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INTRODUCTORY GRAMMAR

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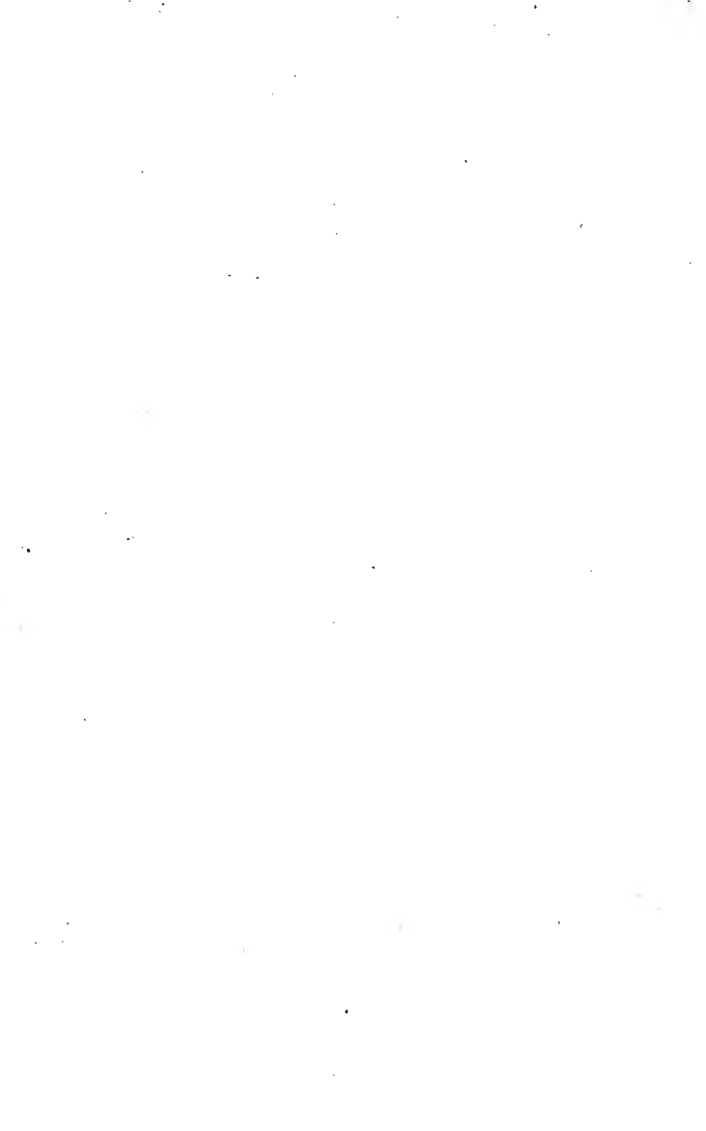
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AN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR THE USE OF

JUNIOR CLASSES.

BY

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THIS Grammar is designed, as its title indicates, for the use of Junior Classes in the Schools throughout the Province. The same definitions have been given in it as in the larger and more advanced Grammar, authorized by the Council of Public Instruction; and, where the mode of expression has been altered, the change has been made with a view to rendering the subject more easily understood by the class of pupils for whom it is specially intended. It may, therefore, be considered as an introductory Grammar to the Analytical and Practical Grammar, and not by any means as intended to supersede it.

Keeping in view the fact that it is intended rather for beginners in the study of Grammar, than for those more advanced, the Editor has embraced in the Questions every point referred to both in the body of the work and also in the appended remarks. Under the guidance of a judicious teacher these Questions may be made useful to the pupil, by enabling him to test himself, by way of question and answer, on the lesson which may have been assigned to him for preparation. The teacher, however, should carefully avoid, as a general rule, asking the questions in the identical form in which they are found in the Grammar. They are given with a view to aid the pupil rather than the teacher.

It cannot be expected that in such a Grammar all the examples of difference in Gender, Number, &c., should be given. Much is necessarily left to be supplemented by the Teacher.

The subject of Analysis has, it is hoped, not received too prominent consideration, for it performs a very important part in enabling pupils to read correctly and intelligently.

PREFACE.

The Rules of Syntax are the same as those given in the large Grammar, with the following exceptions:—One Rule (Rule 7, A & P. G.) affecting the Possessive, is embraced in the remarks on Rule 6, and portions of the remarks on Rule 11 of the large Grammar, are included in the Rule relating to the Verb. In giving the number of the Rule, in the schemes for parsing, it is not intended that merely the number of the Rule shall be given, but the Rule itself; thus the difference in the numbering of the Rules will, practically, have no ill effect.

Neither Prosody, nor Punctuation, nor Composition, has been referred to in this treatise, otherwise the work would have lost its character of an Elementary Grammar. The last two subjects may safely be left in the hands of the Teacher, who can direct the pupils most advantageously in both of them when the classes are writing to Dictation.

No exercises in False Syntax have been inserted—the reason is explained in the Preface to the large Grammar. No lists of Adverbs, Prepositions, &c, have been given, because it has been deemed better to allow the pupils to find these out for themselves, by carefully observing what duty they do in their respective sentences. In this way the pupil will not have his memory burdened with a useless list of meaningless words.

Prefixed to the Grammar proper will be found a very elementary treatise, which, it is hoped, will render the study more congenial to the younger pupils, and enable them to take up the Introductory with more profit and pleasure; while it may, at the same time, serve as a sample of the simple language in which children may be taught Grammar. The order in which various classes of words are treated, differs from that given. It seems to be the more natural plan to consider the various kinds of words in the order of their importance. It is therefore suggested, that a similar method be adopted in considering the Parts of Speech in the Introductory Grammar.

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FIRST STEPS IN GRAMMAR.

1. The whole of our language is made up of **words**; these words are, in their turn, made up of **letters**, and each of these letters has its own sound.

2. The twenty-six letters of our Alphabet are of two kinds, **Vowels and Consonants**.

3. The **vowels** are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y*, except at the beginning of a word or syllable.

4. The **consonants**, nineteen in number, are the remaining letters,—viz., *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*. At the beginning of a word or syllable *w* and *y* are consonants.

Questions.—Of what is our language made up? Of what are words composed? What is said about the sound of each letter? What are the two divisions of letters? Name the vowels. Name the consonants.

Exercise.—1. Tell how many vowels and how many consonants there are in the following words:—

Toronto, Kingston, Ottawa, violence, intemperance, senate, consonant, vowel, condition, toothache, interjection.

2. Tell in which of the following words *w* and *y* are consonants, and in which they are vowels:—Fellow, carry, winter, young, sowing, yew, mow, mowing, cow, sky, youth, glory, dye, yellow, wind.

5. In learning grammar we must remember that we are learning all about words.

6. Words are the material out of which we form sentences, just as the mason or the bricklayer builds a house out of stones or bricks, by joining them together.

7. Now in making our sentences we find that there are different kinds of words, and that each kind has its own work to do. These words we join together to form sentences.

8. Let us, therefore, before going any farther, look at two kinds of words, which are most frequently met with.

9. If we wish to say something about some person or thing, we are obliged to name that person or thing. For example, we say *Charles* or *horse*, therefore the word *Charles* or the word *horse* is a name. This gives us the first kind of word.

Questions.—When we are learning grammar, what are we learning about? Out of what material are sentences made? To what may these words be compared? Are all words of the same kind? Do they all perform the same duty? What is the use of the first kind of word?

Exercise.—Name six things in the school-room.

” ” on a breakfast table.

” ” used in a garden.

” ” that grow

Name six kinds of fruits.

Give six names of persons.

10. Besides naming *Charles* or *horse*, we desire to say something about them. For example, if we say *Charles sings*, or *The horse runs*, we have told something about them, and thus have made use of a telling word.

11. The uniting or joining of these two kinds of words gives us the simplest form of a sentence, which thus consists of a naming word and a telling word.

12. We thus see that every sentence—*i. e.* statement of a fact—consists of two parts, —*viz.*, the noun, or naming part, and the verb, or telling part.

13. Now, if we had no other kinds of words, there would be very little variety in our sentences, and our expressions would be very clumsy.

14. Our language, however, has a variety of words, each one of which has its own peculiar duty.

15. We will now take our first sentence and see how it can, by the aid of other words, be made to express a good deal more than the two original words indicate.

1 2
(1.) Charles sings.

Here we have *two* kinds of words.

1 2 3 3 1
(2.) Charles sings a favorite song.

Here we have *three* kinds of words.

(3.) Charles sings a favorite song sweetly.

Here we have *four* kinds of words.

(4.) Charles sings a favorite song very sweetly for his
mother and sister.

Here we have *seven* kinds of words.

(5.) Charles sings a favorite song very sweetly for his
mother and sister. They thank him, and say, Oh!
how sweetly sung.

Here we have *eight* kinds of words.

16. Thus we find that we can use *eight* different kinds of words in making up sentences. The eighth does not occur so frequently as the others.

Questions.—What is the duty of the next most important kind of word? What does the union of these two kinds of words give us? Of what does the simplest kind of a sentence consist? What do we call the two parts of a sentence? What would be the result if we had no other than the two kinds of words? How many different kinds of words are there?

Exercise.—Form three sentences telling what a *horse* can do.

Form three sentences telling what a *monkey* can do.

Form three sentences telling what a *mouse* can do.

Form three sentences with *dog, cat, man, bird*, for the noun part.

Form three sentences with *jumps, sings, runs, leaps*, for the verb part.

17. Let us now look at these different kinds of words, and see what name is appropriate to each one, and why it has that particular name.

THE NOUN.

A Noun is a name.

18. As a noun is a name, or a name is a noun, therefore the word *Charles* is a noun, because it is a name: the word *horse* is

a noun, because it is a name; the word *fun* is a noun, because it is a name.

19. Hence every name is a noun.

Questions.—What is a Noun? What is a name? Why is the word 'Charles' a noun? the word 'horse?' the word 'fun?'

Exercise.—1. Select the nouns from among the following words:—

John, for, wisely, hand, house, hoe, and, or, but, axe, sell, peach, cherry, Toronto, large, when, cat, river, bird, if, since, goodness, bravery, bad, large, down. John has an old hat and a new cap. The cow has a white calf. The trees are full of leaves. The lamp gives more light than the candle. Peter's boat is in the water.

2. Put a noun in each of the following blank spaces:—

She has a new——. —— knows his lessons. I saw——.
My—— is better than your——. This is a red——. The
—— is a very long river. —— is the capital of Ontario.
—— can jump farther than——.

THE VERB.

A Verb is a telling word.

20. Let us look at this verse, and then we shall see what is meant by the definition:—

In the barn a little mousie
Ran to and fro;
For she heard the kitty coming,
Long time ago.

21. Here we find two words which tell us something about the 'mousie.' These two words are *ran* and *heard*; now, because they tell us something, they are called verbs.

Questions —What is a Verb? What is a telling word? How many verbs are there in the little verse? Which are they? Why are they verbs?

Exercise.—1. Select the verbs in the following sentences.

2. Why are they verbs?

James runs. The bird flies. Men die. The man teaches. The child cries. The bottle contains ink. John caught a fish. He has seen the elephant. The cow eats fresh grass. The dog lost his master. George plays. Does George play? The horse

gallops through the woods. The boys learn their lessons. The sun shines bright.

3. Put a verb in each of the blank spaces.

Benjamin—to town. James—a letter. Emily—her book. The letter—by John. Thomas—down on the bed. The girls—their lessons. The boat—up the river. The deer—down the hill. Susan—a good girl. I—a book. The tree—by the wind. Julia—diligently. Fannie—home. The bird—its nest. Flowers—by the gardener.


THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a noun-marking word.

22. Let us write a sentence containing a word of this kind, and then apply the definition:—Charles killed the large black dog.

23. Here we are told that 'Charles killed a dog,' and that it was a particular dog. This dog is distinguished from other dogs by being black and large

24. These two words mark the dog, and are, therefore, called **adjectives** or **noun-marking words**.

25. Besides these two words, there is another little word which points out the *particular* black dog. This is the little word *the*, which resembles, in use, the  on a finger-post, and has the force of an adjective.

26. The word **an** or **a** has also the force of an **adjective**.

27. In the language of grammar, an adjective is said to **qualify**.

28. We may, therefore, use this definition:

An Adjective is a qualifying word.

Questions.—What is an Adjective? What is a noun-marking word called? Give an example of an adjective and a noun. Why is that word an adjective? In the example given which are the adjectives? Could you put other adjectives in their place? What is the use of 'the' in a sentence? What are adjectives said to do in grammar? Give another definition.

Exercise.—I. Select the adjectives in the following sentences:

John is a good boy. Have you studied that long lesson? Here are five little boys and six girls. Every man has some

fault. Love all men. That beautiful river has lovely green banks. Little kittens love new sweet milk. I will give you this large ripe yellow peach.

2. Join an appropriate adjective to each of the following nouns:—

Man, table, hat, hand, knife, pen, boy, girl, cow, horse, bullets, box, shoes, sun, moon, stars, leaf, picture, stream.

3. Join a noun to each of the following adjectives:—

Good, bad, fat, fair, this, that, happy, every, rich, high, low, poor, lazy, tall, short, strong, weak, red.

THE ADVERB.

The Adverb is a verb-marking word.

29. Like the adjective, this is also a marking word.

30. It is most frequently used to mark a verb.

31. It is found also with adjectives and other adverbs. It is, therefore, an adjective-marking, and an adverb-marking word as well.

32. It tells us when, where, how, or why, a thing is done.

33. To shew that it is a verb-marking word let us look at this sentence: Mary sings *sweetly*.—Here we are not only told that 'Mary sings,' but we are also told how she sings; the word '*sweetly*,' therefore, marks the word '*sings*,' which is a verb.

34. That it marks an adjective may be seen in this sentence:—Father gave me a *very* beautiful book.—Here we see not only that the book is '*beautiful*,' but the word '*very*' marks the degree of beauty: thus we see that an adverb is also an adjective-marking word.

35. Another example will shew that it also marks another adverb. In the example (Sec. 33) we were told that 'Mary sings *sweetly*,' but the degree of sweetness may be marked by some such adverb as '*very*' or '*rather*;' so that we find an adverb marks also another adverb.

36. In the language of Grammar, an adverb is said to modify, —i. e., to change.

37. We may, therefore, use this Definition of the word:

An Adverb is a modifying word.

Questions.—What is an Adverb? What kind of word does it most frequently work? With what other kinds of words is it found? What does an adverb tell us respecting any thing? In the sentence 'The horse ran away,' which word is the adverb? How do you know it is an adverb? Which is the adverb in this sentence, 'Harry is very fond of candy?' How do you know? Pick out the adverbs in this sentence, 'Fido barked so loud that he woke the baby.' Why are they adverbs? What does 'to modify' mean? Give another definition for an adverb.

Exercise.—1. Select the adverbs in the following sentences:—
2. Tell why they are adverbs.

Charlie learns quickly. The dog bit the boy badly. Boys sometimes play very roughly. Some days in winter are exceedingly cold. See how nicely my top spins. Walter skates well. La crosse is easily played. Fanny writes very quickly and regularly. Mary sits gracefully.

3. Insert an adverb in each blank space.

I am—tired. The horse trotted—. Tray is a—old dog. He behaved—. James writes—. The wind was —high, and the sea—rough. Go and sit—. Read your lesson—. He spoke in—a loud tone. He spoke in a—low tone.

THE PREPOSITION.

The Preposition is a joining word.

38. We will take a short sentence, and look into the words of which it is made up.—'Charles hit James with a stone.'

39. In this sentence we have three names, or nouns, one telling word, or verb, one noun-marking word, or adjective, and one which joins the verb *hit* to the noun *stone*.

40. We notice that its use is to join these two words, and that it is placed before the word *stone*.

41. Hence we see that a Preposition joins words.

Questions.—What is a Preposition? Give an example. What is its use? Where is it placed?

Exercise.—1. Select the prepositions in the following sentences:—

The horse ran down the street. I laid it on the table. The book lies under the chair. The meadow is behind the barn. He shot an arrow through the apple. Monkeys can climb up trees. Charlie has a knife with six blades. He walked from his home to school in ten minutes.

2. Place prepositions in the blank spaces:—

I set it—the table. I cut my finger—a knife. George jumped—the fence, and Frank crawled—a hole. He put the money—his purse, but lost it— —his pocket. He struck the boy—the head—a strap. He has just returned — England—the steamer.

THE CONJUNCTION.

The Conjunction is a sentence-joining word.

42. This word is also a joining word, but it does not join simple words, but statements of facts,—*i. e.*, sentences.

43. One or two examples will illustrate the meaning of the definition.—John struck Harry *and* made him cry. The dog will bite you, *if* you teaze him.

44. In the first example there are two statements made; therefore, there are two sentences. The first sentence is—‘John struck Harry;’ the second one is—‘John made him cry.’ They are joined by the word *and*; this word is, therefore, a conjunction.

45. In the second example also there are two sentences.—‘The dog will bite you’—and—‘If you teaze him’—and these sentences are joined by the word *if*, which thus becomes a conjunction.

46 We thus see that the use of this kind of word is to join sentences.

Questions.—What is a Conjunction? How does it differ from the preposition? Give an example containing a conjunction. Name the conjunction? How do you know it is a conjunction? What does your example teach you about conjunctions?

Exercise —Select the conjunctions in the following sentences:—

I rode, but Peter walked. Come and see me to-morrow. He fell on the ice and cut his face. He can neither read nor write, though he is ten years old. He was so cold that his teeth chattered. Though he was poor he was much respected. Henry and John survived their father. The boat upset and they were all drowned. If you study hard, you will surely succeed. I am sure he will get a prize, if he work diligently.

THE PRONOUN.

The Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

47. We could tell a story or keep up a conversation by means of the six kinds of words of which we have been reading, but the frequent repetition of the name, or noun, would be tiresome, and would, at the same time, make our sentences appear stiff and awkward.

48. In order, then, to avoid this, we have a kind of word which we very often use for, or instead of a noun; and hence its name Pronoun, *i. e.*, For-name.

49. The good of having such a useful little word may be shewn by an example or two.

50. If we were to say—‘Stella fell and broke Stella’s doll;’ or, ‘John cut John’s finger with John’s knife,’—either sentence would be very clumsy.

51. Now, if in the first sentence we write *her* instead of *Stella’s*, and in the second *his* instead of *John’s*, see how much more smoothly the sentences will read: Stella fell and broke *her* doll. John cut *his* finger with *his* knife.

52. Now, because these words have been used for the nouns, they are called Pronouns.

Questions.—What is a Pronoun? Is this kind of word absolutely necessary? Why not? What would be the result if we had no pronouns? Whence does it get its name? Give an example shewing the use of this kind of word?

Exercise.—1 Select the pronouns in the following sentences.

2. Instead of the pronouns, write the nouns for which they stand.

James brought his book and lent it to Mary, and she read it. She was much pleased with it, and thanked her brother for having lent it to her. George studies well; he learns fast, and he will excel. Thomas is a good boy; he obeys his father and mother cheerfully, when they wish him to do anything for them.

3. Write the proper pronouns instead of the nouns.

George found the squirrel lying under a tree with the squirrel’s leg broken. George took the squirrel home, and the squirrel’s leg soon got well. The squirrel loved George, and followed George wherever George went.

THE INTERJECTION.

The Interjection is a sound or a word used only as a sound.

53. This kind of word is not so frequently met with as the others.

54. It is entirely different from any of the others, and expresses some feeling or emotion of the mind.

55. If we feel *pain* we exclaim, 'Oh!' if we feel *grief*, we say, 'Ah!' 'Alas!' if we are *glad* to see a person, we say, 'Welcome!' or 'Hail!'

56. Now all these are Interjections.

Questions.—What is an Interjection? Does it occur as frequently as the other kinds of words? What does it express? What feeling gives rise to the Interjection Oh? to Ah? to Alas? to Welcome? to Hail?

Exercise.—1. Select the interjections in the following sentences:—

Holloo! John, what are you doing with my book? Hush! do not disturb the baby. Welcome! my friend. Bravo! be not afraid. Ship, Ahoy! where are you from? Hurrah! the victory is won.

2. Put interjections in the blank spaces.

He is gone and — how wretched I am. — my friends, how miserable must that man be! — deliverer of thy country! — my friends! — we are going to have a holiday to-morrow.

57. The different kinds of words are called in Grammar, Parts of Speech.

Questions.—What are these different kinds of words called in Grammar? Name the parts of Speech. Give the definition of each.

Exercise.—1. In the following sentences select the different parts of speech.

2. Tell why the words belong to those particular Parts of Speech.

An old man went one day to market. A mouse was caught in a trap, and then thrown to the cat. A good shepherd takes care of his sheep. A Newfoundland dog is generally very large, and fond of the water. The Atlantic Ocean separates America from Europe.

HOW WORDS ARE USED.

58. As the same man may carry on two or three different trades, so words may have two or three different uses,—i. e., may belong to two or three different classes.

59. This may be better explained by means of an example. The word *round*, for instance, may be—

- (1.) A noun; as, A *round* of beef.
- (2.) An adjective; as, A *round* table.
- (3.) A verb; as, He tried to *round* the point.
- (4.) A preposition; as, He ran *round* the yard.
- (5.) An adverb; as, The earth turns *round*.

