these Exercises, and should in all cases seek to furnish new and fresh material.

594. A single proposition requires for its enunciation at least *two words*, sometimes three; as,

John....comes.
Paper....is white.

595. The subject in its simplest form, may be expressed:
1. By a noun; as, "Gold is heavy;" 2. By a pronoun: as, "She is wise;" 3. By an infinitive; as, To play is pleasant;
4. By a participle; as, Walking is a beneficial exercise.

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596. The *predicate* in its simplest form consists of the *copula and an attribute*; as, God is good: or it may consist of only a *verb*, containing in itself both copula and attribute; as, John walks (= is walking). (346-348.)

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597. The attribute may be, 1. A noun; as, Music is an art; 2. An adjective; as, Solomon was wise; 3. A participle; as, The boy was injured; 4. An infinitive; as, I am to go; 5. A prepositional clause; as, The affair is of consequence.

EXERCISES.

[Compose simple sentences, employing the following words as **subjects:**]

Example.—'The bread is wholesome.

Bread — fruit—school — books — pens — pencils — pupils — children—exercise—water—plants—to study—we—carpet—work—to play—copper—gold—the dog—the horse—the elephant, etc.

[Write simple sentences, using the following words as attributes in the predicate.]

Example.—The sky is blue.

Tall—short—narrow—wide—white—green—bright — nice—sweet—strong—idle—diligent.

[Put the following verbs in the predicate, and write out the sentences.] Spoke—screamed—wrote—ran—saw—will come—may be allowed—must study.

[** These lists may be enlarged at the discretion of the teacher.]

In the sentences written as above, point out the *subject* and *predicate*; name the principal word in each.

Extension of Subject and Predicate.

- **598.** Both the *subject* and *predicate* may be *enlarged* or expanded in various ways by words limiting or explaining the principal elements. (368, 381.)
- **599.** When such limiting words are necessary to express any complete sense, they are called *complements*; as, John wrote a letter.—He became sick.

600. When they are added at the pleasure of the speaker, and may be omitted and still leave a complete proposition, they are called *adjuncts*; as, *The old black* horse ran rapidly along the road.

601. Complements and adjuncts are not necessary to the sense of all propositions. We may sometimes express ourselves intelligibly without them. There are, however, many instances in which their omission would leave the sense very indefinite or obscure; as, "An avaricious man is a miserable being." Take away "An avaricious" and "miserable," and the remainder, "Man is a being," will convey but an indefinite signification. Similarly, "The love of money is the root of all evil," becomes, when deprived of its complements, "Love is root."

EXERCISES.

[Write sentences, employing the following expressions as complements, or as adjuncts.]

Examples.—The little bird is singing.

The practice of virtue brings its reward.

Little—of virtue—in the school—at home—this young—the kind—his father—an honest.

 $[*_**$ Extend these examples at pleasure.]

Complements for Predicates.

602. Predicates of sentences may, it is evident, be extended, at the will of the speaker, in an almost endless variety of ways. Thus, take the proposition "He gave." We may ask, What did he give? He gave bread—to whom?—to the poor—when?—during the winter season—how?—kindly. With all these additions, we have the following: "He kindly gave bread to the poor during the winter season."

EXERCISES.

[Write sentences, in which the extension of the predicate shall be supplied from the following:]

Many reasons—with a great army—in security—in great

haste—to his own residence—with many excuses—a month in the country—near the city—over the hill—since the day before yesterday, etc.

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- 603. The pupil may now be required to compose sentences in which both subject and predicate are extended or enlarged by limiting words; as,
- 1. A man of about forty years of age was then conducted into the room.
 - 2. The tree in my garden is growing more beautiful ever day.
- 3. The bright colors of the rainbow extended across the whole sky.

Hermit lived—we marched—a man dropped—the horses were left—the men drank—people pretend—they arrived—inhabitants flocked—birds began—pillar stands—London is supplied.

The Introductory Clause.

604. In order to add grace and harmony to composition, the *adjunct*, when it expresses *time*, *place*, or *manner*, is often placed *at the beginning* of a sentence, and followed by a comma. Such introductory clause should generally be short. The following are examples:

In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth.

During that long struggle, he was true to his country.

In the midst of the confusion, he escaped.

EXERCISES.

[Compose sentences with the following introductory clauses.]