60. We thus see that we cannot tell to what class the word belongs, until we know its use.

61. We have no difficulty, however, in finding the class, the moment we know the use of the word. In order to help us in classifying words, we may ask the following questions:—

1. Is this word *used* as a NAME? If it is, it is a NOUN.
2. Is this word *used* as a TELLING WORD? If it is, it is a VERB.
3. Is this word *used* as a NOUN-MARKING WORD? If it is, it is an ADJECTIVE.
4. Is this word *used* as a MODIFYING WORD? If it is, it is an ADVERB.
5. Is this word *used* as a WORD-CONNECTING WORD? If it is, it is a PREPOSITION.
6. Is this word *used* as a SENTENCE-CONNECTING WORD? If it is, it is a CONJUNCTION.
7. Is this word *used* INSTEAD OF A NOUN? If it is, it is a PRONOUN.
8. Is this word *used* as EXPRESSIVE OF SOME FEELING? If it is, it is an INTERJECTION.

Questions.—Can the same word belong to different classes? How would you illustrate your answer? What must we know about a word before we can determine its class? How may a Noun be determined? A Verb? An Adjective? An Adverb? A Preposition? A Conjunction? A Pronoun? An Interjection?

Exercise.—In the following sentences assign the words to their proper classes:—

The race horse, Eclipse, won the race. Love is the fulfilling of the Law, therefore we should love our enemies. He remained but an hour. None but the industrious are sure of success. Have you seen the square block of marble on the public square? Point out on the map a cape, or point. That boy that said that, knew that he was telling an untruth. The dog began to bark at the squirrel, as he gnawed the bark out of which we intended to make a bark canoe. Have you ever looked out of a bay window, over a bay, and heard a dog bay at the moon? The boys are playing on the green, near the house with the green verandah. We must plough deep in the deep clay.

CHANGES IN WORDS.

62. Words do not always remain the same, but they undergo certain changes. These changes are termed in Grammar Inflections.

63. This change generally takes place at the end of the word. Sometimes it is made in the middle.

64. The kinds of words that can be changed are nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and pronouns; the others, of course, cannot be changed.

CHANGES IN THE NOUN.

Gender.

65. The first change to be noticed is that called Gender.

66. By means of this inflection we can tell to what sex the person or thing belongs, of which the noun is the name.

67. For instance, the names of males are Masculine; as, Man. The names of females are Feminine; as, Woman. The names of those things which are neither male nor female, are Neuter, i. e., neither masculine nor feminine; as, Tree.

Questions.—Give the grammatical name for the changes that certain words undergo. Where does the change generally take place? What kinds of words can be inflected? What ones are uninflected? What is the first change called? What is Gender? Of what use is this inflection? Of what gender are the names of males? Of females? Of those things that are neither male nor female?

Number.

68. The next change that we shall notice is that called **Number**.

69. If we are speaking, for instance, of one person or thing, we use what is called the **singular number**; as, *Boy*.

70. As soon as we mention the names of **more than one**, we use the **plural number**; as, *Boys*

71. The plural generally ends in 's'; as, *Books*. Sometimes it ends in 'es'; * as, *Churches, foxes, ladies, knives, heroes, &c.*; sometimes in 'en'; as, *Children*. Sometimes we find a different word; as, *Geese, teeth, mice, &c.*

Questions.—What is the next change that the noun undergoes? What is **Number**? What is meant by the singular number? What by the plural number? Give examples. In what letter does the plural generally end? Are there any other terminations? Can any one Rule be given for forming the plural? Prove this by examples.

Exercise.—What is the number of the following nouns, and why?—

Man, child, hero, horse, books, apples, men, loaf, muffs, goose, grove, brushes, watches, picture, table, pen, bottles, knife, fifer, gulf, lamp, yard, fox, geese, mice, tooth, church.

Case.

72. This is the last change that the noun undergoes.

73. This inflection tells us the **condition** in which a noun is with respect to some other word in the same sentence.

74. The noun has **three cases**: the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**.

75. The **Nominative case** is that about which an assertion is made; as, *John sings*. Here an assertion is made about *John*, therefore the noun *John* is in the **nominative**.

76. The **Possessive case** is used to denote the relation of **property**. For instance, if we wish to say that a book belongs to *John*, we say that it is *John's book*. The noun '*John's*' is said to be in the **Possessive**.

* There is no one Rule for the formation of the plural, for, though the singular number of words may end in the same letter or letters, it does not follow that the plurals are spelled in the same way; for example, *Monarchs, oxen, days, safes, strifes, gulfs, fifes, muffs, folios, &c.*

77. In the singular number this case is known by an apostrophe and 's' * added to the nominative; as, John's. In the plural the apostrophe is placed after the 's'; as, Ladies'.

78. The Objective case follows a certain kind of Verb, (Sec. 116,) and also a Preposition; as, He struck *John* with a *stick*. Here both nouns, 'John' and 'stick,' are in the Objective.

Questions.—What is the last change? What does this change tell us? How many cases have nouns? What is the Nominative case? What does the Possessive denote? How is this case known in the singular? How in the plural? How is the Objective case known? What is meant by a 'sign'?

Exercise.—1. Tell the case of the nouns in the following examples.

2. Write the Possessive, Singular and Plural.

The dog bit the sheep. John struck Harry. Mary's doll is very pretty. The lion's mane is very long. Bob ate two apples and four peaches. He hit the horse with a stick. The hen laid six eggs. The frost killed the flowers.

CHANGE IN THE ADJECTIVE.

Comparison.

79. The only change that the Adjective undergoes is that of Degree.

80. The word degree means a step.

81. By means of this change we pass from one form of an adjective to another.

82. We may illustrate this inflection by means of an example:—One day of a week may be *cold*: in this form the adjective is said to be in the Positive degree; the next day may be *colder*, this gives us the Comparative degree; the third day may be the *coldest*, and this gives us the Superlative, or highest degree.

83. In many adjectives this change is effected by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive. while in others it is made by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*

* This is called its *sign*, a word which will be often met with in grammar. Its use is just the same as an umbrella-mender's or a boot-maker's sign. As their signs tell us what we may find in their shops, so the signs in grammar point out particular changes, or inflections.

Questions.—How many changes does the Adjective undergo? What is this change called? What is the effect of this change? If we use the adjective in its simple form, what name is given to the Degree? What, if we ascend a step higher? What, when we have reached the highest step? How are very many adjectives compared? Is there any other way of comparing adjectives?

Exercise.—1. Compare the following adjectives by adding *er* and *est*:—

High, low, rich, poor, quick, slow, dull, cold, free, brave, smooth, thin, thick, black, white, hot, steep, warm, rough, tough, bold, wise, young.

2. Compare the following adjectives by means of *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*:—

Anxious, fashionable, handsome, pleasing, benevolent, courageous, sensible, temperate, intelligent beautiful, amiable, bountiful, grateful.

CHANGES IN THE VERB.

Tense.

84. This kind of word has several (five) changes, or inflections.

85. The inflection, of which we shall first speak, is known by the name of *time*, or *tense*.

86. It corresponds to our words *to-day*, *yesterday*, and *to-morrow*.

87. The first tense is called the *present*, which tells us what is taking place *now*; as, I *sing*.

88. The next is called the *past*, and it tells us what took place *yesterday*, or even *before that*; as, I *walked* a mile yesterday.

89. The third tense is called the *future*. This tense tells us of something that is going to take place; as, I *will see* you to-morrow.

90. Very many verbs form their *past tense* by adding 'd' or 'ed' to the present. If the verb ends in 'e,' the letter 'd' alone is added; as, Prove, proved.

91. The *future* is formed by placing 'shall' or 'will' before the verb.

The inflection of Tense.

PRESENT.

PAST.

*Singular.**Plural.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | | | |
|-----------------|---------------|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I move. | 1. We move. | 1. I moved. | 1. We moved. |
| 2. Thou movest. | 2. You move. | 2. Thou movedst. | 2. You moved. |
| 3. He moves. | 3. They move. | 3. He moved. | 3. They moved. |

FUTURE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

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

Questions.—How many inflections has the Verb? Which of these are we going to consider first? What does 'tense' mean? What does 'time' mean? To what words does this inflection correspond? What is the first tense called? What does it tell us? Give an example of this tense. What is the name of the second tense? What does it tell us? Give an example. What is the third tense called? What does it tell us? Give an example. How is the past tense formed in many verbs? How, if the verb ends in 'e'? How is the future formed? Go through the three tenses of the verb 'to move.'

Exercise.—1. In the following sentences select the tenses.

2. Tell why the verbs belong to that tense.

James runs. John will study his lesson. The cat killed a mouse. John caught a fish. I see a bird. The bottle holds ink. I cut my finger yesterday and it bled. The cow eats fresh grass. William rides every day on horseback. He rode to town yesterday. I shall call.

3. Write the past and the future tense of the following verbs:—

Skate, learn, play, hate, laugh, content, gallop, burn, remain, sharpen, look, push, wait, tumble, love, shove, loosen, tighten, smile, remove, walk.

4. Go through the tenses of the verbs in Example 3, according to the table.

Person and Number.

92. Besides this inflection of time, there are two others which depend upon the nominative in the sentence.

93. If the nominative be the name of a person speaking, it is said to be in the first person, and the verb must agree with it, —that is, it must be of the same person; as, I *talk*.

94. If the nominative be the name of a person spoken to, it is said to be in the **second** person, and there must be the same agreement between the verb and the nominative; as, *Thou talkest.*

95. A change takes place in the spelling of the verb, for though we cannot say 'Thou talk,' we can say 'Thou *talkest.*'

96. If the nominative be the name of a person or thing spoken of, it is said to be of the **third** person, and the verb must agree with it. Here, too, there will be a change in the spelling of the verb; as, *He talks.*

97. The nominatives given in the examples are all of the **singular** number, and the verbs agree with them. We shall find that there is the same agreement between the verb and the nominative throughout the **plural** number also? as, *We talk, you talk, they talk.*

98. It will be noticed that there is **no change** in the spelling of the verb, when the nominatives are of the **plural** number.

99. We also see that the **person** and the **number** of the nominative determine the person and the number of the verb.

100. Hence the two inflections which depend upon the nominative are **person** and **number**.

Questions.—How many inflections of the verb depend upon the Nominative? When is the nominative of the first person? What do you mean by the verb agreeing with it? When is the nominative of the second person? What will be the person of the verb? Why must a change be made in the spelling of the verb? What is meant by the nominative being of the third person? What will be the person of the verb? Is this agreement confined to the singular number? Is there any change in the spelling of the plural number of the verb? What is it that determines the person and the number of a verb? What inflections depend upon the nominative?

Exercise.—In the following sentences determine the person and the number of the verbs:—

Philip studies. The music charms. George went to town. Rain falls from the clouds. The vessel sails over the sea. I saw him do it. You are mistaken. He cut his finger. All the windows in the house are open. The leaves of the book are torn. The frost injured the grain. Thou readeest. We visited the cave. They ran a race. You promised to come. The wolf killed the dog.

Voice.

101. Besides the three inflections which have just been de-

fined, there is another very important one, to which we must now direct our attention.

102. This inflection may be best understood by using some such example as this,—I strike, and I am struck.

103. Here we have two forms of the same verb, the first one, 'I strike,' represents the nominative as doing something.

104. In the other example the nominative is represented as having something done to it, or as suffering the action.

105. This difference in form is called in grammar **voice**.

106. **Voice** is, therefore, the difference between **doing** and **suffering an action**, *i. e.*, between **doing** and **being done to**.

107. The former is called the **Active**, and the latter the **Passive voice**.

108. Before we can give the three tenses of the **Passive Voice**, we must learn the three corresponding tenses of the verb 'to be.'

109. These tenses are as follows:—

PRESENT.		PAST.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.	1. We are.	1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.	2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He is.	3. They are.	3. He was.	3. They were.

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

110. These we place before part of the verb which, in the verbs of which we are now speaking, is exactly the same as the **Past** tense; as, I am loved, I was loved, I will be loved.

111. Now you can go through the three persons and both numbers of the three tenses of any verb in the **Passive Voice**; as, I am loved, thou art loved, he is loved, &c.

Questions.—In the examples given of the next inflection, what does the first one represent? What does the second represent? What name is given to this inflection? What is **Voice**? How many **Voices** are there? What verb helps us in the **Passive Voice**? Go through the three tenses of this verb. How do we form the **Passive Voice** by means of them?

Exercise.—1. In the following sentences select the verbs that are in the Active Voice, and those that are in the Passive.

2. Tell why they belong to that voice.

3. Pick out the tenses.

4. Go through the three tenses of the verbs in both voices.

Robert walks. The horse gallops. The tree was struck by lightning. An old man went to market. John struck William. William will strike John. Anne cut an apple. The monkey pulled Harry's hair. They danced and sang. Nuts are eaten by squirrels. The book was read by the boy. The boy read the book. The house was consumed by fire. The dog bit the cat. The horse eats hay.

Note.—It will be quite enough to know the name of the fifth inflection. It is called mood.

Kinds of Verbs.

112. If we examine different sentences carefully, we shall find that verbs are of different kinds.

113. Let us, for example, look at these two sentences, *He struck John, who ran.*

114. In the first of these the statement, or what we are telling about the subject 'he,' would not be complete without the word 'John.' The verb is, therefore, incomplete.

115. In the second sentence, however, the statement is complete without the addition of another word. The verb, therefore, is complete.

116. In grammar we call the first kind transitive, *i. e.*, **passing over**, because the sense passes over to another word. The word which completes the idea is in the objective case (Sec. 78.)

117. The other kind of verb is called intransitive *i. e.*, **not passing over**.

Questions.—Are verbs always of the same kind? Give an example to prove your answer correct. In the examples given above, what name is given to the first verb? Why is this name given? What name is given to the second? Why? What is the grammatical name for the first kind? for the second? What case follows transitive verbs?

Exercise.—1. In the following examples select the transitive and the intransitive verbs.

2. State why they are so.

Stir the fire and close the shutters fast. He rose and slowly withdrew. No tree bears fruit in autumn, unless it blossoms in the spring. A shot from the cannon killed the captain. Jane can sing, draw, and paint. He came yesterday and will go away to-morrow. Milo was so strong that he could lift an ox. He gave a shilling and got back sixpence. He reads. The horse ran very swiftly.

THE ADVERB

118. LIKE the adjective, the Adverb has but one inflection, and that the same, namely, Degree.

119. It is formed in just the same way as in the adjective, by adding 'er' and 'est;' by placing 'more' and 'most;' or 'less' and 'least' before the word.

Questions.—How many inflections has the Adverb? What is it the same as? What name is given to this inflection? How is it formed?

Exercise —Compare the following adverbs, the first four by adding 'er' and 'est,' the rest by prefixing 'more' and 'most.'

Soon, often, fast, seldom, quickly, slowly, gladly, beautifully, sweetly, honestly, bravely, sensibly, temperately, freely.

THE PRONOUN.

120. This word has four inflections, Person, Gender, Number, and Case.

121. If the Pronoun is used for the name of the person speaking, it is said to be of the first person; as, I.

122. If it is used for the name of the person spoken to, it is said to be of the second person; as, Thou.

123. If it is used for the name of the person or thing spoken of, it is said to be of the third person; as, He, she, it.

124. As they are used instead of nouns, they will be of the same gender and number as the noun, but not necessarily of the same case.

125. They form their plural differently from nouns, and difference in gender is represented by a different word.

126. The three cases are all different, except in two of the pronouns.

127. These two are the second (plural) and the third (neuter), which have the nominative and the objective alike.

128. The following table will shew the inflections :

SINGULAR.			
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
1. M. or F.	I	mine, my	me
2. M. or F.	Thou	thine, thy	thee
3. {	<i>M.</i> He	his	him
	<i>F.</i> She	hers, her	her
	<i>N.</i> It	its	it

PLURAL.			
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
1.	We	ours, our	us
2.	You	yours, your	you
3. {	They	theirs, their	them

129.—1. We thus see that 'I' and 'Thou' stand for the names of persons of the male or the female sex, and the gender is, therefore, masculine or feminine. 2. 'He' stands for the name of a person of the male sex, and the gender is masculine. 3. 'She' stands for the name of one of the female sex, and the gender is feminine. 4. 'It' stands for the name of an individual being belonging to neither sex, and the gender is neuter.

130. We also notice that while the first and the second have a plural of their own, the third has the same plural for the three genders.

Questions.—How many inflections has the Pronoun? Name them. When is a Pronoun said to be of the first person? Of the second? Of the third? In which inflections will they correspond to their nouns? Do they form their plural in the same way as nouns? How is difference in gender represented? Which two have the Nominative and the Objective alike? Go through each pronoun separately, singular and plural

Exercise.—Tell the Person, the Gender, the Number, and the Case of the following Pronouns:—

I, he, him, her, us, you, hers, they, it, its, mine, me, their, his, them, thou, our, we, she, theirs, yours, my, ours, thy.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language, with correctness.

1. Language is composed of words, and these words are composed of letters. We join the 'letters' together to form 'words,' and the 'words' to form 'sentences.'

2. A sentence is, therefore, a combination of words containing a statement.

2. GRAMMAR comprises four parts:—

I. Orthography, which treats of letters and syllables.

II. Etymology, which treats of words.

III. Syntax, which treats of the construction of sentences.

IV. Prosody, which treats of Accent, Metre, and Versification.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar? Of what is language composed? Of what are words composed? What is a sentence? Into what four parts is Grammar divided? Of what does Orthography treat? Of what does Etymology treat? How does Syntax differ from Etymology? Of what does Prosody treat?

PART FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

3. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of the sounds of letters, and of the mode of combining them into syllables and words, with a view to their being *correctly* spelled.

1. Meaning of Letter.—A letter is a mark or character, used to represent an elementary sound of the human voice.

2. Number of Letters.—There are Twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.

3. **Division of Letters.**—Letters are either **Vowels** or **Consonants**.

4. **Vowels.**—A **Vowel** is a letter which forms a perfect sound when uttered alone. The pure vowels are five in number: *a, e, i, o, u.* *W* and *y* are vowels, except at the beginning of a syllable.

5. **Consonants.**—A **Consonant** is a letter which cannot be perfectly sounded except in connection with a vowel; hence its name. The consonants are, *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z;* and *w* and *y* at the beginning of a syllable.

6. **Diphthongs.**—A **Diphthong** is the union of two vowels in one sound. Diphthongs are of two kinds, proper and improper.

(1.) A **Proper Diphthong** is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *Ou*, in *out*; *oi*, in *oil*; *ow*, in *cow*.

(2.) An **Improper Diphthong** is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *Ou*, in *court*; *oa*, in *bout*.

7. **Triphthongs.**—A **Triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *Eau* in *beauty*.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

4. Different forms of letters are used both in printing and in writing.

5. In *printing*, Roman characters are most frequently employed; sometimes Italics are used, and sometimes old English.

6. In *writing*, the form called ‘script’ is used.

EXAMPLES.

Alfred was king of England.—ROMAN.

Alfred was king of England.—ITALICS.

Alfred was king of England.—OLD ENGLISH.

Alfred was king of England.—SCRIPT.

7. Besides these forms, which are named from the *type* used, we have two other forms, which depend upon the use made of the letters. These two forms are capital and small letters; as, **A a, B b, C c, &c.**

8. Small letters form the body of the word. Capitals are used for the sake of making the word prominent and distinct.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

Rule I.—All titles of books, and the heads of their divisions, should be *printed* in Capitals. In *writing* the title of a book, or the subject of an extract from a particular author, use capital letters for the important words; as, *The Third Book of the Canadian National Series.* An amusing story of King Alfred.

Rule II.—The first word after a period, also the first word of an answer to a direct question, should begin with a capital; as, *Who did it? He.*

Rule III.—All the names and attributes of the Deity should begin with a capital; as, *God's Omniscience means His power of knowing everything.*

Rule IV.—Titles of office and honor, and all proper names, common nouns spoken to or of as persons, should begin with capital letters; as, *The Governor General of Canada. The Canadian people are truly loyal. O Death, where is thy sting! Necessity is the mother of invention.*

Rule V.—The pronoun I, the interjection O, and the first letter in every line of poetry, should be written with a capital; as, *Yesterday I visited Hamilton. O majestic night!*

*But yonder comes the powerful king of day,
Rejoicing in the East.*

Rule VI.—A quotation, in which the exact words are given, should begin with a capital letter; as, *Shakespeare says, All the world is a stage.*

Rule VII.—Any word that we desire to make particularly emphatic, or which denotes the principal subject of discourse, may be written with a capital letter; as, *The Reformation. The Gunpowder Plot.*

SYLLABLES.

9. A SYLLABLE is an articulate sound uttered by one effort of the voice; as, *Farm, far-mer, ea-gle.*

10. It consists of one or more letters; as, *A-e-ri-al.*

11. There are as many syllables in a word as there are distinct sounds; thus, in the word *gram-ma-ri-an*, there are *four* syllables.

12. Words are divided, according to the number of syllables which they contain, into—

1. Monosyllables, or words of one syllable ; as, Fox.
2. Dissyllables, or words of two syllables ; as, Far-mer.
3. Trisyllables, or words of three syllables ; as, But-ter-fly.
4. Polysyllables, or words of many syllables ; as, Pro-cras-ti-na-tion.

SYLLABICATION.

13. SYLLABICATION is the division of words into syllables.

The following may be taken as a **General Rule** :—

Place together, in distinct syllables, those letters which make up the separate parts or divisions of a word, as heard in its correct pronunciation ; or, divide the word according to its constituent parts,—*i. e.*, its *prefix*, *root*, and *affix*.

SPELLING.

14. SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters, correctly arranged.

1. **Special Rules for Spelling.**—The pupil is referred, for guidance in the special rules for syllabication and spelling, to “The Companion to the Readers.”

2. **Point to be remembered.**—The pupil must remember that, though a word may be divided at the end of a line, a syllable should never be broken. This division of the word must be marked by a hyphen, placed immediately after the division ; as, Trans-form.

QUESTIONS ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

What is Orthography ? What is a Letter ? How many letters are there in the English Alphabet ? How are they divided ? What is a Vowel, &c. ? What different characters are used in printing and writing ? How do Capital letters differ in use from small ones ? What is the first Rule for the use of Capitals, &c. ? What is a Syllable ? Of how many letters does a syllable consist ? How many syllables are there in a word ? What is a Monosyllable ? Give an example, &c. What is Syllabication ? Give the General Rule for dividing words into syllables ?

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

15. **ETYMOLOGY** treats of the classification, the inflection, and the derivation of words.

1. **Classification.**—By this we mean that words are arranged into classes, according to the work which they do in sentences.

2. **Inflection.**—This implies peculiar changes that take place in certain classes of words, thus giving them another meaning.

3. **Derivation.**—By means of this we are enabled to trace a word to its original source, just as we may trace a *river* back to its fountain-head. In this way we can determine whether the word is of Saxon, Latin, Greek, or other origin.

WORDS.

16. A **WORD** is an articulate sound used as the sign of an idea.

17. A word may consist of vowel sounds only; as, I, Oh, Eye, &c.

18. Words admit of a threefold division:

I. As to **FORMATION**.

II. do. **KIND**.

III. do. **INFLECTION**.

I. **FORMATION OF WORDS.**

19. With respect to formation, words are—

I. **PRIMITIVE** or **DERIVATIVE**.

II. **SIMPLE** or **COMPOUND**.

DEFINITIONS.

20.—1. A **Primitive** word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language; but is itself a root from which others spring; as, Boy, just, father.

2. A **Derivative** word is one that is derived from some other word; as, Boyish, justice, fatherly.

3. A **Simple** word is one that is not combined with any other word; as, Man, house, city.

4. A **Compound** word is one that is made up of two or more simple words; as, Manhood, horseman.

II. KIND OF WORDS.

21. With respect to kind, words are either,—

- | | |
|---------------|-------------------|
| 1. NOUNS ; | 5. ADVERBS ; |
| 2. ADJECTIVES | 6. PREPOSITIONS ; |
| 3. PRONOUNS ; | 7. CONJUNCTIONS ; |
| 4. VERBS ; | 8. INTERJECTIONS. |

22. These are called Parts of Speech.

Origin of different Parts of Speech.— When we wish to make known our thoughts we employ words, each one of which has its own meaning and use. As our ideas are of different kinds, so also must be our words. The class to which these separate words belong, depends upon their meaning and use. For example, if we wish simply to give the name of anything, we use a noun ; if we wish to say something about that noun, we use a verb, &c.

III. INFLECTION.

23. Some of these Parts of Speech undergo certain changes of *form* or *termination*, and these changes are called *inflections* ; as, Man, man's, men.

24. Other words undergo no such change ; as, Yes, no, then ; therefore, with respect to inflection, words are either,—

I. INFLECTED OR

II. UNINFLECTED.

Inflected.—Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, and Adverb.

Uninflected.—Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

DEFINITIONS.

A NOUN, or SUBSTANTIVE, is a *name*, as of a person, place, or thing ; as, Cicero, Rome, boy, house, &c.

AN ADJECTIVE is a word which is used to qualify nouns ; as, Good, great, &c.

A PRONOUN is a word which properly supplies the place of nouns ; as, I, thou, &c

A VERB is a word which expresses *existence*, *condition*, or *action* ; as, He is ; He is sleeping ; He reads.

AN ADVERB is a word which is used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs ; as, To run *swiftly* ; so swift ; so *swiftly*.

A **PREPOSITION** is a word which shews the relation between its object and some other word in the same proposition; as, To be *in* Italy.

A **CONJUNCTION** is a word which shews the particular manner in which one part of a sentence is joined to another, as, The father *and* the son resemble each other. *Either* the father *or* the son must go.

An **INTERJECTION** is simply used as an expression of feeling, or as a mere mark of address; as, *O!* *Alas!* *Hail!*

INFLECTIONS.

25. The inflections of **NOUNS** are *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

The inflection of **ADJECTIVES** is *Degree*.

The inflections of **PRONOUNS** are the same as those of **NOUNS**, together with *Person*.

The inflections of **VERBS** are *Voice*, *Mood*, *Tense*, *Number*, and *Person*.

The inflection of **ADVERBS** is the same as that of **ADJECTIVES**.

QUESTIONS ON ETYMOLOGY.

Of what does Etymology treat? What is meant by Classification? What by Inflection? What by Derivation? What is a Word? How may words be divided? What is a primitive word? What a Derivative? What is a Simple word? What a Compound? How many kinds of Words are there? Name them. What are these called? What is the origin of these different Parts of Speech? What is meant by a word being inflected? What are the inflected Parts of Speech? Name the uninflected Parts. Give the definition of a Noun; or an Adjective; of a Pronoun; of a Verb. &c. What are the Inflections of Nouns; of Adjectives, &c.?

THE NOUN.

26. A **NOUN** is a *name*, as of a person, place, or thing; as, Cicero, Toronto, boy, house.

1. **How Known** — Everything that exists or may be supposed to exist has a name, and that name is called in grammar a Noun.

2. **Point to be remembered**. — The pupil must remember that it is simply the name that is affected by grammar: the person, or place, or thing, remains unchanged. We may illustrate this

by an example: 'Man' is a human being, and as such we cannot say that *he* belongs to any 'part of speech,' but the name is a noun.

27. Nouns may be divided into three classes: PROPER, COMMON, and ABSTRACT.

1. **Proper Nouns.**—If the nouns are the names of *individual* members of a class, they are proper nouns. Thus the *name* of every individual person or place is a proper noun; as, Victoria, Toronto.

2. **Common Nouns.**—But if the nouns are the names of things of the same *sort* or *class*, they are common nouns; thus, the noun 'Lion,' being the name of a class, or species, is a common noun.

3. **Abstract Nouns.**—Besides the two classes mentioned above, there is a class of nouns which are the names of *qualities* or *states*, and which we can only think of as existing. Thus, we know that 'snow' is 'white,' and 'grass' is 'green,' but we can only think of the *quality* or *property* of 'whiteness' or 'greenness;' these are of the class called abstract. This class of nouns generally ends in *ness*, *th*, *tion*, *ance*, *ence*, *hood*, *ty*.

DEFINITIONS

28. A PROPER NOUN is a proper name, as of a person, or place; as, John, London.

29. A COMMON NOUN is a name common to all the members of a class of objects; as, Man, horse.

30. AN ABSTRACT NOUN is a name of some *property*, or *quality*, which can only be conceived of as having an existence; as, Virtue, justice.

QUESTIONS ON THE NOUN.

What is a Noun? How is a Noun known? What point must be carefully remembered? Give an illustration. Into what three classes are nouns divided? How may a Proper Noun be known? How do you know a Common Noun? What is meant by an Abstract Noun? Give a definition of each.

EXERCISE ON THE NOUN.

1. Write out twelve names of things in the school-room.
2. Write out twelve names of things in the play-ground.
3. Write out twelve names of things in the fields.

4. Select the **nouns** in the following sentences:—

The sun shines. The dog barks. The fire burns. The fox crept along the wall. The boat sails on the water. The flowers bloom. Birds build nests. The door is open. Water is good for drinking. Columbus discovered America. John studies grammar. History is a useful study. The rose is a beautiful flower. Cain slew Abel. The boy told an untruth. Mushrooms grow. The church bell tolls.

5. Write out twelve **nouns** that are names of *things*.

6. Write out twelve **nouns** that are names of *persons*.

7. Write out twelve **nouns** that are names of *places*.

8. Write out twelve **abstract nouns**.

9. Arrange the different nouns in the sentences given above, according to the class to which they belong.

ANALYSIS.

31.—1. A **SENTENCE** is a combination of words expressing a complete thought. (Sec. 1, 2.)

2. This complete thought is expressed respecting some *thing*,—*i. e.*, a **NOUN** or its equivalent.

3. The expression of this thought is made by means of that part of speech called the **VERB**, without which no statement can be made.

4. The two parts into which each sentence may be conveniently divided, are the **NOUN PART** and the **VERB PART**.

5. The division of a sentence into its two essential parts is termed **ANALYSIS**.

EXAMPLES.

The clock has just struck two.

She dwelt on a wild moor.

NOUN PART	VERB PART.
The clock	has just struck two.
She	dwelt on a wild moor.

Analyze, according to plan, the following sentences:—

The eye is the organ of sight. Blood flows from the heart. Temperance promotes health. Iron is the most useful metal. A bad workman quarrels with his tools. Words of many syllables are called polysyllables. The long expected friends have arrived. The sea is England's glory. True friends adhere to us in adversity. Many of the descriptions given by travellers are exaggerated. To love our enemies is a command given by our Saviour. The wind moans through the trees. Subjects must obey their rulers.

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

What is a sentence? What two parts of speech enter into the structure of every sentence? How are they introduced? Into what two parts is every sentence divided? What is this division styled?

INFLECTIONS OF THE NOUN.

32. THE INFLECTIONS of this Part of Speech are,—

GENDER,
NUMBER,
CASE.

Besides these Inflections, Person is also ascribed to nouns.

PERSON.

33. PERSON, in Grammar, is the distinction between the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

1. A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker; as, I, *Paul*, have written it.

2. A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken to; as, Thou, *God*, seest me.—Hail, *Liberty*!

3. A noun is in the *third* person when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, *Truth* is mighty.

QUESTIONS ON PERSON.

What is meant by Person? When is a noun said to be in the first Person? in the second? in the third?

EXERCISE ON PERSON.

1. Tell the person of the following nouns.
2. Give your reason.

Mary, you are a good girl. I, John Thomson, hereby certify. John Thomson hereby certifies. Consistency, thou art a jewel. Boys, you may go home. The boys went home. Darius made a decree. I, Darius, make a decree. Thou art fallen, O Lucifer.

34. The first change or inflection that marks the noun is

GENDER.

35. GENDER is the distinction of Sex.

36. This inflection enables us to tell whether the individual person or thing, of which the noun is the name, belongs to the *male* or the *female* sex, or to *neither*.

How ascertained.—As this is a *grammatical* distinction in the *names* of things, we can determine the gender as soon as we know to which *natural* division that individual person or thing belongs.

37. This difference in sex, therefore, gives us **THREE GENDERS**, called respectively—

MASCULINE,
FEMININE,
NEUTER.

1. **Masculine Gender.**—If we are speaking of a person or thing belonging to the *male* sex, the name of that person or thing will be *masculine*; as, Man, horse.

2. **Feminine Gender.**—If the person or thing belongs to the *female* sex, the noun, *i. e.*, the name, is of the *feminine* gender; as, Woman, mare.

3. **Neuter Gender.**—If, however, it belongs to *neither* sex, it is of the *neuter* gender; as, Tree, table.

4. **Common Gender.**—Sometimes the nouns are the *names* of persons belonging to either sex; the gender, therefore, is *common*; as, Parent.

38. The **MASCULINE** and the **FEMININE** are distinguished from each other by—

- I. DIFFERENT INFLECTIONS.
- II. DIFFERENT WORDS.

I. DIFFERENT INFLECTIONS.

39. The inflections most frequently met with are **ESS** and **INE**.

1. EXAMPLES OF THE TERMINATION 'Ess.'

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	Abbess	Lion	Lioness
Actor	Actress	Marquis	Marchioness
Author	Authoress	Negro	Negress
Baron	Baroness	Poet	Poetess
Count	Countess	Prince	Princess
Duke	Duchess	Shepherd	Shepherdess
Empress or	Empress	Sorcerer	Sorceress
Governor	Governess	Tiger	Tigress
Heir	Heiress	Viscount	Viscountess
Jew	Jewess		

2. EXAMPLES OF THE TERMINATION 'Ine.'

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Hero	Heroine
Landgrave	Landgravine
Margrave	Margravine

II. DIFFERENT WORDS.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Boy	Girl	Husband	Wife
Brother	Sister	King	Queen
Bridegroom	Bride	Lord (a title)	Lady
Cock	Hen	Man	Woman
Drake	Duck	Nephew	Niece
Earl	Countess	Papa	Mamma
Father	Mother	Son	Daughter
Gander	Goose	Sir	Madam
Gentleman	Lady	Uncle	Aunt
Horse	Mare	Widower	Widow

40. The distinction is also marked by placing **MASCULINE** and **FEMININE** words *before* the noun of common gender; as—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Man-servant	Maid-servant
He-goat	She-goat
Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow, &c.

41. Some nouns of foreign origin retain their original distinctions of gender; as, **Administrator**, **administratrix**; **beau**, **belle**; &c.

42. Sometimes an object that is usually considered as inanimate, is represented as a living person; it is then said to be *personified*; as, Come, gentle *Spring*.

QUESTIONS ON GENDER.

What is the first inflection of nouns? What is Gender? Of what use is this inflection? How many genders are there? What is meant by a noun being of the Masculine Gender? of the Feminine Gender? of the Neuter Gender? of the Common Gender? How is the Masculine to be distinguished from the Feminine? What two inflections are most frequently met with? Illustrate the formation of the Feminine by means of a Prefix? What is the rule respecting nouns of foreign origin? What is meant by personification?

EXERCISE ON GENDER.

1. Write down the Feminine of—

Father, prince, king, master, actor, emperor, bridegroom, stag, buck, hart, nephew, friar, heir, hero, Jew, host, hunter, sultan, executor, horse, lord, husband, brother, son, bull, he-goat, &c.

2. Write down the Masculine of—

Lady, woman, girl, niece, nun, aunt, belle, duchess, abbess, empress, heroine, wife, sister, mother, hind, roe, mare, hen-sparrow, shepherdess, daughter, ewe, goose, queen, songstress, widow, &c.

3. Give the gender of the following nouns, with reason:—

Man, horse, tree, field, father, house, mother, queen, count, lady, king, prince, castle, tower, river, stone, hen, goose, seamstress, mountain, cloud, air, sky, hand, foot, head, body, limb, lion, tiger, mayor, countess, friend, neighbor, parent, teacher, assistant, guide, sun, moon, earth, ship, cat, mouse, fly, bird, elephant, hare.

It is suggested that the answer be given in the following form:—

The noun 'MAN' is of the masculine gender, because it is the name of an individual of the male sex.

43. The next change which the noun undergoes is

NUMBER.

44. NUMBER is a variation in the form, to express *one or more than one*.

If we are speaking of only one object we use what is called the **singular number**; but if we are speaking of several things, then we use another form, called the **plural**; therefore,—

45. Nouns have two numbers, the SINGULAR and the PLURAL. The singular denotes but one object; as, *Book, tree*; the plural, more than one; as, *Books, trees*.

46. Nouns form their plurals in four different ways.

I GENERAL RULE.—The plural is commonly formed by adding ‘s’ to the singular; as, *Book, books*.

The ‘s’ has two sounds, the sharp, and the flat, or ‘z’ sound, according to the letter which precedes; as, *Books* (sharp), *mouths* (flat).

II.—1. Words ending in ‘s,’ ‘sh,’ ‘ch’ (soft), ‘x,’ and ‘z,’ form their plural by adding ‘es;’ as, *Glass, glasses*; *brush, brushes*; *church, churches*; *fox, foxes*; *topaz, topazes*; but *monarch, monarchs*.

2. Most nouns ending in ‘o’ preceded by a consonant, form their plural in ‘es;’ as, *Cargo, cargoes*.

Exceptions.—*Canto, memento, octavo, two, zero, grotto, junto, portico, quarto, solo, tyro, halo*; also nouns ending in ‘eo,’ ‘io,’ ‘yo.’

3. Nouns in ‘y’ after a consonant form their plural in ‘es,’ changing ‘y’ into ‘i;’ as, *Lady, ladies*.

4. Nouns in ‘y’ after a vowel follow the general rule; as, *Day, days*. But nouns ending in ‘quy’ form their plural in ‘ies;’ as *Colloquy, colloquies*.

5. Nouns in ‘f’ or ‘fe’ form their plural in ‘es,’ changing ‘f’ into ‘v;’ as, *Wife, wives*; *life, lives*.

Exceptions.—*Gulf, safe, life, strife*, and nouns ending in ‘ff,’ ‘f’ preceded by two vowels, and in ‘rf,’ form their plural in ‘s.’ To this, however, there is an exception in the case of a few words, such as *staff, leaf, loaf, sheaf, thief, &c.* The compounds of the first of these words form their plural *regularly*; as, *Flugstaffs*.

III. The third way of forming the plural is by adding 'en' to the singular; as, *Ox, Oxen; child, children.*

IV. The fourth way is by changing the vowel of the singular; as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Man	Men	Tooth	Teeth
Woman	Women	Goose	Geese
Foot	Feet	Mouse	Mice
Louse	Lice	Cow (formerly)	Kine
		(now)	Cows

Note.—It must be borne in mind that **Abstract** nouns have no plural, as long as we consider them simply as names of **notions**; but as soon as we consider them as names of **things**, they have a plural. For example, the noun 'Beauty,' as the name of a **quality**, has no plural; but we use the plural form **beauties**, as meaning 'beautiful things.' The same may be said respecting the names of **individual persons**, and the names of **materials**. When either of these has the force of a **class name**, then it takes a plural; as, The Georges of England.—Some golds; *i. e.*, **Kinds** of gold.

EXERCISE ON NUMBER.

1. Give the plural of the following nouns, and the rules for forming each; thus. *Book*, plural *books*. **Rule.**—The plural is commonly formed, &c. *Fox*, plural *foxes*. **Rule.**—Nouns in 's,' 'sh,' 'ch' (soft), 'x,' 'z,' form the plural by adding 'es.' Or more briefly, **Nouns in 'x' form the plural by adding 'es.'**

Fox, book, leaf, candle, hat, loaf, wish, box, coach, sky, army, echo, loss, cargo, wife, story, church, table, glass, study, street, potato, sheaf, house, glory, monarch, flower, city, difficulty, wolf, day, bay, chimney, journey, needle, enemy, ant, sea, key, tyro, grotto, nuncio, embryo, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, staff, cliff, reef, safe, wharf.

2. Of what number is each of the following nouns, and why?

Book, trees, plant, globes, toys, home, fancy, glass, state, foxes, houses, prints, bears, lilies, roses, glove, silk, skies, hill, river, stars, berries, peach, glass, pitcher, alleys, mountain, cameos.

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

47. There are certain peculiarities in the formation of the plural of different nouns worthy of being noted.

48. Some nouns have a double plural, each having a different signification; as,—

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
Brother	(one of the same family)	Brothers
Die	(a stamp for coining)	Brethren
Genius	(a man of learning)	Dies
Index	(a kind of spirit)	Dice
Penny	(a coin)	Geniuses
"	(a sum or value)	Genii
"		Indexes
"		Indices
"		Pennies
"		Pence

49. Some nouns are used in the singular only; as, *Gold, meekness, piety, &c.*

50. Some nouns are used in the plural only; as, *Annals, ashes, billiards, bitters, clothes, &c.*; also, things consisting of two parts; as, *Bellows, drawers, &c.*

51. Some nouns have the same form in both numbers; as, *Deer, sheep, swine, &c.*; certain building materials; as, *Brick, stone, plank,* in mass.

Some of these have a regular plural, with a distributive meaning.

PLURALS OF FOREIGN NOUNS.

52. Words adopted without change from foreign languages generally retain their original plural.

1. The termination 'us' is generally changed into 'i;' as, Radius, radii.

2. The terminations 'um' (Latin) and 'on' (Greek) are changed into 'a;' as, Datum, data; automaton, automata.

3. The termination 'a' is changed into 'æ;' as, Formula, formulæ.

4. The termination 'is' (Latin and Greek) is changed into 'es' and sometimes into 'ides;' as, Crisis, crises; chrysalis, chrysalides. The termination 'es' is retained; as, Species, species.

5. The terminations 'x,' 'ex,' or 'ix,' are changed into 'ices;' as, Apex, apices.

6. The following are from the French, the Hebrew, and the Italian:—

French—Beau, beaux.

Hebrew—Cherub, cherubim.

Italian—Bandit, banditti.

Note.—The general tendency of the language is to adopt many of these words and give them English plurals; as, Memorandums, seraphs.

QUESTIONS ON NUMBER.

What is Number? When is the singular used? When the plural? What does the singular denote, &c.? How many ways are there for forming the plural? What is the first general Rule? What two sounds has 's'? Give examples. What is the first Rule for the formation of the plural in 'es,' &c.? What is the third way in which the plural is formed? Give examples. Give examples of Nouns which form their plural by a change of the vowel in the singular. When have Abstract Nouns a plural? When have Proper Nouns and names of materials a plural? What is the first peculiarity noted in connection with the irregular formation of the plural? Give examples of Nouns used in the singular only, &c. How do Foreign Nouns form their plural, &c.?

EXERCISE ON NUMBER.

1. Give the plural of the following nouns:—

Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child, woman, brother, goose, tooth, erratum, radius, genius, lamina, phenomenon, axis, cherub, seraph, die, index, beau, bandit, penny, memorandum.

2. Of what Number are the following nouns.—

Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese, teeth, woman, child, apparatus, genii, geniuses, Matthew, children, brothers, formulæ, cherubim, pence, seraph.

3. Tell why each word is of that particular Number.

53. The last inflection that the noun undergoes is

CASE.

54. CASE is the relation which nouns and pronouns bear to the other words with which they are connected in sense.

1. Its proper meaning.—Case properly signifies a falling. The old grammarians used to indicate the dependence of the noun upon some other word by the successive positions of a

line falling gradually from the perpendicular. Hence the enumeration of the cases of nouns and pronouns is called declension.