In the mean time—Early the next morning—notwithstanding these difficulties—In every part of our land—in ancient times—ever since the beginning of spring—soon after these events—not knowing what to do—by dint of inquiry, etc.

605. Sometimes the subject is preceded by *two or more* introductory phrases or clauses, as follows:

With these words, and with a look of disdain, she passed on.

[Compose sentences, using the following:]

On the following day, my arrangements being all completed.—Last year, about the middle of August.—In the valley of the Nile, not far from Cairo, etc.

- **606.** Remark.—Sometimes a limiting clause or *circum-stance* is placed immediately after the subject; as, Man, at his best estate, is vanity.
- 607. Caution.—Generally a circumstance or limiting phrase should not be inserted between the principal clauses of a sentence, as it will be sometimes doubtful to which it belongs; as, "Having finished the manuscript, upon the death of his father, he procured its publication."

Amplification.

- 608. As an additional exercise to give practical application to the preceding, the pupil may take the simplest form of sentence and add to it all the qualifying words and circumstances which can, without any violation of probability, be annexed to it; as,
 - 1. The brothers walked.
 - 2. The brothers walked towards the river.
 - 3. The brothers walked together towards the river.
 - 4. The brothers walked together in silence towards the river.
- 5. In the evening, the brothers walked together towards the river.
- 6. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers walked together in silence towards the river.
- 7. In the cool of the evening, the two brothers, arm in arm, walked together in silence towards the river which flows along the bottom of their garden, etc.

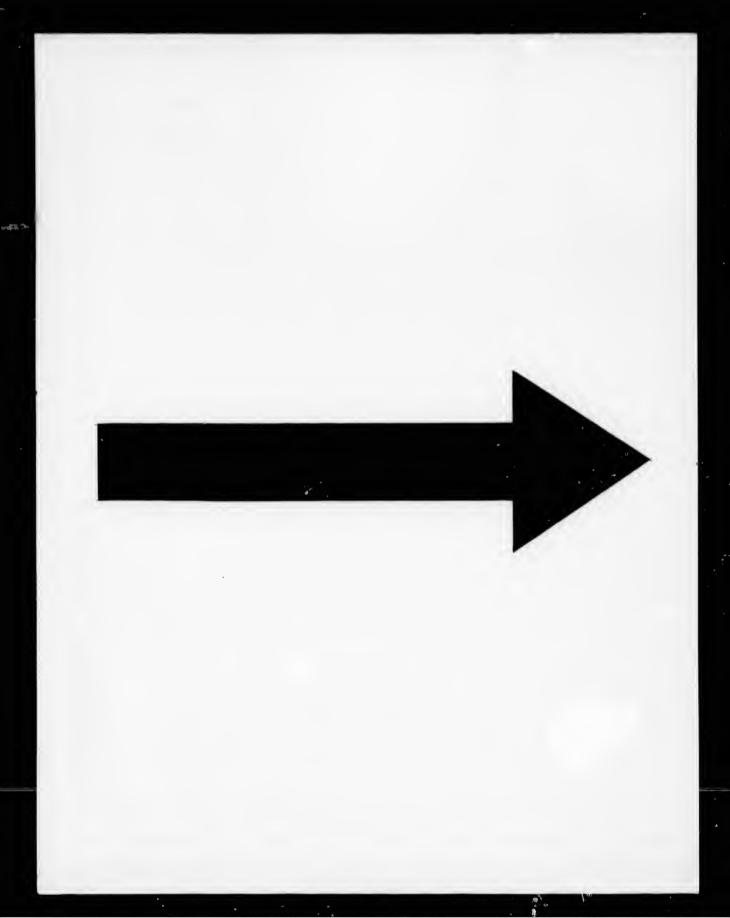
[Amplify the following, as shown above.]

He took leave of his friend.—The traveller was received.

The brother came.—They sailed.—The men saw.—

I desire.—He told us a story.—They had reached home.

The people were glad, etc.



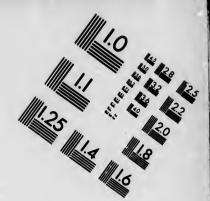
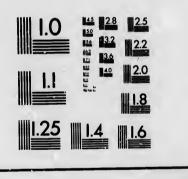


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Note.—The learner may sometimes be assisted in this Exercise by asking the questions how? when? where? by whom? etc., with the simple proposition.

LESSON 81.—Exercises in Composition.

- 609. The more simple exercises in composition are, for young beginners, so much the better. They should not be required to write about anything with which they are net perfectly familiar.
- 1. The following is a very simple and easy exercise. A class of pupils may be directed to look at a certain *picture* in the Reading or Spelling Book or Geography, or any other book at hand; and the *teacher* may excite their attention by asking some questions, or telling them something respecting it, and then direct each one, either in his seat or at home, to write a description of the picture, together with any ideas that occur to him on the subject. This method will furnish an endless variety of easy and useful exercises.
- 2. The teacher may read or relate some simple narrative, or give a familiar description of some object; and pupils may be required to reproduce the same, from memory, in their own language. The lessons in geography, history, and other subjects of the daily school exercises, may similarly be reproduced in writing.
- 3. From pictures, the attention may be turned to *real* objects. The class may now be directed to any object or objects within their view, which they may be required to describe and give their ideas about, as before; for example, the school-house and its furniture—the business of the day, in the form of a journal—the principal objects in view to the south or the school-house—to the north—to the east—to the west. Each may be directed to describe his own house, and the leading objects in view from it in different directions, or any object which he may choose to select.
 - 4. Another class of easy and interesting subjects may be

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found in describing familiar objects in *natural history*—the various seasons of the year, with their employments and amusements—the various operations of the farmer, and different mechanic arts—narratives of any accidents, or striking events that may have occurred.

5. Short familiar epistolary correspondence, real or imaginary. One pupil may be directed to write to another concerning anything he pleases. A post-office might be set up in the school, with its letter-box, to be opened at stated seasons, and its contents read for the amusement and instruction of the school. This exercise, because voluntary, would be entered into with spirit, and prove of great benefit.

6. For the purpose of giving readiness and celerity in composition, and compelling abstraction of the mind from every other interest save that in hand, there is no exercise of greater value than that of impromptu composition.

Method. Let the pupils of a class be seated in order, with slate and pencil, or other writing materials in hand. When all are in readiness, the teacher announces a simple theme adapted to the capacity of the class, and at a signal all begin to write. At the expiration of three, five, or ten minutes, upon the giving of another signal, all cease. No emendations are now to be made.

The teacher may now call upon one and another of the pupils to read what they have written, and when a little confidence has been created by experience, the pupils, and afterwards the teacher, may, in a kindly spirit, criticise the several performances, and make such suggestions as seem pertinent.

After a time, these impromptu exercises may be made a drill preliminary to a more elaborate essay on the same subject, to be written out by each pupil.

The time allotted, and the particular methods employed, may be varied as each teacher's genius and experience, and the wants of the class, may dictate.

7. Themes on familiar subjects may next be assigned, such as the following:

Point out the evils of the following vices and improprieties, and make such remarks respecting them as you think proper; viz., Lying, Stealing, Swearing, Disobedience to Parents, Sabbath-breaking, Discontentment, Intemperance, Ill-nature, Violent passions, Penuriousness, Idleness, Cruelty to animals, Bad company, etc.

Point out the benefits arising from Truth, Honesty, Sobriety, Love to God, Love to men, Good nature, Industry, Contentment, Kindness to the poor, Keeping good company, Proper amusements, etc., and make such remarks as you think pro-

per respecting them.

In all cases with beginners, it is better to require them to give their own thoughts on familiar subjects with which they are acquainted, than to give them subjects of an abstract nature, or of which they cannot be supposed to have much knowledge. In the former case, they will be likely to give their own thoughts in their own way; in the latter, they will have to resort to books, and instead of giving their own ideas, will be apt to copy the writings of others, without, perhaps, well understanding them.

8. When the compositions are prepared, the errors in Grammar should be pointed out and explained; mistakes in orthography, capitals, punctuation, etc., corrected, or pointed out to be corrected, and then the whole copied, in a correct and plain manner, into a book kept for that purpose.

Compositions of a higher order than those which have been suggested, would be above the years and acquirements of those for whom this little work is intended, and would therefore be improper.

Having gone through these Lessons, pupils, though young, will be well prepared for taking up, with ease and advantage, the "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language," and the manual of "Analysis, Parsing, and Composition," and for going through a more thorough and critical course.

PART FOURTH.-PROSODY.

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LESSON 82.—Prosody.