2. Relation.—This word, derived from two Latin words, means literally ‘the *carrying back* of our thoughts from one thing to another.’

55. Nouns in English have three cases:—

THE NOMINATIVE,

„ POSSESSIVE,

„ OBJECTIVE.

DEFINITIONS.

56. I.—The unchanged noun or pronoun standing as the *subject* or *chief* word in the noun part of the sentence is said to be in the NOMINATIVE, *i. e.*, the NAMING CASE; as, *Man* is mortal.

II. When the name of the *owner* is placed just before the name of the thing owned, so as to express *property*, or *possession*, it is said to be in the POSSESSIVE CASE; as, *Man's* life is but a shadow.

III. When the word stands after a *transitive* verb or a preposition, it is said to be in the OBJECTIVE CASE; as, The son of that *man* killed another *man*.

EXERCISE ON CASE.

1. Select Nominative Cases:

Friendship is rare. Sincerity is openness of heart. The sun went down. Truth is the measure of knowledge. Prayer is the soul's sincere desire.

Tell why they are in the Nominative Case.

2. Select Possessive Cases:

Nelson's monument. Prayer is the contrite sinner's voice. A soldier's sepulchre. The hero's harp, the lover's lute. A distant torrent's fall. John's house.

Tell why, &c.

3. Select Objective Cases:

Strong reasons make strong actions. Knowledge expands the mind. God created the heavens and the earth. The summer

wind shook the branches. I saw the queen. The lightning struck the ship. She wrote a beautiful letter.

Tell why, &c.

Note.—It is suggested that the answers should be given in the following manner:—‘Friendship’ is in the **nominative** case, because it names the thing about which the assertion is made. ‘Nelson’s’ is in the **possessive** case, because it points out the owner or possessor. ‘Actions’ is in the **objective** case, because it receives the action expressed by the verb.

RULES FOR THE NOMINATIVE.

I. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative; as, The *king* reigns.

1. **Subject.**—Under the head of analysis we found that every sentence consists of two parts: one part being the thing spoken of; the other, what we say about it. To the former of these we give the name of **Subject**; and to the latter, as containing the assertion, the name of **Predicate**.

2. Certain verbs, besides having a nominative before them, have one after them; hence we have as a second Rule,

II. A **Predicate Noun**, denoting the same person or thing as its subject, agrees with it in case; as, I am a *messenger*.

III. An **appositive** agrees with its subject in case; as, The two brothers, *John* and *Henry*, go to school.

Apposition.—When we use different words for the same thing, we speak of the one as standing in **apposition** with the other and we give the name of **appositive** to that word which explains the other.

QUESTIONS ON CASE.

What is **Case**? What does the word properly signify? What is meant by **Declension**? What does **relation** mean? How many cases have **Nouns**? Give the definition of each. What is the **Rule** for the **Nominative**? What is meant by the **Subject**? What is meant by a **Predicate Nominative**? What is the **Rule** for **Appositives**? How do you explain the word **appositive**?

EXERCISE ON THE NOMINATIVE.

1. Select the Nominatives in the following examples:—
2. Classify them according to the Rules

The dog caught a rat. John broke the cup. The bird sings sweetly. A noun is a name. The battle was fought. He is called James. He was elected president. Milton, the poet, was blind. William, the Conqueror, was a Norman.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

57. The Possessive, in both numbers, is formed by adding an apostrophe and 's' to the nominative; as, *John, John's; men, men's.*

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

59. The relation of the possessive is also expressed by the preposition 'of;' as, *The sun's light; or, The light of the sun.*

60. When the nominative singular ends in *ss, es, us, ce, x,* or in letters of a similar force, the 's' is sometimes omitted in order to avoid harshness, or too close a succession of hissing sounds, especially before a word beginning with 's;' as, *For goodness' sake; for conscience' sake.*

RULE FOR THE POSSESSIVE.

Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Possessive; as, *I lost my brother's book.*

QUESTIONS ON CASE—(continued.)

How is the Possessive singular formed? How is the Possessive plural formed? How is the relation of the Possessive sometimes expressed? When is the apostrophe alone appended to the word for the Possessive singular? Repeat the Rule for the Possessive.

EXERCISE ON THE POSSESSIVE.

I. Give the Possessive, singular and plural, of the following nouns:—

Child, prince, woman, king, servant, tutor, footman, righteousness, father, duke, dog, bride, author, poetess, mason, house, writer, artist, thief.

2. Supply Possessive cases in the following:

The —'s crown. The —'s sword. The —'s mane.
—'s horse. The —'s coat. The —'s heat. The —'s
cold.

3. In place of the proposition 'of' and its case, insert the Possessive:

The shade of the holly. The work of the men. The dresses of the ladies. The flag of the man-of-war. The son of a prince. A servant of the king. For the sake of goodness.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

61. The OBJECTIVE CASE is the same in form as the Nominative.

A word is said to be in the Objective case when it expresses either (1) the object of an action, (denoted by a transitive verb, in the active voice;) or (2) the object of a relation, (denoted by a preposition.)

RULE FOR THE OBJECTIVE.

The Objective case follows an active transitive verb or a preposition; as, He struck the *table* with his *hand*.

QUESTIONS ON CASE—(continued.)

How does the Objective Case of a noun differ in form from the Nominative? When is a word said to be in the Objective Case? What is the Rule for the Objective?

EXERCISE ON THE OBJECTIVE.

1. Select the Objectives in the following examples:—
2. State why the words are in the Objective.

John struck James. Knowledge expands the mind. He was a man of honor. Truth is the measure of knowledge. Children should obey their parents. Good boys learn their lessons. He was struck by lightning.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

62. Nouns are thus declined—

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.	SING.
<i>Nom.</i>	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's	ladies'	Man's	men's	John's
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John

Note.—If the Proper Noun is the name of an individual person it has no plural.

Decline the following nouns in the same way:—

Child, boy, girl, house, queen, mother, woman, waiter, James, author, poet, servant, smith, prince, broker, son, daughter.

PARSING.

63. **PARSING** is the resolving or explaining of a sentence, or of some related word or words, according to the definitions and rules of Grammar.

Illustration.—The meaning of this definition will be better understood if we take an example by way of illustration. We meet, for instance, with the word 'fox,' and wish to parse it; *i. e.*, we wish to assign it to its proper class of words, and to tell how it is affected by other words in the sentence, or how it affects them. We find that it is the name of a thing, (*i. e.*, an animal,) therefore it is a noun. As its sex is not known positively, the noun belongs to either gender; it is therefore parsed as of the common gender. As it is but one of a class, it is a common noun, of the singular number. As far as form is our guide, it stands in either the nominative or the objective case. Hence, in order that our parsing may be exact and complete, we have the following

ORDER OF PARSING THE NOUN.

Prop.	}	Mas.	}	Sing.	}	Nom.	}	Case	
Com.		Fem.		Plur.		Poss.			according to
Al.str.		Neu.		Obj.		RULE.			
	}	Com.	}		}				

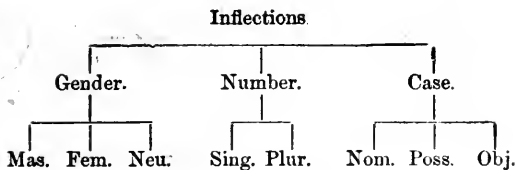
The grammatical connection must first be given both in this and every part of speech, except the Interjection.

EXAMPLE.—James lost his brother's knife.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
<i>James</i> lost	<i>James.</i> Noun, proper, masculine, singular, nominative to verb <i>lost</i> . Rule.
<i>brother's</i> knife	<i>brother's</i> Noun, common, masculine, singular, possessive, depending on <i>knife</i> . Rule.
lost <i>knife</i> .	<i>knife.</i> Noun, common, neuter, singular, objective after the verb <i>lost</i> . Rule.

TABLE OF NOUNS.





ANALYSIS.

64.—1. The part of a sentence which *names* the thing about which the assertion is made (*i. e.*, the **NOUN PART**) is called the **SUBJECT**.

2. The subject of a sentence is, therefore, a noun, or some word or words used as a noun.

3. Sometimes the subject is a simple nominative without any accompanying words.

4. This nominative is sometimes called the ‘simple subject,’ and sometimes the ‘grammatical subject.’

5. If any words are joined to the nominative in forming the subject, the subject is termed ‘complex,’ or ‘logical.’

6. The words thus joined to the subject are called ‘attributes,’ because they qualify or attribute some quality to the thing named. (Sec. 65, 2.)

7. The different attributes may be a noun in apposition, a noun in the possessive case, (either form, Sec. 57, 59,) or a preposition followed by its case.

EXAMPLES.

- (1) *Shakespeare* was a poet.
- (2) *Shakespeare, the poet*, flourished in the reign of Elizabeth.
- (3) *The master's* patience was exhausted; or,
The patience *of the master* was exhausted.
- (4) None *but the brave* deserve the fair

In the first example we have a simple subject; in the other three the subject is complex. In (2) the attributive is a noun in apposition; in (3) we have both forms of the possessive; and in (4) a preposition followed by its case.

SUBJECT.		VERB PART.
Attribute.	Nominative.	
The poet	Shakespeare	flourished in the reign of Elizabeth.
The master's	patience	was exhausted.
Of the master, the	patience	ditto.

Analyze, according to plan, the following sentences:—

The sovereign's death was lamented. The boy with the long black hair was found in the wood. The general's skill saved the town. Paul, the Apostle, was once a persecutor. A man of wealth is not necessarily a gentleman. The merchant's house is magnificent.

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

What name is given to the Noun Part of a sentence? What is the subject of a sentence? When a Nominative is taken by itself, what is it called? What other name has it? What is meant by a Complex Subject? What is the logical subject of a sentence? What is meant by Attributes? Why are they so called? What different attributes may a noun have?

THE ADJECTIVE.

65. An Adjective is a word used to *qualify* nouns; as, *A good boy.*

1. **Origin of Name.**—It gets its name from being added to nouns to describe the things which they name.

2. **Illustration.**—From the duty that an adjective does, it may be called a noun-marking word. Thus: 'The black man sold the spotted dog to the old gentleman.' In this sentence the words black, spotted, old, and the, qualify, or mark the nouns man, dog, and gentleman. Black marks the noun man, and

helps us to know that man among other men; **spotted** marks the noun **dog**, and helps us to distinguish the dog of which we are talking, from other dogs; and **old** marks the noun **gentleman**, and helps us to mark out that gentleman from gentlemen who are young or middle-aged. The word **the** marks out the particular **black man** about whom we are speaking from among all other black men; and so of the rest.

66. There are three kinds of Adjectives—

I. Those which mark a **thing** from a class.

II. Those which mark the peculiar **quality** of a thing.

III. Those which tell us the **number** or quantity.

67. Under the first class we place such adjectives as 'an,' 'a,' 'the,' 'this,' &c.

68. Under the second class we find such adjectives as 'good,' 'bad,' 'wise,' 'white,' &c.

69. Those adjectives which denote number are divided into—

I. Cardinal.	}	Numerals.
II. Ordinal.		

70. Cardinal Numerals tell us how many things there are in a series; as, One, two, three, &c.

71. Ordinal Numerals denote the place held by an object in a series; as, First, second, third, &c.

72. Under the last named class of adjectives are found such 'indefinites' as *all, any, some, few, &c.*; and 'distributives' as *each, every, either, neither.*

1. **Indefinites.**—These numeral adjectives are so called because they imply number, but do not specify an **exact** number.

2 **Distributives.**—Numeral adjectives of this kind denote the whole of a number of objects taken separately.

73. When other parts of speech are used to qualify or limit a noun, they perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; as, A *gold* ring; a *silver* cup.

AN and THE.

74. Two of the first class of adjectives *an* and *the*, are so frequently used, that, under the name ARTICLE, they have often been regarded as a separate Part of Speech.

1. **Origin of Name.**—The word is derived from the Latin, and means a little joint. Neither of the articles has any meaning, unless it is joined to a noun.

2. (1.) ‘An’ or ‘a’—This article points out the class to which a thing belongs; as, *An* apple. This means one of the class of fruit called apples.

(2.) ‘An’ is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as, *An* age, an hour.

(3.) ‘A’ is used before a consonant; as, *A* book; also before a vowel, or diphthong which combines with its sound the power of initial *y*, or *w*; as, *A* unit, a use, a eulogy, a ewe, many a one.

3. (1.) ‘The.’—This adjective points out a particular individual, or group of individuals, of a certain class; as, *The* apple. This means some particular apple already referred to. Sometimes it gives to a noun or another adjective the force of a class; as, *The* apple is a delicious fruit. *The* wise and *the* good.

(2.) **How applied.**—‘The’ applies to either number, but ‘a’ to the singular only, except when it gives a *collective meaning* to an adjective and a plural noun; as, *few* days; *a* great many.

QUESTIONS ON THE ARTICLES.

What is an Adjective? Whence does it derive its name? Illustrate, by an example, what is meant by ‘qualifying.’ How many classes of adjectives are there? How do those of the first class mark out a thing? What is the nature of those of the second class? Of what kind are those of the third class? Name a few adjectives belonging to the first class. Name a few that belong to the second class. What name is given to those which denote number? How are these divided? What do Cardinal Numerals tell us? What do Ordinal Numerals denote? Name a few of the ‘indefinite numerals.’ Why are they called ‘indefinite?’ Why are they called ‘distributives?’ Name the ‘distributives.’ How would you parse the word ‘gold’ in the

compound word 'a gold-ring'? Why do you thus parse it? By what name are the adjectives 'an' and 'the' sometimes known? What does 'article' mean? Of what use is the adjective 'an'? When is the form 'an' used? When the form 'a'? What force has the adjective 'the'? What two ideas may be expressed by the words 'he cow'? How do these adjectives differ in their application to nouns, with respect to number?

EXERCISE ON THE ADJECTIVE.

1. In the following exercises assign each Adjective to its proper class:—

A terrible war had been waged for many years. The British soil-fields, it is said, will be exhausted in three generations. The heavy brigade was drawn up in two lines. Each soldier knew his duty, and every man was prepared to do it. There is much wisdom in the words of the old man, but little grace in his speech. The bloom of that fair face is wasted; the hair is grey with care. The disorderly soldiers were expelled. The general, envious of distinction, dashed into the enemy's ranks.

2. Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate adjectives:—

The captain lost his ——— sons, the ——— in battle, the ——— at sea. There are ——— pears. Too ——— money ruins ——— men. Let the ——— boy repeat ——— nouns. A really ——— man is rare. Cromwell's ——— heart broke under the heavy stroke of ——— affliction. God rewards the ———, and punishes the ———. Caesar fought ——— battles. Where did your ——— father buy that ——— book? Both these ——— boys deserve ——— punishment. John has bought two ——— books. Grammar teaches the ——— use of language.

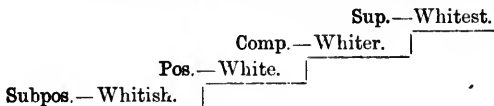
THE INFLECTION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

75. The Adjective in English admits of but one inflection, viz., *Degree*.

1. *Degree*.—This word means a step, and the object of this inflection is to shew increase or diminution in the quality which the adjective expresses.

2. *Illustration*.—If I were to place three pieces of paper by the side of one another, and say of one of the pieces that it was 'white,' I would be using one 'degree of comparison,' that which simply expresses the possession of the quality. If the second piece possessed the same quality of 'whiteness' in a higher degree, I would say that it was 'whiter' than the first piece, and thus use the 'second degree.' But if the third piece was

whiter than either of the other two, it would possess the quality in the highest degree. A fourth piece might possess the same quality, but to an extent or degree even less than the first; it might, therefore, be said to be of a 'whitish' color. This gives us a degree under the positive, which we may call the subpositive. We may then arrange the degrees like steps, thus:—



76. Adjectives which express qualities that admit of degrees, have *three degrees of comparison*; the POSITIVE, the COMPARATIVE, and the SUPERLATIVE.

77. The POSITIVE expresses a quality simply, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, Gold is *heavy*.

78. The COMPARATIVE expresses a quality in a higher degree than the POSITIVE; as, Gold is *heavier* than silver.

79. The SUPERLATIVE expresses a quality in the highest degree; as, The *wisest, greatest, meanest* of mankind.

80. To these we may add the SUBPOSITIVE, which expresses a quality in a slight degree.

MANNER OF INFLECTING.

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

1. When used.—(1.) The Comparative degree is used when two objects, or sets of objects, are compared together,—as to how much of a common quality they have; as, John's horse is *swifter* than Henry's. The quality 'swiftness' is here ascribed to both horses, but to John's in a greater degree than to Henry's. This degree is generally followed by 'than.'

(2.) The Superlative is used when one object, or set of objects, is compared with two or more, indicating that one object possesses the quality in a higher degree than all the others, therefore in the highest degree; as, James is the *wisest* of the three boys. Here the quality of 'wisdom' is ascribed to the three boys, but in the highest degree to only one of them.

2. Adjectives in 'y' after a consonant change 'y' into 'i' before 'er' and 'est;' as, *Dry, drier, driest; happy, happier, happiest;* but 'y' after a vowel is not changed; as, *Gay, gayer, gayest.*

82. Adjectives of more than one syllable, are commonly compared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive; as, *Numerous, more numerous, most numerous.*

1. Comparison Ascending.—By means of these prefixes we express an increase in quality, and the comparison may be called comparison ascending.

2. Comparison Descending.—On the other hand, a diminution of degree is expressed by prefixing 'less' and 'least' to the positive; as, *Sweet, less sweet, least sweet.* This may be termed comparison descending.

QUESTIONS ON THE INFLECTION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

How many Inflections has the Adjective? What is that inflection called? What does Degree mean? Illustrate, by an example, the different degrees of comparison. How do you explain the subpositive degree? What class of adjectives admits of comparison? What are the three degrees of comparison? What does the positive express? the comparative? the superlative? How do adjectives of one syllable form their comparative? their superlative? When is the comparative degree used? Illustrate your answer. When is the superlative used? Illustrate your answer. What is the rule for adjectives ending in 'y'? How are adjectives of more than one syllable compared? What does comparison ascending express? What is meant by comparison descending?

EXERCISE ON THE ADJECTIVE.

1. Compare the following Adjectives:—

Modern, brave, tranquil, merry, lively, solemn, pure, amiable, charming, green, serious, warm, rich, poor, beautiful, cold, white, cross, deaf, glad, funny, great, hard, kind, long, wild, nimble.

2. Make sentences containing the following Adjectives:—

More, fewest, happiest, shorter, sweeter, darkest, broader, hottest, redder, most, ample, abler, wiser, clearer, fitter, temperate, most valuable, less able, least amiable.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

83. Besides the ways given above for the formation of the Comparative and the Superlative, there is an irregular mode of comparison.

LIST OF ADJECTIVES IRREGULARLY COMPARED.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best.
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst.
Little	less (lesser)	least.
Much, many	more	most.
Far	farther	farthest.
Fore	former	foremost or first.
Late	later (latter)	latest or last.
Near	nearer	nearest or next.
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest.
Aft	after	aftermost.
(Forth)	further	furthest.

Application.—The Adjective ‘much’ is applied to things measured; ‘many,’ to things that are numbered; ‘more,’ and ‘most,’ to both. ‘Farther’ and ‘farthest’ relate to distance; ‘further’ and ‘furthest’ to quantity; ‘older’ and ‘oldest’ refer to age, and are applied to both persons and things, while ‘elder’ and ‘eldest,’ denoting priority of birth, are referred to persons.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED.

84. Certain Adjectives do not admit of comparison. These are,—

1. Numerals; as, One, two, third, fourth, &c.
2. Those formed from Proper nouns; as, English, American, Roman.
3. Those that denote figure, shape, material, or position; as, Circular, square, wooden, perpendicular, &c.
4. Distributives; as, Each, every.
5. Those which already possess an absolute or superlative signification; as, True, perfect, universal, chief, complete, &c.

RULE FOR THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective limits or qualifies a noun or its equivalent; as, A *truthful* person is always respected.

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

Adjective,	{ Poss. Comp. Sup.	{ Degree.	Limiting,— Qualifying,— &c.,	{ Inflection.

EXAMPLE.—I love the beautiful flowers of spring.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
<i>The</i> flowers.	<i>The</i> , Adjective, limiting—flowers. Rule — No comparison.
<i>Beautiful</i> flowers.	<i>Beautiful</i> , Adjective, qualifying—flowers. Rule.—Beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS.

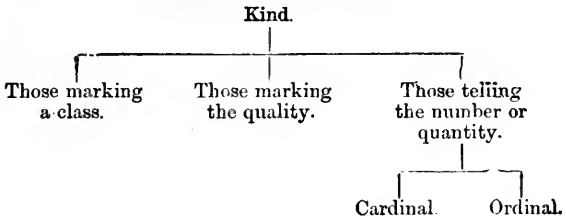
What is meant by an Adjective being compared irregularly? Compare good, bad, &c. How is the adjective 'much' applied? the adjective 'many'? &c. To what do 'older' and 'oldest' refer? How do they differ from 'elder' and 'eldest'? What kind of adjectives are not compared? Give examples. What is the Rule for the adjective? What is the order of parsing an adjective?

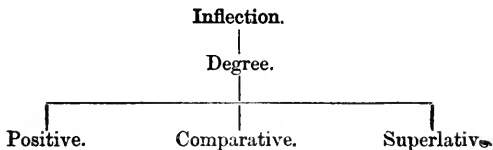
EXERCISE ON THE ADJECTIVE.