619. Prosody consists of two parts; Elecution and Versification.

I. Elocation.

- 611. Elecution is correct pronunciation, and the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.
- 612. In order to read or speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to correct enunciation, the proper pitch of the voice, the accent and quantity of syllables, and to emphasis, pause, and tone.
- **613.** Accent is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable in pronouncing a word of two or more syllables. Thus, in the word harmony, the stress is on the first syllable. In "undertake," it is on the last.
- **614.** When expressed at all, this stress of voice is indicated by the mark (') placed on the accented syllable.
- **615.** Words of more than two syllables generally have a **primary** and a **secondary** accent; as, communication, dominéer.
- 616. To know the place of the primary accent is indispensable to correct pronunciation. A good dictionary is the best guide to the proper accent of a word.
- **617.** Words from English roots commonly keep the accent throughout on the root; as, love, loveliness, lovelily, beloved, lovesick. This is not so, however, with words from foreign roots; as, harmony, harmonious.
- 618. In dissyllables which are at once nouns or adjectives, and verbs; the noun or adjective generally has the accent on the first and the verb on the last syllable; as,

Noun or adjective.	Verb.
contract	contract
présent	present
présage	preságe
pérfume	perfúme
ábsent	absént

619. In dissyllables formed by affixing a termination, the first syllable is commonly accented; as, childish, kingdom, toilsome.

620. Dissyllables formed by **prefixing** a syllable to the radical word generally have the accent on the *last* syllable; as, to retain, to beseem, to bestow.

II. Versification.

621. Versification is the arrangement of a certain number of long and short syllables according to certain rules. Composition so arranged is called *Verse* or *Poetry*.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry consisting of such lines, is sometimes called Rhyme. Blank-verce is poetry without rhyme.

623. Every verse or line of poetry consists of a certain number of parts called *Feet*. The arrangement of these feet in a line according to the accent, is called *Metre*; and the dividing of a line into its component feet is called *Securing*.

624. All *feet* used in poetry, are reducible into *eight* kinds: four of two syllables, and four of three syllables; the long syllable being marked by a straight line (—) and the short, by a curve, (—) as follows:

. Dissyllable.	Trisyllable.
A Trochee —	A Dactyl— —
An Iambus ~—	An Amphibrach ——
A Spondee ——	An Anapæst ——
A Pyrrhic -	A Tribrach

- 625. In English, accented syllables are long, unaccented are short.
- 626. The Metres in most common use, are the *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, and *Anapæstic*.
- 627. Iambic Metre is adapted to grave and serious subjects; it has the second, fourth, and other even syllables, accented or long; and the first, third and other uneven syllables, unaccented or short. Of this verse there are various kinds, some having two feet, some three, some four, some five. The last is called heroic measure, and is the same that is used by Milton, Young, Thomson, Pollok, etc.
- 628. In iambic verse set to music, especially in sacred songs, stanzas with alternate lines of four and three feet are called common metre; when all the lines have four feet each, long metre. Stanzas having three feet in the first, second, and fourth lines, and four in the third, are called short metre.
- 629. When the last line of a stanza is extended to six feet, it is called Alexandrine.
- **630.** Trochaic Metre is quick and lively, and adapted to gay and cheerful composition. It comprises verses of one and a half, two, three, four, five, and sometimes six feet; sometimes followed by an additional syllable.
- 631. Anapæstic Metre consists of lines of two, three, or four Metres or Anapæsts, with sometimes an additional syllable.

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APPENDIX.

I ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

By an *element* we mean *one of the simplest parts* or principles of any thing. It performs a distinct office or function. Thus,

An element of a word is a letter or a sound.

The elements of a *phrase* are the words of which it is composed.

The elements of a sentence are the separate words, phrases, or clauses which give specific character to the proposition.

Note.—Frequently several words, constituting a phrase or a clause, make, taken together, only one sentential element. Thus,

Several stars of less magnitude now appeared.

The boy who studies (= studious) will improve.

In every sentence there must be a *subject* (generally a noun or pronoun) and its *verb*. Other elements may be added to limit, modify, or enlarge the ideas which these contain. Hence,

The elements of a sentence are of two kinds, principal and subordinate.

- 1. **Principal Elements** are those necessary to the structure of any sentence. (Grammatical subject and grammatical predicate, **361**, **373**.)
- 2. Subordinate Elements are those which modify or limit the principal elements. A subordinate element may limit another subordinate element.