Parse, according to plan, the Adjectives in the following sentences:—

It was the most wearisome journey I ever made. I never saw a brighter sky. We stood at the foot of a perpendicular rock. It was a cruel and most unjust sentence. Here comes my worthy uncle. A hardier nature I have never known. Redder yet these hills shall glow. Upon my head they placed a fruitless crown. He is taller than his elder brother, and older than his sister.

TABLE OF ADJECTIVES.





ANALYSIS.

85.—1. It has been shewn (Sec. 64, 7.) how the *simple* subject may be changed into the *complex*, we now add another mode of enlarging the subject,—viz., the use of an ADJECTIVE.

2. A certain part of the Verb called the PARTICIPLE (ending in *ing* or *ed*) having the force of an adjective, also becomes a complement of the subject.

3. A combination of words having the force of an adjective,—*i. e.*, an *adjectival* or a *participial phrase*, may be used to complete the subject.

4. Sometimes the order of a sentence is *inverted*,—*i. e.*, the verb part comes first. This, however, presents no difficulty as regards analysis.

Explanation of Enlargement.—The attributes of the subject are called **enlargements**, because they enlarge our notion or idea of the subject. For example, when I say, **A man**, my notion is very vague, and has very little in it; but when I say, **An old man**, my notion of the man is enlarged by the addition of the notion of his age involved in the adjective 'old'; when I say, **A little old man**, my notion of the man is further enlarged by the notion of his size. In this way many new ideas respecting him might be introduced, and each new idea would give a new enlargement.

EXAMPLES.

1. A *truthful* person is always respected.
2. (a.) His *listening* brethren stood around.
- (b.) The *vanquished* army withdrew.

3. (a.) The boy, *ignorant of skating*, was drowned.

(b.) The general, *having drawn up his forces*, was ready for battle.

4. *Sweet are* the uses of adversity.

SUBJECT.		VERB PART.
Attribute.	Nominative.	
A, truthful	person	is always respected.
The, ignorant of skating,	boy	was drowned.
The, of adversity	uses	are sweet.

Note.—The article is frequently included in the simple subject.

EXERCISE.

Analyze, according to plan, the following sentences:—

The humble boon was soon obtained. The haughty elements alone dispute our sovereignty. The most audacious to climb were instantly precipitated. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. Great is the power of eloquence. From rank to rank your volley'd thunder flew. A terrible war had been waged for many years. The golden light into the painter's room streamed richly. The abandoned limbs, stained with the oozing blood, were laced with veins swollen to purple fulness.

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

What modes of enlarging the subject have been noticed already? Mention another. Give an example. Why may the participle also be used as a complement? What is an Adjectival phrase? What is meant by a sentence being inverted? Give an example.

THE PRONOUN.

86. A PRONOUN is a word which properly supplies the place of a noun; as, *John* is a good boy; *he* is diligent in *his* studies.

Illustration.—In the example given above the same idea could have been expressed by a repetition of the noun ‘John,’ but then the sentence would have been very clumsy and inelegant: thus, ‘John is a good boy; John is diligent in John’s studies.’ Instead of this awkward repetition of the noun, the part of speech which we are now considering gives us a very useful substitute, and to this substitute we give the name **Pronoun**, because it can be used for, or instead of a noun.

INFLECTIONS.

87. These inflections are—

PERSON,	NUMBER,
GENDER,	CASE.

CLASSIFICATION.

88. As there are different kinds of nouns and adjectives, so there are also different kinds of pronouns.

89. Pronouns may be thus classed:—

- I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.
- II. ADJECTIVE do.
- III. RELATIVE do.
- IV. INTERROGATIVE do.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

90. **PERSONAL PRONOUNS** are so called, because they designate the person of the noun which they represent.

91. There are three Persons, (Sec. 33,) and each of these has a Pronoun that can be used in its place.

1. The first person relates to the person *speaking*, and has for its pronoun ‘I,’ plural, ‘We.’

2. The second person relates to the person *spoken to*, and has for its pronoun ‘Thou,’ plural, ‘You.’

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

92. This last pronoun presents more varieties than either of the others; thus, instead of a noun of the masculine gender we use the pronoun 'He;' instead of a noun of the feminine gender we use the pronoun 'She;' and instead of a noun of the neuter gender we use the pronoun 'It.' If the noun is of the plural number, the form of the pronoun is the same, without regard to the gender,—viz., 'They.'

93. The Personal Pronouns are *I, you or thou, he, she, it*; with their plurals, *We, you or ye, they*.

94. They are very irregular in their declension, as shewn in the following table:—

INFLECTION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR.					
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>		
1.	<i>M. or F.</i>	I	mine or my	me	
2.	<i>M. or F.</i>	Thou	thine or thy	thee	
3.	{	<i>Masc.</i>	He	his	him
		<i>Fem.</i>	She	hers or her	her
		<i>Neut.</i>	It	its	it
PLURAL.					
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>		
1.	We	ours or our	us		
2.	Ye or you	yours or your	you		
3.	They	theirs or their	them		

1. **Two forms of Possessive**—It will be noticed that some pronouns have two forms of the possessive case, a long and a short form. The short form is used when the noun is expressed, and its position is before the noun; as, This is *my* book. The long form is used when the noun is omitted; as, This is *mine*. If, however, the noun is expressed, the pronoun will follow it; as, This book is *mine*. 'His' may stand either before or after its noun; as, This is *his* house, or, This house is *his*.

2. 'We'—The plural of the first personal pronoun is also used to signify the speaker alone, when he is in a position of responsibility. Thus we find monarchs, authors, and editors, using it instead of the singular form 'I.'

3. 'You.'—This pronoun was formerly used exclusively in the plural number, but it is now the singular pronoun, as well as the plural; it still, however, takes a plural verb 'Thou' is now used only in the solemn style, such as addresses to the Deity, &c., and sometimes in poetry.

4. The possessive forms, 'hers,' 'its,' 'ours,' 'yours,' 'theirs,' should never be written with an apostrophe, thus, *her's*, &c.

5. Reflexive Pronouns.—We frequently find the words *self* (sing.) and *selves* (plural) attached to the personal pronouns, which are then called Reflexive Pronouns.

6. 'Own'—The shorter possessives are rendered emphatic and reflexive by the addition of 'own'; as, It is *her own*.

7. 'One.'—This pronoun, by means of which reference is made to no particular person, is called the indefinite personal pronoun, and is thus inflected:

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
One	one's	one.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN.

What is a Pronoun? Illustrate its use by an example. What are its inflections? How are pronouns classed? Why are Personal Pronouns so called? What pronoun is used instead of a noun in the first person singular? What pronoun is used, &c.? What different terms are there of the third personal pronoun? Name the personal pronouns, singular. Give their plurals? When is the short form of the Possessive used? When the long? What is peculiar about the position of 'his'? What use is sometimes made of the plural form 'we'? What was the original use of 'you'? How are certain long forms of the possessive wrongly written? How are the Reflexive Pronouns formed? What force has the word 'own'? How is 'one' inflected?

EXERCISE ON THE PRONOUN, &c.

1. Go over the following list of Pronouns, and tell their *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*:—

I, thou, we, us, you, he, she, mine, your, they, them, thine, him, ye, ours, me, his, hers, her, theirs, myself, thyself, it, its, ourselves, themselves.

2. In the following sentences select the Nouns, the Adjectives, and the Pronouns:—

Her father gave her a book. Ye shall not touch it. My brother gave me the book. He liked the pears, because they

were sweet. The men said they would do it with the greatest pleasure. You and I went with them to meet her after she had seen him. A diligent scholar will succeed in his studies. Put it on, will you?

3. Parse the Nouns and the Adjectives according to form.

4. State the Person of each of the Pronouns, and give the reason.

5. Make short sentences containing the following Pronouns:—

We, they, ours, your, him, my, they, me, them, myself, it, her, us, themselves, they, I, hers, their.

6. Substitute *nouns* for *pronouns* in the following fable:—

A wolf, roving about in search of food, passed by a door where a child was crying, and its nurse chiding it. As he stood listening, he heard her tell it to leave off crying or she would throw it to him. So, thinking she would be as good as her word, he hung about the house, in expectation of a capital supper. But as evening came on, and it became quiet, he again heard her say that it was now good, and that if he came for it they would beat him to death. He, hearing this, trotted home as fast as he could.

7. Substitute *pronouns* for *nouns* in the following:—

Long, long ago, a boy set out to see the world. The boy wanted very much to see the world. So the boy left home and walked till the boy met a woman. The woman asked the boy where the boy was going. The boy answered that the boy was going to see the world. The world is large, said the woman, but the woman will go with the boy to see the world. Well, the woman and the boy set out, and the woman and the boy's way led through a dark forest. In the forest there was a gloomy den where a cruel wolf lived. The wolf came rushing out when the wolf heard the footsteps of the woman and the boy, tore the woman and the boy to pieces, and the cubs of the wolf devoured the woman and the boy. So the woman and the boy did not see the world after all.

II. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

95. The second division of pronouns partakes of the nature of the Adjective, and hence its name. We have, in consequence, this

DEFINITION.

96. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are words used, sometimes like adjectives, to qualify a noun, and sometimes like pronouns, to stand instead of nouns.

97. They are divided into three classes:—

DISTRIBUTIVE,
DEMONSTRATIVE,
INDEFINITE.

1. DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

98. The DISTRIBUTIVE Pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are, *each, every, either, neither.*

1. Person and Number.—The distributives are always of the third person singular, even when they relate to the persons speaking, to those spoken of, or to those spoken to; as, Each of *us*—each of *you*—each of *them*—has *his* faults. Here it will be observed that, though the other pronouns are of the plural number and different persons, still ‘each’ takes a verb in the singular, and has for its substitute the third personal pronoun.

2 Reciprocal Pronouns —(1.) There are two pr nouns, ‘each other’ and ‘one another,’ which express an *interchange of actions*, and are, therefore, called RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS; as, See how these Christians love *one another!*

3. Their Force as Adjectives.—By supplying some such word as ‘person,’ the adjectival force of the distributives may be seen.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued.)

What is the second division of Pronouns? Give the definition. How are they divided? What is meant by Distributive Pronouns? Name them. What is peculiar about their person and number? Illustrate by an example. Name the Reciprocal Pronouns.

2. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

99. The second division of Adjective Pronouns has, from the duty which they perform, acquired the name of DEMONSTRATIVE. Hence we have the following

DEFINITION.

100. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are so called, because they specify the objects to which they refer.

101. The pronouns which thus *point out* the objects and stand for their names, are, *this, that*, with their plurals, *these, those*.

1. **Their Use.**—If we are speaking of some object near us, and wish to avoid the repetition of the noun, we use the pronoun ‘*this*’; if the object is **remote** from us, we use ‘*that*.’ So, also, if the reference is to something already mentioned, ‘*this*’ indicates the **last** mentioned; ‘*that*,’ the **first** mentioned; as, Virtue and vice are before you: *this* leads to misery, *that*, to peace.

2. **As Adjectives.**—These words are frequently found in connection with nouns, they then have the force of **adjectives**, and are to be parsed as such.

3. ‘**That**’ not always **Demonstrative.**—This word is not always a **demonstrative pronoun**; it is sometimes a **relative pronoun**, (Secs. 111, 115,) and then its place can be supplied by ‘*who*,’ or ‘*which*,’ and sometimes it is a **conjunction**, and then **introduces a new sentence**. A careful attention to these directions will always enable a pupil to assign this word to its proper class. Thus, in the sentence, ‘Whoever said *that*, was mistaken,’ the word ‘*that*’ is a **demonstrative pronoun**, because it represents, or stands in place of some thing. In the sentence, ‘My brother gave me *that* book,’ it is a **demonstrative adjective**, because it **points out** a particular book. In the sentence, ‘The ship *that* sailed yesterday was lost,’ it is a **relative pronoun**, because we can use ‘*which*’ instead of it. In the sentence, ‘He said *that* he would do it,’ the word is a **conjunction**, because it **introduces a new sentence**.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued.)

What is the second division of Adjective Pronouns? Define this class of pronouns. What is the singular form of them? What the plural? When is the pronoun ‘*this*’ correctly used? When ‘*that*’? What is their force when joined to a noun? How do you know when ‘*that*’ is a demonstrative pronoun? a relative? an adjective? a conjunction?

3. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

102. The third and last division of adjective pronouns is that of Indefinite Pronouns.

103. As they do not stand for any particular person or thing, they have acquired their peculiar name. Hence the following

DEFINITION.

104. The INDEFINITE Pronouns are those which designate objects, but not *particularly*.

105. The pronouns which thus stand instead of no *particular* person or thing are, *none, any, all, such, some, both, other, another.*

'Other' and 'another.'—These two indefinite pronouns can be inflected as nouns.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued)

What is the third division of Adjective Pronouns? Why are they so called? Give the definition. Name the Indefinite Pronouns. Which two are inflected the same as nouns.

EXERCISE ON THE PRONOUN, &c.

1. In the following exercise point out the Pronouns, the Adjectives, and the Nouns:—

My books, their father, that horse, these quills, his brother, her hat A good boy learns his lessons. These apples are good; give some to your brothers. I will give one to each. The works of God are great and numberless. The person that told you that was mistaken. He promised that he would come. Gold and silver are dug out of the earth. This book will do as well as that. Every boy should keep his own books.

2. Analyze the sentences given above, according to plans 1 and 2.

III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

106. The third division of the Pronoun is the Relative, and is used to introduce clauses describing the thing spoken of; as, The master *who* taught us is dead.

107. Besides being a substitute for its antecedent, it also connects its clause with the clause going before it.

108. Hence it may more properly be called a CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN.

109. From this double duty performed by the Relative we have the following

DEFINITION.

110. A RELATIVE PRONOUN, or, more properly, a CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN, is one which, in addition to being a substitute for the name of a person or thing, connects its clause with the antecedent, which it is introduced to describe or modify.

1. Why so called.—It is called the *relative*, because it *relates*,—i. e., carries back our thoughts to some word or fact which goes before and is called the *antecedent*.

2. What the Antecedent may be.—The antecedent may be a noun—a pronoun—an infinitive mood—a clause of a sentence—or any fact or thing implied in it; as, A *king who* is just, makes his people happy.—*He who* reads all, will not be able to think without *which* it is impertinent to read; nor to act, without *which* it is impertinent to think. The man was said to be *independent*, *which* he was not.

111. The Relative Pronouns are,—

<i>M. and F.</i>	<i>M, F., or N.</i>	<i>N.</i>
WHO.	WHICH, THAT.	WHAT.

112. They are thus declined,—

	SINGULAR AND PLURAL.			
<i>Nominative,</i>	Who	Which	That	What.
<i>Possessive,</i>	Whose	Whose		None.
<i>Objective,</i>	Whom	Which	That	What.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued.)

What is the third division of Pronouns? For what are they used? What other duty do they perform besides being substitutes? What other name would be more appropriate? Give the definition. Why is the pronoun called Relative? What is the Antecedent? What may the antecedent be? Name the Relative Pronouns. Inflect them.

APPLICATION OF THE RELATIVES.

113. WHO is applied to persons only; as, The boy *who* reads.

ETYMOLOGY.

114. WHICH is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, The dog *which* barks; the book *which* was lost.

1. 'Which' is applied also to nouns expressing collections of persons, when the reference is to the collection, and not to the persons composing it; as, The *committee* which met this morning decided it.

2. Other uses.—It is also used (1) as an adjective, and (2) as a substitute for a sentence or a part of a sentence: as, (1) For *which* reason he will do it. (2) We are bound to obey all the Divine commands, *which* we can not do without Divine aid.

115. THAT is applied to both persons and things; as, The boy *that* reads; The dog *that* barks; The book *that* was lost.

How known.—As said in Sec. 101. 3, this word belongs to different parts of speech. When it is a **relative pronoun** its place can be supplied by 'who' or 'which.'

116. WHAT is applied to *things* only, and is used in both numbers; as, Take *what* you want.

1. When used.—This relative is never used when the antecedent is expressed. It may, therefore, be treated as an **indefinite**.

2. Other uses.—'What' is sometimes used as an **adjective**; as, It is not material by *what* names we call them. Sometimes it is used as an **adverb**, having the force of 'partly.'

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

117. The Relative Pronouns, WHO, WHICH, and WHAT, with the addition 'ever,' are termed **COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS**.

Used as Adjectives.—*Whatever, whatsoever, whichever, and whicsoever*, are often used before nouns as **indefinite adjectives**; as, *Whatever* course you take, act uprightly.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued.)

How is 'who' applied? How is 'which' applied? Is this its only application? Is it ever used as an adjective? Give an example. How is 'that' applied? When may it be known to be a relative? How is 'what' applied? When is this relative

used: What name may, therefore, be given to it? To what other parts of speech does 'what' belong? Name the compound relatives. Why are they so called? When are they to be treated as adjectives?

IV. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

118. The fourth class of Pronouns is the INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

119. In form they are the same as the Relative Pronoun, with the exception of 'that,' which is never interrogative.

120. As their name implies, they are used to introduce questions; hence we have the following

DEFINITION.

121. WHO, WHICH, and WHAT, when used with verbs in asking questions, are called INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS; as, *Who* is there? *Which* will you take? *What* did he say?

1. How inflected and applied.—'Who' is inflected like the relative, and applies to persons only; 'which' and 'what' apply to persons or things. The last two are also used as interrogative adjectives; as *Which* eye is hurt? *What* boy is that?

2. Indefinite Relatives.—When the pronouns 'who,' 'which,' and 'what,' are used responsively, they are regarded as indefinite; as, I know *who* wrote that letter. We cannot tell *which* is he. I know not *what* I shall do.

RULE FOR THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent—*i. e.*, the noun for which it stands—in person, gender, and number; as, All *that* a man hath *he* will give for *his* life. A tree is known by *its* fruit.

Case of the Pronoun.—As the pronoun is a substitute for the noun, the same rule applies to both.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PRONOUN.

Per. Adj. Rel. Int.	} Pro.	1st	} Per.	Mas.	} Gen.	Sin.	} Num.	Nom.	} Case	
		2nd		Fem.		Plu.		Poss.		} according
		3rd		Neut.				Obj.		

(To agree with its antecedent, according to Rule.)

EXAMPLE.

He is the freeman whom truth makes free.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
<i>He</i> is makes <i>whom</i>	<i>He</i> , 3 Pers. Mas. Sing. Nom. to <i>is</i> . Rule. <i>Whom</i> , Rel. Sing. Mas. agreeing with its antecedent 'he.' Obj. after verb <i>makes</i> . Rules.

QUESTIONS ON THE PRONOUN—(continued.)

What is the fourth class of Pronouns? What is their form? What exception is there? What is their duty? Give the definition. How are these pronouns inflected? How do they differ in their application? Give an example of 'which' used as an Interrogative Adjective. Give an example of 'what' similarly used? What is the Rule for the Pronoun? What is the Rule for its case? What is the order of parsing the Pronoun?

EXERCISE ON THE PRONOUN.

1. In the following sentences assign each Pronoun to its proper class:—

I hope you will give me the book that I lent you. The prince left his own carriage, and entered that of the general. One cannot always be sure of one's friends. It is an ill wind that blows nobody good. What did the prisoner say? Tell me what the prisoner said? The king, who is the head of the state, may withhold his consent from a measure which has passed both Houses of Parliament. Who put that glove in my hat? Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them. Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee turn not thou away.

2. Parse the Pronouns according to the plan given.

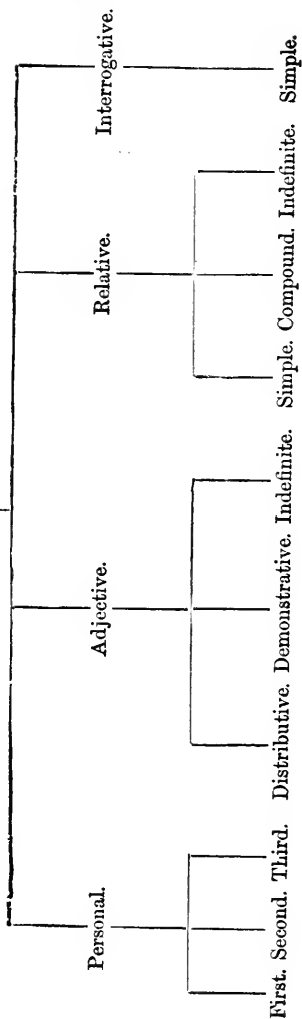
3. Form sentences containing the 'Personal Pronouns' in the different cases.

4. Form sentences containing the 'Relative Pronouns' in the different cases.

5. Do the same with the 'Interrogative Pronouns.'

TABLE OF PRONOUNS.

Kind.



ANALYSIS.

122.—1. The simple subject is sometimes enlarged by a clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun.

2. The Relative is, however, then used in what may be termed a *restrictive* sense.

3. Such a clause is termed a **RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

1. **Restrictive use of the Relative.**—This use of the Relative will be best understood by means of an illustration. If I say, 'He answered the question *which* was asked him,' I *restrict*,—i. e., limit the answer to a **particular and individual** question; but if I say, 'He answered the question, *which* was quite satisfactory,' I introduce an **entirely new statement**,—viz., that the answer was satisfactory. In this last example the relative pronoun may be regarded as having more of a **connective force**.

2. **Relative Clause.**—The pupil will notice that a clause contains a predicate within itself, and thus differs from a phrase.

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. In the following sentences, read the subject; state whether it is 'Simple' or 'Complex,' and why it is so:—

Sounds of music were heard. No opportunity of doing good should be omitted. The long-expected friends have at last arrived. The moon moves round the earth in twenty-nine days. Repeated want of success is apt to discourage a student. The veteran warrior, rushing into the midst of the battle, lost his life.

2. Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate 'Simple Subjects':—

— flows from the heart. — is transparent. — fought bravely. — leads to other sins. — is the mother of invention. — will always be despised.

3. Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate 'Complex Subjects':—

— have instinct. — is called a limited monarchy. — are termed molluscous. — are termed carnivorous. — forms a diphthong. — lies between the tropics. — cannot vie with the beauties of nature.

4. Explain the nature of these 'Complex Subjects.'

5. Analyze all the sentences according to second plan.

THE VERB.

123. A VERB is a word which expresses *existence, condition, or action*; as, *He is*; *he sleeps*; *he runs*.

Illustration.—This part of speech is the most important of the whole eight. Its very name implies this; it is, in fact, the word in a sentence, and without it no statement can be made. That its duty is to make an assertion, may be thus illustrated. In the sentence, 'James *met* John after he had *left* the house,' we have two verbs, each telling us something. The first one 'met' tells, or affirms something about James, the second one 'left' tells something about John.

124. That respecting which the statement is made is called the SUBJECT; as, *James struck the table*.

125. Verbs admit of a two-fold division,—

- I. In respect of meaning.
- II. Do. form.

126. Verbs, in respect of *meaning*, are of two kinds,—

- I. Transitive.
- II. Intransitive.

127. In respect of *form*, they are divided into—

- I. Regular.
- II. Irregular.
- III. Defective.

I. KIND.

128. The Transitive verb makes an assertion respecting its subject, but that statement is not in itself complete.

129. The Intransitive verb, however, does make a complete statement. Hence we have the following

DEFINITIONS.

I. A TRANSITIVE VERB.

130. A **TRANSITIVE Verb** is one which expresses an action that passes from the agent, or doer, to some person or thing which stands as the *object* of the verb; as, James *struck* William.

131. The **OBJECT** may, therefore, be defined as that upon which the action of the verb terminates.

II. AN INTRANSITIVE VERB.

132. An **INTRANSITIVE Verb** is one which makes an assertion, and does not require an object to complete its sense; as, The boy *ran* across the field.

1. **Of both kinds**—The same verbs are sometimes used in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense. Thus, in the sentence, 'James *struck* the boy,' the verb is transitive. In the sentence, 'The workmen *struck*,' the verb is intransitive.

2 **Intransitive Verbs made Transitive**—(1) Sometimes verbs that are naturally transitive take after them an object which has the same or a similar signification. Thus, if I say, 'John *runs*,' I use the intransitive forms of the verb; but if I consider the statement as incomplete, and wish to complete the idea, the only object that I can employ is the kindred noun 'race'; thus I can, with propriety, say, 'John runs a *race*,' and then the verb becomes, in its nature, transitive.

(2) Many intransitive verbs acquire the force of transitive verbs by the addition of a preposition; as, (Intransitive,) I laugh; I wonder.—(Transitive,) I laugh at; I wonder at.

3. **Verbs that are frequently confounded**—There is a certain class of verbs having both an intransitive and a transitive form, which are very frequently confounded. The simple application of the test, whether or not they take an object after them, would, at once, prevent their misapplication. These verbs are—

INTRANSITIVE.

Rise
Lie
Sit
Fall

TRANSITIVE.

Raise
Lay
Set*
Fell

* This verb is sometimes intransitive, as, The sun *sets*.

EXAMPLES.—The sun *rises*. The wind *raises* the dust. He *lies* in bed until eight o'clock. The hen *lays* eggs. Take a chair and *sit* down. He *set* a high price upon it. He *fell* down stairs. The woodman *felled* the tree.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB.

What is a Verb? What does its name imply? What is its duty? Illustrate this by an example. What do you mean by the 'subject'? What is the twofold division of verbs? How many kinds of verbs are there in respect of meaning?—in respect of form? Name them. In what way does the Transitive verb make a statement? Illustrate your answer. What kind of statement is made by an Intransitive verb? Illustrate. Give the definition of a Transitive verb; of an Intransitive verb. What is meant by the 'object'? Shew, by an example, that the same verb may be both transitive and intransitive. How may an intransitive verb be changed into a transitive? Mention another way. Give an example of each. Give the list of verbs that are frequently misapplied.

EXERCISE ON THE VERB.

1. In the following sentences assign the verbs to their proper class, as regards kind.
2. State why they belong to that particular class.
3. Select the 'subject' and the 'object' in each sentence, and give your reason.

Tom cut his finger, and the wound bled freely. The gardeners fell from a tree and lay on the ground for an hour. The coachman struck the horse and it kicked him. The sky became clear, and the moon was bright. The sun rises in the morning and sets in the evening. The moon and stars shine by night. The boy has gone to catch fish in the river. So spake the apostate. Flowers bloom and die. I told him to lay it on the table; instead of doing so he went and lay down himself. I arrived in safety. As the farmer was preparing to fell the tree, it fell upon his head and killed him. The law has power to prevent, to restrain, to repair evil.

[This Exercise may also be used for parsing. Let the pupil parse the Adjectives, Pronouns, and Nouns.]

II. FORM.

133. As stated in Sec. 127, the verb, in respect of form, is divided into three classes,—viz., Regular, Irregular, and Defective.

134. The first two forms depend upon the manner

in which the verbs form their *past tense* and their *past participle*.

135. Hence, for these forms, we have the following

DEFINITIONS.

I. A REGULAR VERB.

136. A REGULAR Verb is one that forms its *past tense* in the indicative active, and its *past participle*, by adding *d* or *ed*, to the present; as, Present, *love*; past, *loved*; past participle, *loved*.

II. AN IRREGULAR VERB.

137. An IRREGULAR Verb is one that does not form its *past tense* in the indicative active, and its *past participle*, by adding *d* or *ed*, to the present; as, Present, *write*; past, *wrote*; past participle, *written*.

Point of Difference.—The great point of difference between these two forms is this: the Regular Verb is changed **from without**, by the addition of a syllable; the Irregular is changed **from within** by some modification of the vowel in the root.

III. A DEFECTIVE VERB.

138. A DEFECTIVE Verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. The following list comprises the most important. They are irregular and chiefly auxiliary:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Can	could	Shall	should
May	might	Will	would
Must	_____		
Ought	_____		

[For explanation of auxiliary, see Sec. 143.]

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

Upon what is the second division of Verbs based? How many classes are there? Name them. What is meant by a Regular Verb? Give an example. What is an Irregular Verb? What is the great point of difference between these two forms? How is the change 'from without' effected? How the change 'from within'? What is meant by a Defective Verb? Are defective verbs 'regular' or 'irregular'? What is their chief duty?

IMPERSONAL AND AUXILIARY VERBS.

139. To the class of Defective Verbs also belong IMPERSONAL and certain AUXILIARY Verbs.

I. IMPERSONAL VERBS.

140. This class of verbs represents an action without naming the subject; as, It rains.

141. They are always in the third person singular, and are preceded by the pronoun *It*.

II. AUXILIARY VERBS.

142. We shall presently see that the verb also undergoes certain inflections, or changes, and that a certain class of verbs *helps* them to form these inflections. This gives rise to that class called *auxiliary*, which may be thus defined:—

143. AUXILIARY (or helping) verbs are those by the help of which other verbs are inflected.

1 4. The verbs that form this class are —

DO, HAVE, BE, SHALL, WILL,
MAY, CAN, MUST, LET.

145. With the exception of '*be*' they are used only in the present and the past tense; thus,—

Present, Do, have, shall, will, may, can.
Past, Did, had, should, would, might, could.

1. 'Must' and 'Let.'—These two auxiliaries are uninflected.
2. Principal Verbs.—Five of these are also used as principal verbs,—viz., *will, have, do, be, and let.*

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

What two kinds of verbs are included among the Defective Verbs? How does the first class represent an action? Of what number are Impersonal Verbs? What Pronoun is always used as their subject? Give an illustration. What is the origin of Auxiliary Verbs? Define them. Name the auxiliaries. In what tenses are they used? Give the past tense of each. Which two are not inflected? Which are used also as principal verbs?

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB.

146. The verb has more inflections than any other part of speech, being changed in form to express

VOICE,	TENSE,
MOOD,	PERSON,
NUMBER.	

147. The greater number of these changes are effected by means of the auxiliary verbs. (Sec. 144.)

I. VOICE.

148. VOICE is a particular form of the verb, which shews the relation of the *subject*, or thing spoken of, to the *action* expressed by the verb.

Illustration.—As already stated, no assertion can be made without the verb, and then the assertion must be made respecting some person or thing, to which we have given the name of *subject*. Now, if I wish to make the assertion respecting John, that '*he strikes James*,' John becomes what may be termed the *agent*, or actor, and James the *object*. Now, because John is represented as striking the blow, when I make the assertion respecting him, I employ that particular form of the verb called *voice*. On the other hand, if I wish to represent *James* as receiving the blow, I can no longer employ the same form as before, but am obliged to use an entirely different form. I, therefore, express myself thus: '*James is struck by John*.' It will thus be seen that the same idea has been expressed by two different voices, and that this peculiar change takes place only in transitive verbs.

149. TRANSITIVE Verbs, therefore, have two voices, called

I. The Active Voice.

II. The Passive Voice.

150. The ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as *acting*; as, *James strikes* the table.

151. The PASSIVE VOICE represents the object as being acted upon by the *agent*; as, *The table is struck* by James.

Note.—In the **Active** voice the subject and the **agent** are the same; in the **Passive** voice, the subject and the original object are the same. The **Active** voice expresses that the subject *does* the action *to* another; the **Passive** shews that the subject *suffers* the action *from* another.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB--(continued.)

How many inflections does the Verb undergo? Name these inflections. How are these changes chiefly produced? What do you understand by Voice? Illustrate your answer. What class of verbs admits of voice? How many voices are there? How does the Active Voice represent the subject? How does the Passive Voice represent the subject?

EXERCISE ON VOICE.

1. In the examples select the verbs in the Active Voice.
2. Do. do. Passive Voice; giving the reason in both instances.

Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love covereth all sins. What cannot be prevented must be endured. When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure. He lived, he breathed. They rushed in, but were soon driven back. He was struck by lightning. The lightning struck the barn. The sun shone with intolerable splendor. The naughty boys were punished. The master punished the boys.

[This Exercise may also be used for parsing.]

II. MOOD.

152. This inflection shews the *manner* in which an 'attribute' is asserted of the 'subject.'

Illustration—The meaning of this inflection may be better explained by means of an example. If I say respecting a horse that 'he runs,' I merely *state* that an action (*viz.*, running) is going on; but if I say that 'he can run,' I am now no longer making a positive assertion about him, but am only saying that he possesses the power of running. I have used the same word, but the manner of its use has been different; and it is this difference in manner that gives rise to mood. We shall, therefore, have as many moods as there are manners, or ways of making the assertion.

153. The verb admits of six different moods, each of which bears a distinctive name, shewing the manner in which the assertion is made.

I. THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

154. The first of these is the **INDICATIVE MOOD** which inserts something as a *fact*, or inquires *about* a fact; as, *He is writing. Is he writing?*

Illustration.—If I wish to make a simple statement about any person or thing, or if I wish to ask a question, I employ the **indicative mood**. For example, if I wish to say something about John's state of health, I can indicate—*i. e.*, declare—it in this way: 'John *is* well,' or 'John *is* sick.' If, on the other hand, I want to inquire about his health, I use the **same mood**, but change the position of the verb; thus, *Is* John well? If an auxiliary is used, the nominative stands between it and the verb; as, *Has* he come?

II THE POTENTIAL MOOD.

155. The **POTENTIAL MOOD** expresses not what the subject *does* or *is*, &c., but what it *may*, *can*, *must*, &c. 'do' or 'be'; as, *We may walk. I must go*.

1. **Illustration**—It will be noticed that an assertion is made respecting the subject by means of this mood as well as by the indicative, but in a different manner. If I were to say, 'Boys *love* to play,' I would be using simply the **indicative mood**; but if I say, 'Boys *can* play,' I affirm or state their **ability** to do so. This mood also implies **liberty**, which is expressed by the auxiliary 'may;' as, *You may go*—Necessity and duty are also expressed by this mood, with a change of auxiliary; as, *I must do it. You should obey your parents.* We thus see that this mood expresses **ability, liberty, necessity, or duty**, on the part of the subject.

2. **How known.**—This mood may be known by its signs, which are 'may,' 'can,' 'must,' 'could,' 'would,' and 'should.'

3. **Interrogative.**—This mood can also be made **interrogative** by changing the position of the subject; as, *May I go?* (Sec. 134.)

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

What do you mean by Mood? Illustrate your answer. How many moods are there? Upon what does their number depend? Name the first mood. Define it. Give an example to illustrate

your answer. Shew that this mood may be used to ask a question. What is the position of the Nominative? What is the position when an Auxiliary is used? How does the Potential Mood differ from the Indicative? Illustrate this by an example. Give an example shewing that this mood implies liberty, necessity, duty. By what signs is this mood known? Can this mood be used to ask a question?

EXERCISE ON MOOD.

In the following sentences classify the Moods, giving your reason:—

The doom he dreads yet dwells upon. His stature was lofty. I can not leave him. Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot. This wind might awaken the dead. Plato, thou reasnest well. He struck the lyre. Our fathers bled. The wind blows cold. The camel can endure great heat. Children should obey their parents. He ran as fast as he could. It must be done.

III. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

156. The third mood is the **SUBJUNCTIVE**, which expresses the fact as *conditional, desirable, or contingent*; as, *If it rain, I shall not go.*

1. **Illustration.**—We have already seen that a fact may be spoken of as **actual** or **possible**; but when there is anything like **doubt** or **uncertainty** connected with the assertion we employ this mood. For instance, in the example given in the definition, I do not make a positive assertion, that 'I shall not go'—there is attached to it a **condition**,—'If it rain,'—and this condition is expressed by means of the **subjunctive** mood. The name by which this mood is generally known implies the existence of another verb to which the verb in this particular mood may be **subjoined**.

2. **Its Sign**—This mood is preceded by certain conjunctions, such as 'if,' 'unless,' 'though' and a few others. These form, as it were, a **link** between the two sentences.

IV. THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

157. The **IMPERATIVE MOOD** expresses a *command* or an *entreaty*; as, *Read thou. Bless me, even me also, O my father.*

1. **Illustration.**—A glance at the name of this mood shews us that it is chiefly used in giving an **order** or a **command**. The

verb by no means loses its distinctive character in this mood; the only difference is in the manner in which the assertion is made. No one of the other three moods that have been defined could be used for the same purpose as this mood. If, for instance, I were to ask a pupil to correct a mistake which he may have made in any piece of written work I would use the **Indicative Mood** either assertively or interrogatively. If, on the other hand, from my superior position, I were to order him to do so, I would no longer use the Indicative, but the **Imperative Mood**; thus, 'Make the necessary correction.' We must not suppose that this word implies only command. It is also used to express entreaty and exhortation. Of the first of these no better illustration can be given than the second example under the definition. The Scriptural injunction, 'Children, obey your parents,' may be viewed as either exhortatory or imperative.

2. **The Subject**—As a general rule the subject of this mood is not expressed. The **second personal pronoun** is really the nominative.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

Which is the third Mood? How does it express a fact? When is this mood used? What does its name imply? By what sign is it distinguished from the other moods? What does the Imperative Mood express? What is its chief use? Shew by an example that an assertion is made by this mood. Shew by examples that this mood expresses entreaty.

EXERCISE ON THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND THE IMPERATIVE.

In the following examples select the verbs that belong to the Subjunctive and the Imperative Mood:—

If I were chained I might revile. If the king were not a traitor, the convention must be rebels. Study to store your mind with useful knowledge. Though riches increase, set not your heart upon them. If he come before my return, ask him to stay. I would do the same thing if I were he. Arise and gird thyself, O thou that sleepest. Banish envy and strife lest they utterly destroy your peace.

ANALYSIS.

158.—1. As the verb is the word that makes the affirmation, that part of the sentence which contains the verb is called the **PREDICATE**.

2. The Predicate must always be either a verb, or something equivalent to a verb.

Illustration.—In order that we may have a sentence, there must be a **statement made** about something, and this is done by means of the verb. Let us take, for instance, this sentence, 'Robert runs.' Here we are talking about Robert; the name 'Robert,' therefore, is the **Subject**; what we say about Robert is that he runs; 'runs,' therefore, is the **Predicate**. Take another example, 'He is of unsound mind.' Here the word 'He' is the **subject**, and the assertion, 'is of unsound mind,' is the **Predicate**. The word 'is' is a verb, but the whole expression is equal to a verb.

3. The Predicate asserts of its subject, (1) What it *is*; (2) What it *does*; (3) What *is done to it*; as,

- (1) The boy *is fond of study.*
- (2) The horse *runs swiftly.*
- (3) The house *was burned.*

4. It is either a Grammatical or a Logical Predicate.

5. The GRAMMATICAL PREDICATE is simply the verb; as, John *reads* very nicely.

6. The LOGICAL PREDICATE is the Grammatical Predicate with all its complements; as, John *reads very nicely.*

Complements.—All the words added to the verb, to fill up the assertion, are called the complements.

[The Grammatical Subject and Predicate are printed in italics.]

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
<i>The clock</i>	<i>has just struck two.</i>
<i>Man</i>	<i>wars not with the dead.</i>
<i>Diligent boys</i>	<i>learn quickly.</i>

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

What name is given to the Verb part of a sentence? Why is this name given? Illustrate what is meant by subject and Predicate. What duty is performed by the Predicate? Give an example of each. What two kinds of Predicate are there? Define the Grammatical Predicate, and give an example. What is meant by the Logical Predicate? Give an example.

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. In the following sentences select the Grammatical and the Logical Predicates.

2. State why they are so.

3. Analyze the sentences according to the scheme.

The eye is the organ of sight. Silver is one of the precious metals. Habit becomes second nature. The barometer shews the weight of the atmosphere. Time flies. Labor sweetens rest. The wind moans through the trees. The torrid zone lies between the tropics.

V. THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

159. The INFINITIVE MOOD gives the simple meaning of the verb, without any reference to Person or Number; as, *To read*.

1. Illustration.—In the example given in the definition, the affirmation contained in the word 'to read' is not made respecting any particular person or persons; therefore, this part of the verb being used indefinitely, and with reference simply to the act, has neither person nor number.

2 Its Sign.—The sign 'to' usually precedes a verb in the Infinitive Mood. This prefix is, however, omitted after such auxiliaries as 'may,' 'can,' 'let,' &c., and the verbs 'bid,' 'dare,' (to venture,) 'need,' 'make,' 'see,' 'hear,' 'perceive,' &c.

VI. THE PARTICIPLE.

160. A PARTICIPLE is a word which, as a verb, expresses an action or state, and, as an adjective, qualifies a noun; as, *He came seeing. Having finished our task, we may play.*

161. There are four Participles in each Voice of the Transitive Verb.

162. They may be thus arranged,—

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
1. Present,	Striking,	Being struck.
2. Past,	Struck,	Struck.
3. Perfect,	Having struck,	Having been struck.
4. Future,	About to strike,	About to be struck.

I. PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

163. This Participle in the Active Voice ends always in 'ing,' and denotes an action or state as continuing and progressive; as, James is *building* a house.

164. In the Passive Voice it has always a passive signification.

II. PAST PARTICIPLE.

165. This Participle is formed in some verbs by the addition of 'd' or 'ed' to the present; in others, by adding 'en;' in others, by some internal change. Its form is the same in both voices.

III. PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

166. The PERFECT PARTICIPLE is always compound, (*i. e.*, is not expressed by a *simple* word,) and represents an action or state as completed at the time referred to.

IV. FUTURE PARTICIPLE.

167. This Participle, also, is a compound one, and represents the action as 'about' to take place; as, He is *about to leave* Canada.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

Define the Infinitive Mood. Whence has it its peculiar name? What is its Sign? Is this sign always expressed? After what verbs is it omitted? What is a Participle? How many participles are there in each voice? How do you know the Present Participle active? What does it denote? What is the force of this participle in the Passive Voice? How is the Past Participle generally formed? How do the Perfect and Future Participles differ in form from the others? How is an action represented by the Perfect Participle? How by the Future?

EXERCISE ON THE VERB.

In the following sentences classify the verbs according to Kind, Voice, and Mood:—

Be swift to hear and slow to speak. Seeing the danger, he avoided it. Diogenes, the Greek philosopher, lived in a tub. Industry is needful in every condition of life: the price of all improvement is labor. The house was burned. Boast not of to-morrow. It is pleasant to see the sun. We should always obey the dictates of conscience. The train might have run off the track. He came last night. Shame being lost, all virtue is lost. I heard him relate his story. I saw him do it. Forbid them to enter the house. He may go if he feel inclined. Bring me that book. They accused the boy of theft. The boy was accused of theft. Having mended my pen, I will write.

[This exercise may be used for Parsing.]

ANALYSIS.

168.—1. It has been shewn (Sec. 85, 2. and 3.) that the Participle, and the Participial phrase may be enlargements, or complements of the subject.

2. This arises from the adjectival force of the Participle.

3. The Participle of the Active Voice of a transitive verb, besides qualifying the simple subject, may have an objective case after it; as, The boy, seeing the *storm* coming on, ran home.

SUBJECT.		PREDICATE.
Attribute.	Nominative.	
The, seeing the storm coming on	boy	ran home.

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

Analyze, according to plan given above, the following sentences:—

The afflicted nation mourns. The moping owl does to the

moon complain. A person deserving respect will generally secure it. Boys who do their duty will be loved. A virtuous man loves virtuous men. God's wisdom is seen in His works. He that hearkens to counsel is wise. A desire to learn is praiseworthy. The love of learning is commendable. He, shouting, made the onset. Short pleasure produces long pain. John's pen is spoiled.

[Note.—In analyzing *orally* it would be well for the teacher to make the pupil specify the particular kind of attribute that the subject has; for instance, in the example given, the subject 'boy' has for its attributes the adjective 'the,' and the participial phrase 'seeing the storm coming on.' If a number of attributes precede the simple subject, the pupil must begin with the one that stands nearest to it.]

III. TENSE.

169. TENSE is that modification of the verb which expresses *time*.

170. There are three divisions of time, *Present*, *Past*, and *Future*.

171. In each of these divisions there are two tenses: the one representing the action or state as *perfect*,—*i. e.*, completed at the time referred to;—the other representing it as not completed at that time.

172. Thus we have *six* tenses,—*viz.*, the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

I. PRESENT.

173. The PRESENT tense expresses what is going on at the *present time*; as, I *see* the bright sun.

174. 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, I *have sold* my horse. I *have walked* six miles to-day.

Its Sign.—The sign of this tense is the auxiliary 'have' preceding the 'past participle active.'

II. PAST.

175. The PAST tense expresses what took place in *past time*; as, I *saw* him yesterday.

How Formed.—This tense is formed by changing the vowel of the root verb; as, *Wri e, wrote*, or by adding 'ed' or 'd'; as, *Mend-ed, love-d*. In conversation the 'e' is often dropped, and the 'd' becomes changed into 't' after sharp mutes; as, *Kissed, (kist;)* *dropped, (dropt;)* &c.

176. The PAST-PERFECT, or PLUPERFECT tense, represents an action or event as completed, at or before a certain time past; as, The ship *had sailed* when the mail arrived,—that is, the ship sailed *before* the mail arrived.

Its Sign.—The sign of the past-perfect is the auxiliary 'had,' preceding the 'past participle active.'

III. FUTURE.

177. The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in *future time*,—*i. e.*, in time to *come*; as, I *will see* you to-morrow.

Its Signs.—The signs of the future are the auxiliaries 'shall' and 'will' preceding the 'Infinitive Mood,' with its sign omitted.

178. The FUTURE-PERFECT tense intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future; as, I *shall have got* my lesson by ten o'clock.

Its Signs.—The signs of this tense are 'shall have' and 'will have,' preceding the 'past participle active.'

TENSES IN PASSIVE.

179. The Passive Voice has the same number of tenses as the Active Voice.

180. They are all formed from the corresponding tenses of the auxiliary verb 'to be,' together with the 'past participle passive' of the verb.

TENSES IN DIFFERENT MOODS.

181. The INDICATIVE MOOD has the six tenses, and is, therefore, the most complete mood.

182. The POTENTIAL MOOD has four tenses, the Present and the Present-perfect, the Past and the Past-perfect.

183. The SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD, in its proper form, has only the Present tense. The verb 'to be' has the Present and the Past.

184. The IMPERATIVE MOOD has two tenses, the Present and the Future.

185. The INFINITIVE MOOD has two tenses, the Present and the Perfect; as, To write—To have written.

186. The PARTICIPLE has four tenses, the Present, the Past, the Perfect, and the Future; as, Striking—struck—having struck—about to strike.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

What is the third inflection of a Verb? What does Tense mean? How many divisions of time are there? Name them. How many tenses are there in each of these divisions? How is the action or the state represented by these divisions? Name the six tenses. Define the Present tense. Define the Present-perfect. How is this tense known? What does the Past tense express? How is this tense formed? Define the Past-perfect. What is the sign of this tense? What does the Future tense express? What are its signs? Define the Future-perfect tense? How is this tense known? How many tenses has the Passive Voice? How are they formed? Name the tenses of each of the Moods.

EXERCISE ON TENSE.

1. In the following examples select the different Tenses.

2 State why you thus classify them.

The dog runs. He has caught a mouse. I have told you before, and I tell you now. Have you done any good to-day? The pigeon flies swiftly. Bad company has ruined him. The horse broke his bridle. He had broken three before. After the sun had risen the ice melted. You will see him to-morrow. I had seen him when I met you. He will have started before.

ten o'clock. I have just recited my lesson. How beautifully the snow falls! I had written a letter when he arrived.

ANALYSIS.

187.—1. As the Grammatical Subject of a sentence may be enlarged, or completed, as has been shewn (Sec. 64, 7.; 85, 1.; and 122, 1.), so may the Grammatical Predicate be completed.

2. If that Predicate is an Active Transitive Verb, its completion is a noun or its equivalent in the objective case; as, William the Conqueror governed *England*.

3. If, however, the Predicate is an Intransitive Verb, or a verb in the Passive Voice, the complement is in the Nominative; as, Edward became *king*. He was elected *chairman*.

4. The object may be whatever the subject may be; as, Boys love *play*, (noun.) John hit *him*, (pronoun.)

5. This object may, like the subject, have attributes; as, All good boys love *their* parents.

6. Both the Subject and the Predicate of a sentence may be 'compound.'

7. A COMPOUND SUBJECT consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs one predicate; as, *You and I* are friends.

8. A COMPOUND PREDICATE consists of two or more simple predicates affirmed of one subject; as, *Truth is great and will prevail*.

[The word that joins the Simple Subjects and Predicates, is called a conjunction.]

LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.	
Gram. Subject.	Its Compléments.	Gram. Predicate.	Completion.
William	the Conqueror	governed	England.
Edward		became	king (nom.)

[Note.—The pupil will notice the change made in naming the two parts of the sentence, and their divisions.]

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. In the following sentences insert appropriate objects:—

The moth burned ——. Ellen can sing ——. James will read ——. George shot ——. The cows eat ——. James must study ——. Henry hurt ——. The squirrel eats ——. Boys love ——. The rich should never despise ——. Cain killed ——. Mary praises ——. The elephant has a ——. The dog tore ——. The spider caught ——.

2. In the following, state whether the Complements are Objective or Nominative Complements, and analyze according to scheme:—

Columbus discovered America. Righteousness exalteth a nation. William the Conqueror was the first of the Norman line of kings. Learn to labor and to wait. He preferred walking to riding. Avarice is a mean and cowardly vice. Great men often do wrong. He was appointed physician to the Queen. The last month of the year is called December. The hope of better things cheers us. He seems very happy. The love of money is the root of all evil. James proved himself a very good boy.

3. Tell whether the Subject in each of the following sentences is Simple or Compound:—

Virtue is often neglected. Virtue and vice are often treated alike. Socrates the philosopher was condemned to death. What harm has that great and good man done? Life is short. What goodly virtues bloom on the poisonous branches of ambition? Bonaparte's energy and ambition were remarkable. The longest life of man is short. Furious Frank and fiery Hunbont in their sulphurous canopy.

4. Tell whether the Predicate in each of the following sentences is Simple or Compound:—

John desires to learn. He left his home and went to a foreign land. Honesty is praised and (is) neglected. High on a throne of royal state Satan exalted sat. George learns rapidly. They were commanded to return to their own country. Talent is strength and subtilty of mind. His perseverance is commendable, and should be rewarded. The houses were plundered and burned.

PERSON AND NUMBER.

188.—1. Every tense of the Verb has three Persons and two Numbers.

2. These inflections are due to the Subject.

Illustration.—The change effected in the verb by the difference in Person and Number of the Nominative, may be thus illustrated. In the present tense of the verb 'love' with the first personal pronoun we use the form 'love,' but this form cannot be used with the second or the third personal pronoun singular. With the former we have to adopt the form 'lovest,' and with the latter the form 'loves'; thus, 'I love, thou lovest, he loves,' and the verbs are said to be in the first, second, or third person singular. In the plural the form is the same for all persons.

EXERCISE ON PERSON AND NUMBER.

1. Tell the Person and Number of each verb in the following sentences.

2. Give the reason

He loves truth. She hates deception. I saw your brother last evening. He will return to-morrow. John recited his lesson yesterday. The boys have gone home. George had gone home before I returned. You shall see him to-morrow. James studies diligently. We shall have run. They will have read. All crime shall cease. I read the book which you lent me.

CONJUGATION.

189. The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *voices, moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.*

190. The principal parts of the verb are the *Present Indicative*, the *Past Indicative*, and the *Past Participle*. In parsing, the mentioning of these parts is called *conjugating the verb*. Thus:

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Regular, or Weak,	Love	loved	loved.
Irregular, or Strong,	Write	wrote	written.

INFLECTION OF THE AUXILIARIES MAY, CAN, &c.

191. Of the Auxiliary Verbs, the verb 'to be' is both a principal verb and also an Auxiliary. By prefixing it to the 'past participle passive' of a verb, we form the Passive Voice.

192. Certain other verbs are only auxiliary, and are defective in their Moods and Tenses.

193. As all of these (except 'do') help to form some of the Moods and Tenses of the verb 'to be,' their inflection is now given.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	
1. I might.	1. I could.	None.
2. Thou mightst.	2. Thou couldst.	
3. He might.	3. He could.	
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	
1. We might.	1. We could.	None.
2. You might.	2. You could.	
3. They might.	3. They could.	

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I do.	1. I have.	1. I shall or will.
2. Thou dost.	2. Thou hast.	2. Thou shalt or wilt.
3. He does.	3. He has or hath.	3. He shall or will.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We do.	1. We have.	1. We shall or will.
2. You do.	2. You have.	2. You shall or will.
3. They do.	3. They have.	3. They shall or will.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I did.	1. I had.	1. I should or would.
2. Thou didst.	2. Thou hadst.	2. Thou shouldst or wouldst.
3. He did.	3. He had.	3. He should or would.

<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We did.	1. We had.	1. We should <i>or</i> would.
2. You did.	2. You had.	2. You should <i>or</i> would.
3. They did.	3. They had.	3. They should <i>or</i> would.

DO and HAVE as Principal Verbs.

[These two auxiliaries, like the verb 'to be,' are also principal verbs, and form their tenses in the same way as other principal verbs; thus:]

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
Present,	1. I do. 2. Thou doest. 3. He does. &c., &c.	1. I have. 2. Thou hast. 3. He has.
Present-Perfect,	1. I have done. 2. Thou hast done. 3. He has done. &c., &c.	1. I have had. 2. Thou hast had. 3. He has had.
Past,	1. I did. 2. Thou didst. 3. He did. &c., &c.	1. I had. 2. Thou hadst. 3. He had.
Past-Perfect,	1. I had done. 2. Thou hadst done. 3. He had done. &c., &c.	1. I had had. 2. Thou hadst had. 3. He had had.
Future,	1. I shall do. 2. Thou wilt do. 3. He will do. &c., &c.	1. I shall have. 2. Thou wilt have. 3. He will have.
Future-Perfect,	1. I shall have done. 2. Thou wilt have done. 3. He will have done. &c., &c.	1. I shall have had. 2. Thou wilt have had. 3. He will have had.

INFLECTION OF THE VERBS 'TO BE' AND 'TO LOVE.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Intransitive.	Active Voice	Passive Voice.
	Present Tense.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I am.	1. I love.	1. I am loved.
2. Thou art.	2. Thou lovest.	2. Thou art loved.
3. He is.	3. He loves <i>or</i> loveth.	3. He is loved.

Intransitive.**Active Voice.****Passive Voice.***Plural.**Plural.**Plural.*

1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

1. We love.
2. You love.
3. They love.

1. We are loved.
2. You are loved.
3. They are loved.

Present-Perfect Tense.Sign, *have.**Singular.**Singular.**Singular.*

- | | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been. | 1. I have loved. | 1. I have been loved. |
| 2. Thou hast been. | 2. Thou hast loved. | 2. Thou hast been loved. |
| 3. He has been. | 3. He has loved. | 3. He has been loved. |

*Plural.**Plural.**Plural.*

- | | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. We have been. | 1. We have loved. | 1. We have been loved. |
| 2. You have been. | 2. You have loved. | 2. You have been loved. |
| 3. They have been. | 3. They have loved. | 3. They have been loved. |

Past Tense.*Singular.**Singular.**Singular.*

- | | | |
|---------------|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was. | 1. I loved. | 1. I was loved. |
| 2. Thou wast. | 2. Thou lovedst. | 2. Thou wast loved. |
| 3. He was. | 3. He loved. | 3. He was loved. |

*Plural.**Plural.**Plural.*

- | | | |
|---------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 1. We were. | 1. We loved. | 1. We were loved. |
| 2. You were. | 2. You loved. | 2. You were loved. |
| 3. They were. | 3. They loved. | 3. They were loved. |

Past-Perfect Tense.Sign, *had.**Singular.**Singular.**Singular.*

- | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I had been. | 1. I had loved. | 1. I had been loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst been. | 2. Thou hadst loved. | 2. Thou hadst been loved. |
| 3. He had been. | 3. He had loved. | 3. He had been loved. |

*Plural.**Plural.**Plural.*

- | | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. We had been. | 1. We had loved. | 1. We had been loved. |
| 2. You had been. | 2. You had loved. | 2. You had been loved. |
| 3. They had been. | 3. They had loved. | 3. They had been loved. |

Intransitive.

Active Voice.

Passive Voice.

Future Tense.

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

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

Future-Perfect Tense.

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

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I shall have been.	1. I shall have loved.	1. I shall have been [loved.]
2. Thou wilt have [been.]	2. Thou wilt have [loved.]	2. Thou wilt have [been loved]
3. He will have been.	3. He will have [loved.]	3. He will have been [loved.]
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We shall have [been.]	1. We shall have [loved.]	1. We shall have been loved.
2. You will have [been.]	2. You will have [loved.]	2. You will have been [loved.]
3. They will have [been.]	3. They will have [loved.]	3. They will have [been loved.]

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I may be.	1. I may love.	1. I may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be.	2. Thou mayst love.	2. Thou mayst be [loved.]
3. He may be.	3. He may love.	3. He may be loved.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We may be.	1. We may love.	1. We may be loved.
2. You may be.	2. You may love.	2. You may be loved.
3. They may be.	3. They may love.	3. They may be loved.

THE VERB.

Intransitive.

Active Voice.

Passive Voi

Present-Perfect Tense.

Signs, *may have, can have, or must have.*—Inflect with each.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I may have been.	1. I may have loved.	1. I may have been [loved.
2. Thou mayst have [been.	2. Thou mayst have [loved.	2. Thou mayst have [been loved.
3. He may have been.	3. He may have loved.	3. He may have been [loved.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We may have been.	1. We may have [loved.	1. We may have been [loved.
2. You may have [been.	2. You may have [loved.	2. You may have [been loved.
3. They may have [been.	3. They may have [loved.	3. They may have [been loved.

Past Tense.

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

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Singular :</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I might be.	1. I might love.	1. I might be loved
2. Thou mightst be.	2. Thou mightst love.	2. Thou mightst be [loved.
3. He might be	3. He might love.	3. He might be loved
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. We might be.	1. We might love.	1. We might be } loved.
2. You might be.	2. You might love.	2. You might be } loved.
3. They might be.	3. They might love.	3. They might be } loved.

Fast-Perfect Tense.

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

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Sing- lar.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
1. I might have [been.	1. I might have [loved.	1. I might have been [loved.
2. Thou mightst [have been.	2. Thou mightst [have loved.	2. Thou mightst have [been loved.
3. He might have [been.	3. He might have [loved.	3. He might have [been loved.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. We might have [been.	1. We might have [loved.	1. We might have [been loved.
2. You might have [been.	2. You might have [loved.	2. You might have [been loved.
3. They might have [been.	3. They might have [loved.	3. They might have [been loved.

Intransitive.

Active Voice.

Passive Voice.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.

1. If we be.
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

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.

Singular.

1. If I be loved.
2. If thou be loved.
3. If he be loved.

Plural.

1. If we be loved.
2. If you be loved.
3. If they be loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I were.
2. If thou wert.
3. If he were.

Plural.

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

Singular.

1. If I were loved.
2. If thou wert or
[were loved.]
3. If he were loved.

Plural.

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

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

2. Be, or be thou.
3. Be he, or let him be.

Plural.

2. Be, or be ye.
3. Be they, or let
[them be.]

Singular.

2. Love, or love thou.
3. Let him love.

Plural.

2. Love, or love you.
3. Let them love.

Singular.

2. Be thou loved.
3. Let him be loved.

Plural.

2. Be ye, or you loved.
3. Let them be loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

2. Thou shalt be.
2. Thou shalt love.
2. Thou shalt be loved.

Plural.

2. Ye, or you shall be.
2. Ye, or you shall
[love.]
2. Ye, or you shall be
[loved.]

Singular.

2. Thou shalt love.

Plural.

2. Ye, or you shall
[love.]

Singular.

2. Thou shalt be loved.

Plural.

2. Ye, or you shall be
[loved.]

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be.

To love.

To be loved.

Perfect, To have been.

To have loved.

To have been loved.

Intransitive.	Active Voice.		Passive Voice.
PARTICIPLES.			
Present,	Being.	Loving.	Being loved.
Past,	Been.	Loved.	Loved.
Perfect,	Having been.	Having loved.	Having been loved.
Future,	About to be.	About to love.	About to be loved.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

How many Persons has every tense? How many Numbers? Whence does the verb get these inflections? Illustrate your answer by an example. What is meant by the Conjugation of a verb? What are the principal parts of a verb? Give an example of a verb belonging to the Regular, or Weak Conjugation; to the Irregular, or Strong. Of what use is the verb 'to be,' as an auxiliary? How are the other auxiliaries used?

EXERCISE ON THE VERB

1. In the following exercise, tell the Mood and the Tense of each of the verbs.

2. Select those that belong to the Active, and those that belong to the Passive Voice.

Am. Is. Art. I was We were. They are. You have been. I have been. She had been. He was. We will be. They must be. They should have been. If I be. Thou wert. Though he were. If I had been. Though I were. If we could have been. They might be. He does work. Be. To be. Be ye. To have been. Being Been. Having been. Be thou. He had had. I lost the knife which James gave me. This is the tree which bears the best fruit. James was bitten by a dog. She has studied the lesson which was so hard. She wept and was comforted. Mary is loved and respected. He saw and conquered. Eveline was disappointed. Climb not, lest you fall. Caesar was killed by conspirators. Squirrels eat nuts. Nuts are eaten by squirrels. The mowers have cut the grass. The rat was caught in a trap. The work was admired by many persons. Many persons admired the work.

DIFFERENT FORMS.

194. We obtain the PROGRESSIVE form of a verb by adding its present participle active to the verb 'to be' through all its moods and tenses; as, I am running.

195. The EMPHATIC form is obtained by adding the simple verb to the auxiliaries 'do' and 'did'; as, I *do* run. I *did* run.

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

197. The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative, or 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 nominative is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved?

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

PASSIVE VOICE.

199. The PASSIVE VOICE is inflected by adding the past participle passive to the verb 'to be,' as an auxiliary, through all its moods and tenses. (Sec. 191.)

The same thing expressed by both Voices.—The Passive Voice, in the finite moods properly affirms of the subject the suffering, or the receiving of the act performed by the actor; and in all tenses, except the present, expresses passively precisely the same thing as is expressed by the corresponding tense in the active voice; thus, 'Cæsar *conquered* Gaul,' and 'Gaul *was conquered* by Cæsar,' express the same thing.

QUESTIONS ON THE VERB—(continued.)

How is the Progressive form obtained? How the Emphatic? How is the verb made negative? What is the position of the word 'not' when there are two auxiliaries? How is the verb made interrogative? What is the position of the Nominative when there are two auxiliaries? How are Interrogative Sentences made Negative? How is the Passive Voice inflected? What does the Passive Voice properly affirm of the subject? Illustrate, by example that all its tenses, except the present, express precisely the same thing as the corresponding tenses in the active voice.

EXERCISE ON FORMS AND VOICE.

1. 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. I ran. We taught. He stands.
He stood.

2. Change the following from the Progressive into the Simple Form:—

We are writing. They were singing. We might be walking.
They are coming. Thou art teaching. He has been moving.

3. When it can be done, change the verbs above given into Emphatic Form.

4. Change the examples (No. 2) into the Negative form—thus, We are not writing—into the interrogative form; as, Are we writing?—into the negative interrogative form, as, Are we not writing? or, Are not we writing?

5. In the sentences given above, change the verbs into the Passive Voice, when the change can be made; Thus, the letter is written.

RULES FOR THE VERB.

I. A verb agrees with its subject nominative in person and number; as, I *read*. Thou *readest*. He *reads*, &c.

II. A Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, is followed by an objective case; as, We love *him*. He loves *us*.

III. The Predicate Substantive, after a verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as, It is *he*. She walks a *queen*. I took it to be *him*, &c.

IV. The Infinitive Mood may depend on a verb, an adjective, or a noun; as, Cease *to do evil*. He is anxious *to learn*. He has a desire *to learn*.

ORDER OF PARSING THE VERB.

Tran.	} Kind.	Reg.	} Conj.	Prin. Parts.	Voice	} Inflections.	Concord according to RULE.
Intran.		Irreg.			Mood		
			Tense				
			Person				
			Number				

EXAMPLE.—They have loved.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
<i>Have</i>	<i>Have</i> .—An auxiliary of time, (present-perfect.)
They <i>have</i>	<i>Have loved</i> .—Trans. Reg., Love, loved, loved.
<i>loved</i>	Ind. Pres.-Perf. 3. Plu. agreeing with subject <i>they</i> . Rule.

EXERCISE ON THE VERB, &c.