These are of three kinds-

(1.) Complementary, such as complete the affirmation.

made by a transitive verb—the **object**; as, He studies grammar; or that made by an attributive verb—the attribute; as, Sugar is sweet.—He became wise.

- (2.) Adjunctive, used directly to limit or define other elements. These are adjective and adverbial; as, A good boy studies his lesson.—A very good boy studies attentively.
- (3.) Attendants, including—(a) Connectives, conjunctions, and prepositions; and (b) Words of euphony and exclamations.

This scheme may be presented as follows:

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	Principal	Subjective. Affirmative.	
SENTENTIAL ELEMENTS.		COMPLEMENTARY	Objective. Attributive.
,	Subordinate	ADJUNCTIVE	Adjective. Adverbial.
		ATTENDANT	Connectives. Words of Euphony. Interjections.

In the preliminary analysis of sentences, by the foregoing-

- 1. Tell the subject and the predicate.
- 2. Say, The *principal element* in the subject is—, limited by the adjunct, word, phrase, or clause, —, etc.
- 3. The *principal element* in the predicate (the affirmer) is —, (if transitive), limited by the object —, or, (if attributive), used to affirm the attribute of the subject —, and further limited by the adverbial adjunct, (word, phrase, or clause), —.

[*** See Analysis, 37—40; A. & P. Gr.—594.]

II. THE PASSIVE VOICE.

An analysis of the English verb will show that in the passive voice there is, strictly speaking, only one form, viz., the past participle, having the following uses and connections:

1. Joined directly with a substantive (its subject), to express the receiving of an act; as, He saw me ruined, and helped me.

2. Used as an *attribute* of the subject, after an attributive verb, most commonly the verb to be; as, I am hurt.—He was despised.

Instead of the commonly received method of parsing the passive voice, in all the moods and tenses, we may separate it into the verb to be as a copula, and the past participle used as an attribute.

III. ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS.

Many adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions were originally *nouns* or *verbs*, which have become entirely or almost obsolete, or are abbreviated modes derived from other parts of speech. The following are examples:

Adverbs.

Aghast, from agaze, to look with astonishment.

Ago, a contraction of agone, from go.

Asunder, from participle asundered, separated.

Farewell, from an old verb, meaning to go, etc., and well.

Prepositions.

Beyond, from be and gangan, to go.

Athwart, from an old verb, meaning to twist.

Among, from an old verb, meaning to mix.

But, from an old verb, (be-utan), to be out.

Concerning, participle, used absolutely; as, "Concerning virtue."

Except, (verb), to leave out, etc.

Conjunctions.

Since, from seon, to see, (participle.)

Lest. from lesan, to dismiss.

And, imperative, from an old verb, meaning to add.

Yet, from getan, to obtain, etc.

*** For some curious notes on this subject, see Noah Webster's Grammar and Tooke's "Diversions of Purley."

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IV. SYNOPTICAL TABLES.

For the purpose of aiding the pupil in seeing at one view the leading characteristics and distinctions of the different parts of speech, the following synoptical view is presented:

1. Table of Nouns.

ine. inc.
ar.
native. sive. ive.

2. Table of the Articles.

2. 10.	C DEPINITE	.The.
	DEFINITION	(A, before a consonant.
ARTICLES	INDEFINITE	An, before a vowel.

3. Table of Adjective.

	ns.	Red.
	Sensible	long. Pleasant.
ES.	1. OF QUALITY Sensible	One.
ASS	Numeral. Indefinite	Few, many. Each.
CI	2. Of QUANTITY Distributive	Much.
VES	(Time	Eastern. American.
CTI	3. CIRCUMSTANTIAL. Nation	Amusing.
10.11	4. Participial {Descriptive	.Unmerited.
Æ	4. Participial (Verbal (compounds)	of contences.

*** Pupils may be exercised in constructing tables and other synoptical statements of the parts of speech, and "elements" or parts of sentences, at the option of the teacher.

4. Table of Pronouns.

		$Simple. \dots $	I. Thou. He, she, it.	We, You, They.
	Personal	$igg\{ extit{ extit{Compound}} \ldots igg\{$	Myself, Thyself, yourse Himself, hersel itself.	Ourselves, Yourselves, f, Themselves.
		Simple	Who, Which.	That, What
CNS.	Relative	Compound	Who(so)ever, Which(so)ever, What(so)ever.	
PRONOUNS	Interrogative		William .	
		Possessive	My, thy, his, Our, your, the	her, its, one's.
		Distributive	Each, Every.	Either, Neither.
	Adjective	Demonstrative	This, these, That, those.	
	· E.	Indefinite	None, Any, All, Such.	One, Other, Another, etc.

5. Table of the Verb

1. Nature of the Affirmation.	Transitive, Active. Intransitive, Attributive.	Indicative. { Present. Presperf. Past. Past-perf. Future. Future. Futperf.	Sing. Plural.
g 2 Form of Inflection.	Regular, Irregular, Defective.	Potential Present. Presperf. Past. Past. Past.	e -
3. Uses in forming Compound Tenses. I	Wille,	Subjunctive. Present. Past. Imperative Present.	1. Pers. 2. Pers. 3. Pers.
ses in	Have, Be, May,	Infinitive { Present. Perfect.	
3. C	Auxiliary; Can, Must, Shall, Will.	Participial. Present. Past. Perfect.	

6. Table of Adverbs.

1.	Mauner as,	Justly bravaly slowly
2.	Truce	Hero, there, whither.
3.	Time	Now, then, when, often
4.	Direction	Upward, downward.
5.	Aftirmation	Certainly, truly, yes.
6.	Negation	Nay, not, nowise.
7.	Interrogation	How? why? when?
8.	Comparison	More, most, as.
9.	Quantity	Much, some, enough.
10.	Order	First, secondly, thirdly.
11.	Uncertainty	Perhans, probably
12.	Connection (Conjunctive A	dverbs, 300.)

7. Table of Prepositions.

SS	1. PLACE	Rest in a Motion to or from. Rest or motion	s, He is in the house. He went into the house. Over.
EXPRESS IS OF	2Тімк	Time and place Time only	At noon, at the table. Till noon.
NS E	3. AGENT OR INSTR	RUMENT	By his power.
PREPOSITION RELATION	4. CAUSE	••••••	For my sake.
	5. MISCELLANEOUS IDEAS	Separation Inclination Aversion Substitution Possession Reference	Against. Iustead of. Of.
	s. Ta	Reference Opposition:	Agniust. ctions.

CTIONS.	COPULATIVE.	Continuative	Annl. also, likewise. Moreover, for, etc. Before, where, after, if, unless, until, etc.
5		F) 1 . 17 1	Or, nor. Either, neither.
00	(Adversative	But, nevertheless. Yet, still, whereas, etc.

9. Table of the Parts of Speech.

*** The Parts of Speech and their most common characteristics and accidents, may be presented at one view, as follows:

(First.

,	and the jet				irst.
		. 0	Class names.		econd. hird.
		Collective names.		lasc.	
	1	Common	Names of materials. Names of measures.	Gender. F	enı.
				4	euter.
ſ	Nouns		Abstract. Qualities.		ing. lural.
			States.	1 1 ' ' "	omin.
E	Proper			Case P	osses. bjec.
EN			[Personal.	? Simple.	bjec .
. Z			Relative.	Compound.	
LE	Pronout	ns		Possessive.	
2H			Interrogative.	Distributive Demonstrat	
AI			\ Adjective.	Indefinite.	110.
羁			(Tunneiting Active.	Ir dicative.)
Ž		{ Use	Passive. Passive.	`	
PR		C86	Intransitive.	Potential.	1 2
Ξ,				Jubjunctive	Tenses, etc.
	Verbs	Regular.	[] Juperative		
		10/11/11	Defective.	Infinitive.	ءَ ا
			, § Principal.		
		Connection	Auxiliary.	J. Participial.	.)
RD CLASS: SECOND CLASS: ADJUNCTS.	Adjective Articles Advertis Conjun	S (1. Of Quality. 2. Of Quantity. 3. Circumstantial. 4. Participial. Sofinite. Indefinite. Place. Time. Affirmation. Affirmation. Copulative. Disjunctive. Place. Time.	Connective Continuati Listributiv	ve. ve.
S. COND	Prepos	itions	Agent, or Instrumen Cause. Miscellaneous.	t.	
ASS		.49			
CL	Interjections, — various emotions.			٠,	
FOURTH	Explet	ives, or Wo	ords of Euphony.		
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First. Second. Third. (Masc. Fem. Neuter. (Sing. Piural. (Nomin. Posses. (Object.

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ve. tive. trative. te.

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Tenses, etc.

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tive. uative. utive. ative.

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