1. Parse the Verbs in the following exercise.
2. Parse all the other words.

A good man loves God. John can write a letter. William has written two letters. You should honor your parents. I have seen George. You have deceived me. Fishes swim. You will be sick if you eat that fruit. Men should obey their rulers. Avoid vicious company. Idle boys will be despised. Ask no questions. Will your father come? Have you studied your lesson? Can you parse a verb?

IRREGULAR VERBS.

200. The IRREGULAR VERBS, or those of the 'Strong Conjugation' may be conveniently divided into three classes:

- I. Those with one form in the Principal Parts.
- II. Do. two distinct forms do. do.
- III. Do. three distinct forms do. do.

201. Of this kind of verb there are about one hundred and seventy.

202. A selection is given below.

CLASS I.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Burst	burst	burst.
Cut	cut	cut.
Hit	hit	hit.
Let	let	let.
Put	put	put.
Rid	rid	rid.
Set	set	set.
Spread	spread	spread.
Thrust	thrust	thrust.

CLASS II.

Awake	awaked or awoke	awaked.
Beat	beat	beaten.
Bend	bent	bent.
Bind	bound	bound.
Bleed	bled	bled.
Bless	blessed or blest	blessed.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Bring	brought	brought.
Burn	burned <i>or</i> burnt	burnt.
Buy	bought	bought.
Catch	caught	caught.
Come	came	come.
Creep	crept	crept.
Crow	crew	crowed.
Dig	dug	dug.
Feed	fed	fed.
Feel	felt	felt.
Find	found	found.
Flee	fled	fled.
Get	got	got.
Grind	ground	ground.
Hang	hung <i>or</i> hanged	hung <i>or</i> hanged.
Hold	held	held.
Keep	kept	kept.
Lay	laid	laid.
Lead	led	led.
Leave	left	left.
Lose	lost	lost.
Make	made	made.
Meet	met	met.
Pay	paid	paid.
Read	read*	read.
Run	ran	run.
Say	said	said.
Seek	sought	sought.
Sell	sold	sold.
Send	sent	sent.
Shoe	shod	shod.
Shoot	shot	shot.
Sit	sat	sat.
Spend	spent	spent.
Spill	spilt	spilt.
Stand	stood	stood.
Sting	stung	stung.
Strike	struck	struck <i>or</i> stricken.
Swing	swung	swung.
Teach	taught	taught.
Tell	told	told.
Think	thought	thought.
Weep	wept	wept.
Win	won	won.
Wind	wound	wound.
Wring	wrung	wrung.

* These are pronounced as if spelt 'red.'

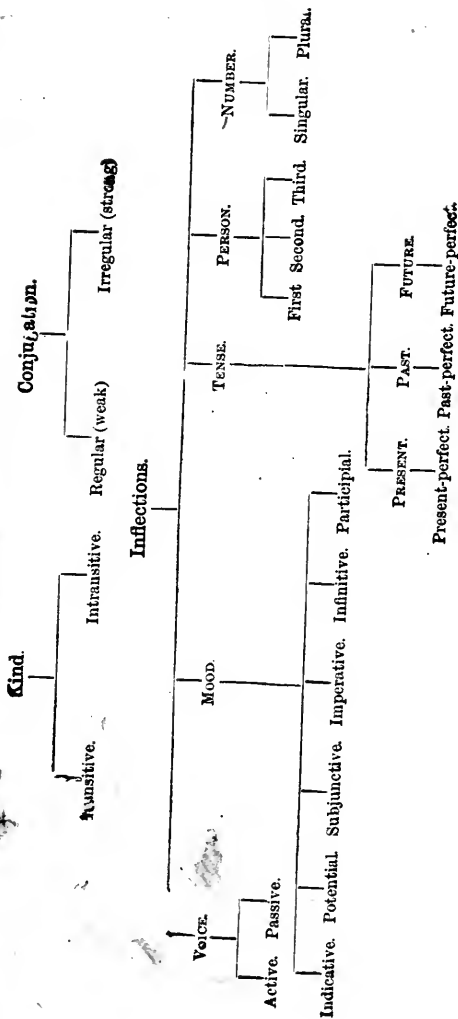
CLASS III.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
Arise	arose	arisen.
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore or bare	borne.
Bear, <i>to bring forth.</i>	bore or bare	born.
Begin	began	begun.
Bite	bit	bitten or bit.
Break	broke	broken.
Choose	chose	chosen.
Dare, <i>to venture.</i>	durst	dared.
Do	did	done.
Draw	drew	drawn.
Drink	drank	drunk.
Drive	drove	driven.
Eat	ate	eaten.
Fall	fell	fallen.
Fly	flew	flown.
Freeze	froze	frozen.
Give	gave	given.
Grow	grew	grown.
Hide	hid	hidden.
Know	knew	known.
Lie	lay	lain.
Mow	mowed	mown.
Ride	rode	ridden.
Ring	rang	rung
See	saw	seen.
Sew	sewed	sewn.
Shake	shook	shaken.
Shew	shewed	shewn.
Sing	sang	sung.
Sink	sank	sunk.
Slay	slew	slain.
Smite	smote	smitten.
Speak	spoke	spoken.
Spring	sprang	sprung.
Steal	stole	stolen.
Strive	strove	striven.
Swim	swam	swum.
Take	took	taken.
Tear	tore	torn.
Throw	threw	thrown.
Tread	trod	trodden.
Wax	waxed	waxen.
Wear	wore	worn.
Write	wrote	written.

How inflected.—Verbs of this conjugation are inflected in a manner similar to that adopted with those belonging to the Regular, or Weak conjugation.

THE VERB.

TABLE OF VERBS.



ANALYSIS.

203.—1. As long as the sentence contains but one predicate, it is called a **SIMPLE SENTENCE**; as, Diligent boys learn quickly.

2. When it contains more than one principal predicate, *i. e.*, when it expresses two or more independent thoughts, it is called a **COMPOUND SENTENCE**; as, Time is short, but eternity is long.

3. The sentences are joined by a conjunction, (Sec. 218.) This connective is sometimes omitted.

4. The sentences may be analyzed separately, each of them being called a Principal, or an Independent Sentence.

EXAMPLES.—Diligent boys learn quickly. (Simple.)

Time is short, but eternity is long. (Compound.)

SENTENCE.	KIND.	LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.
		ATTRIBUTE.	NGMINATIVE.	
Diligent boys learn quickly.	Prin.	Diligent	boys	learn quickly.
Time is short, Eternity is long.	Prin. Prin.		Time Eternity	is short. is long.

[The Connective may, for the present, be omitted from the scheme of analysis.]

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

What is a Simple Sentence? When it contains more than one predicate, what is it called? Define a Compound Sentence. How are the sentences joined? Is this connective always inserted? How are Compound Sentences analyzed?

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. Compose six Simple Sentences.
2. Compose three Compound Sentences with Simple Subject.
3. Compose three Compound Sentences with Compound Subject.

4. Compose four sentences with Compound Subject and Compound Predicate.

5. Select the Simple and the Compound Sentences in the following examples.

6. Analyze according to plan.

The curfew tolls—the knell of parting day. The boding owl screams from the ruined tower. She was not only beautiful, but modest. A part of the exports consists of raw silk. Every sight and every sound amazes him. The sentinel stars set their watch in the sky. The man walked and the boy ran. The grain must be sown, else no crop need be looked for. The man is industrious, therefore he will succeed. Night came slowly on. How did you succeed at your examination? He was poor, but industrious. The boat was upset and they were drowned.

THE ADVERB.

204. An ADVERB is a word used to modify *verbs*, *adjectives*, or other *adverbs*; as, Ann speaks *distinctly*; she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*.

Illustration.—When we say that the adverb modifies, we mean that it effects some change in the word to which it is annexed. Let us illustrate by a familiar example, and then its grammatical application will be plainer. A cup of coffee or tea, for instance, has a peculiar bitter taste; if we add a little sugar the flavor becomes modified, or changed; if we add a little more sugar it becomes more modified. Now, let us apply this to the example given in the definition. If we were simply to say, ‘Ann speaks,’ it would be only stating the fact that she has the power of speaking, but we would know nothing about her manner of speaking. By adding the word ‘distinctly’ we *modify*, or *change* the statement, so that the meaning is no longer the same as if we said, ‘Ann speaks.’ In a similar way the words ‘remarkably’ and ‘very’ effect a change in the words ‘diligent’ and ‘correctly.’

DIVISION OF ADVERBS.

205. Adverbs are divided, according to their use, into those of

Time, Place, Manner, Cause.

206. Adverbs of TIME answer the question 'when?' as, When will you do it? *Immediately.*

207. Adverbs of PLACE answer the question 'where?' as, Where shall I leave it? *Anywhere.*

208. Adverbs of MANNER express *how* an action is done, or a quality possessed, and answer the question 'how?' as, How does she sing? *Very sweetly.*

209. Adverbs of CAUSE express *why* a thing is done.

210. Besides those single words which we call adverbs, we meet with *unions of words* which are called *Adverbial Phrases*, which modify *adjectives* and *verbs*; as, At once, in vain, &c.

211. They can be classified in the same way as adverbs.

INFLECTION OF THE ADVERB.

212. The only inflection that the adverb undergoes, and that in comparatively few cases, is *COMPARISON*; as, I run *fast*; he runs *faster*; she runs *fastest*.

213. Sometimes the inflection is the same as in the adjective, viz., in 'er' and 'est'; as, Often, *oftener*, *oftenest*.

214. Sometimes it is the same as the comparison of the corresponding adjectives; as, *Badly*, worse, worst. Little, less, least, &c.

215. Sometimes it is made by prefixing the adverbs 'more,' 'most,' and 'less,' 'least'; as, *Sweetly*, *more sweetly*, *most sweetly*; *wisely*, *less wisely*, *least wisely*.

QUESTIONS ON THE ADVERB.

What is an Adverb? What does the word 'modify' mean? Illustrate your answer. How are adverbs divided? How many

classes of adverbs are there? How do you know an adverb of time? of place? of manner? of cause? What are Adverbial Phrases? What inflection has the adverb? How is this inflection formed?

EXERCISE ON THE ADVERB.

1. Select the Adverbs and the Adverbial Phrases in the following sentences.

2. Tell why they are adverbs.

3. Tell to which of the four classes they belong, and why.

I shall go away to-morrow. He went down in a diving-bell. Fairy rings are very beautiful. Now the south wind blows softly. He labored in vain. How many sticks will it take to reach the moon? One, if it be long enough. John returned almost directly. I will return by and by. They danced quite merrily through the room. He was grave and gay by turns. They ride extremely well. We can jump much farther than you. He went away immediately after you. I do not like him at all. The ostrich is a remarkably swift runner. My dog is rather lame. The little boy skates well. He ran up and down. The boys behaved awkwardly at the party. The train ran quickly down the incline.

4. Place appropriate Adverbs or Adverbial Phrases in the blank spaces.

The steeple is — three hundred feet high. He walked ——. I am — obliged to you. He is not — ready. It was — ten o'clock when he came —. He stood on the bank and then jumped —, but was — taken —. He persevered for many days, and — — gave — in despair. He was not — — prudent. I waited for an hour and — — — he came. Your father goes often to town, his father goes —, but mine goes —. Your exercise was badly written, John's was —, and Henry's — of all.

RULE FOR THE ADVERB.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or adverbs; as, He speaks *distinctly*; John is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very* correctly.

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADVERB.

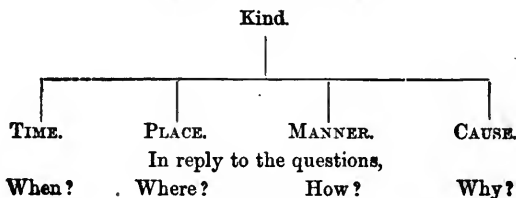
ADVERB of	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Time,} \\ \text{Place,} \\ \text{Manner, \&c.} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Modifying} \\ \text{the} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Verb,} \\ \text{Adjective,} \\ \text{Adverb,} \\ \text{RULE.} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Inflection} \\ \text{when} \\ \text{admissible.} \end{array} \right\}$

EXAMPLES.—He reads very correctly. He came at last.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
Reads <i>correctly</i> .	<i>Correctly</i> .—Manner, modifying <i>reads</i> . Rule. Correctly. more correctly, most correctly.
<i>Very correctly</i> .	<i>Very</i> .—Manner, modifying <i>correctly</i> . Rule.
Came <i>at last</i> .	<i>At last</i> .—Adverbial phrase of time, modifying <i>came</i> . Rule.

Parse, according to this plan, the adverbs in the exercise given above.

TABLE OF ADVERBS.



Inflection.

DEGREE.

Regular.

Irregular.

ANALYSIS.

216.—1. The Grammatical Predicate of a sentence, besides being completed by means of an objective or a nominative case, (Sec. 187, 2. 3.,) may have a further complement in the shape of an adverb or its equivalent.

2. The Predicate is then said to be extended, and the name *Extension* is given to that part of the Logical Predicate.

EXAMPLES.

Diligent boys learn their lessons *quickly*.

The birds sing *sweetly in summer*.

The wind being favorable, the fleet set sail.

LOGICAL SUBJECT.		LOGICAL PREDICATE.		
Grammatical Subject.	Its Complements.	Grammatical Predicate.	Completion.	Extension.
Boys	diligent	learn	their lessons	quickly.
Birds	the	sing		sweetly, in [summer.
Fleet	the	set	sail	the wind being (favorable.

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. In the following sentences select the 'objective' and the 'adverbial' complements.

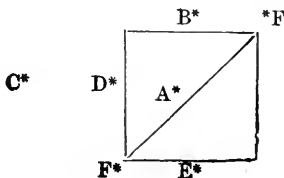
2. Analyze according to plan.

He walked very quickly. Scipio routed the forces of Hannibal. George learns his lessons rapidly. Age increases the desire of living. Pompey was defeated by Cæsar. Labor conquers all things. The sun rose brightly over the eastern hills. He killed a man maliciously with a sword. Spring returning, the swallows re-appear. The bird flew up into the tree. They came to see me to-day. The first two verses were beautifully sung. The church spire stood gleaming white.

THE PREPOSITION.

217. A PREPOSITION is a word which shews the relation between an object and some other word in the same sentence; as, He came *from* Hamilton *to* Toronto *by* rail.

1. Illustration.—The pupil may, perhaps, see more clearly what is meant by relation, by carefully studying the following diagram:—



A is *in*, or *within*, or *inside* the square. *B* is *above*, or *over* the square. *C* is *without*, or *outside*, or *away from* the square. *D* is *beside* the square. *E* is *under*, or *beneath*, or *below* the square. *F F* is *across*, or *athwart* the square. The teacher may illustrate it more thoroughly by using a pencil and a book, by means of which he can shew the different relations, or positions that the pencil may bear to the book; as, *On, away from, &c.*

2. The relation is sometimes between nouns; as, Hatred of vice—sometimes between an adjective and a noun; as, Fond of fishing—sometimes between a verb and a noun, or an adverb and a noun; as, He killed him *with* a sword. He lived consistently *with* his principles.

QUESTIONS ON THE PREPOSITION.

What is a Preposition? How would you illustrate the meaning of 'relation'? Between what different classes of words do prepositions shew the relation?

EXERCISE ON THE PREPOSITION.

Select the Prepositions and tell between what words they shew the relation:—

He went from Toronto to Hamilton. John rode on the horse. Walk in the path of virtue. George is obedient to his parents. The book lies on the table. He was my companion in adversity. Bridges are made across rivers. The dog held the meat in his mouth. He went through the gate. The bird flew into the wicket. He is respected at home.

RULE FOR THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is followed by the Objective Case.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PREPOSITION.

[As the Preposition expresses a 'double relation,' it carries the mind back to some idea already mentioned, and forward to some other idea, which completes the thought; this double relation must be given in order that the parsing may be complete.]

EXAMPLE — He threw it with all his force against the wall.

Relation.	Etymology and Syntax.
Threw <i>with</i> force,	<i>With</i> .—prep. followed by 'force' in obj. Rule.
Threw <i>against</i> wall,	<i>Against</i> .—prep. followed by 'wall' in obj. Rule.

Parse, according to this plan, all the Prepositions in the Exercise given above.

THE CONJUNCTION.

218. A CONJUNCTION is a word which shews the particular manner in which one part of a sentence is joined to another; as, You *and* James may go, *but* John must stay at home.

Illustration.—In the example given, there are in the whole sentence no less than three statements; the first is, 'You may go;' the second, 'James may go.' Now, since their construction is similar, being both of them principal sentences, they are joined by the conjunction 'and'; thus, 'You may go *and* James may go.' Now, joined to these two sentences there is another, also principal in its nature—'but John must stay at home.' This is joined to the other two by the conjunction 'but.' This kind of union gives us one kind of Conjunction. Let us take another sentence—'You will succeed, *if* you work hard.' Here there are two statements, one of which—'You will succeed'—is principal, and the other—'if you work hard'—subordinate. The latter is joined to the former by the conjunction 'if.' The union between subordinate and principal sentences gives rise to the second class of conjunctions.

219. Hence we have two kinds of Conjunctions, CO-ORDINATE and SUBORDINATE.

DEFINITIONS.

I. CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS are those which connect similar constructions; as, God sustains the world, *and* He governs it.

II. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS are those which connect subordinate, or dependent, with principal constructions; as, Boys learn quickly, *when* they are attentive.

[They frequently join one subordinate clause to another that is also subordinate.]

QUESTIONS ON THE CONJUNCTION.

What is a Conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What is a Co-ordinate conjunction? What is a Subordinate conjunction?

EXERCISE ON THE CONJUNCTION.

1. In the following sentences select the Conjunctions, and tell whether they are Co-ordinate or Subordinate.

Virtue is praised and neglected. The moon and stars were shining. You will be despised, and he will be honored. If you would succeed you must labor. He was poor, though he might have been rich. Wisdom is better than riches. Climb not lest you fall. Because he is good he is happy. I come, and you go.

2. Insert Conjunctions in the blank spaces.

He cannot come to-day, — he is sick. I will treat him well, — he has injured me. Religion purifies — refines the feelings. He was dismissed — he would not attend to business. No tree bears fruit in autumn, — it blossoms in the spring. You must be — mad or foolish. My poverty — not my will consents. The sun cannot shine, — it is cloudy. — the servants — the master is to blame. — John and James were there. They had no sooner risen — they began to study. They will succeed — they are industrious.

RULES FOR THE CONJUNCTION.

I. Co-ordinate conjunctions unite similar constructions; as, *He* and *I* intend to go; he gave it to *him* and *me*.

II. Subordinate conjunctions connect dependent with principal constructions; as, *If* I have erred, pardon me.

ORDER OF PARSING THE CONJUNCTION.

[For convenience in parsing, Conjunctions may be considered as joining 'words in construction.']

Co-ordinate	} Kind joining	{ the words, the clauses, the sentences	RULE
Subordinate			

of which the verbs are — & —.

EXAMPLE.—He started for India, *but* stopped at the Cape.

Started <i>but</i> stopped		<i>But</i> , co-ordinate, joining the sentences of which the verbs are <i>started</i> and <i>stopped</i> . Rule.
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Parse, according to this plan, the Conjunctions in the exercise given above.

THE INTERJECTION.

220. An INTERJECTION is a word that expresses feeling, or is a mere mark of address ; as, *Oh!* what a fall was there !

221. Interjections may express—

1. Astonishment ; as, *Lo!*
2. Joy ; as, *Hurrah!*
3. Sorrow ; as, *Alas!*
4. Disgust ; as, *Fie!*
5. Calling ; as, *Halloo!*
6. Praise ; as, *Well done!*

222. The Interjection, having no grammatical relation, is parsed by simply stating the 'part of speech.'

223. Consequently there is no necessity for any Rule.

QUESTIONS ON THE INTERJECTION.

What is an Interjection? What different feelings may be expressed by this part of speech? What relation is expressed by the Interjection?

EXERCISE ON THE INTERJECTION.

Select the Interjections in the following sentences :—

He died, *alas!* in early youth. Welcome, my friend, to this peaceful home! *Bravo!* be not afraid. *Hurrah!* the victory is won. *Pshaw!* I do not care. *Ho!* I am off for the West. He is gone, and, *oh!* how wretched I am.

ANALYSIS.

224.—1. Besides the simple sentence which contains one statement, and the compound sentence which expresses two or more independent thoughts, there is another, called the *complex* sentence.

2. A COMPLEX SENTENCE is made up of one principal sentence, and one or more subordinate sentences ; as, *Some dream that they can silence, when they will, the storm of passion.*

3. The PRINCIPAL sentence contains the main subject and predicate ; as, *Some dream, &c.*

4. The **SUBORDINATE** sentence does not make complete sense by itself, but must be taken in connection with the principal sentence; as, Some dream *that they can silence the storm of passion.*

5. Subordinate sentences are of three kinds,—

- I. THE NOUN SENTENCE.
- II. THE ADJECTIVE SENTENCE.
- III. THE ADVERBIAL SENTENCE.

DEFINITIONS.

225. The **NOUN SENTENCE** is one that occupies the place and follows the construction of a noun.

226. The **ADJECTIVE SENTENCE** is one that occupies the place and follows the construction of an adjective.

227. The **ADVERBIAL SENTENCE** is one that takes the place and follows the construction of an adverb.

EXAMPLES.—Some dream that they can silence, when they will, the storm of passion.

A man who keeps his word is respected.

SENTENCE.	KIND.	LOGICAL SUBJECT		LOGICAL PREDICATE.		
		Gram. Subject.	Its Completments.	Gram. Predicate	Comple-tion.	Exten-sion.
<i>a</i> Some dream.	Prin. to <i>b</i>	Some		dream	Sent. <i>b</i>	
<i>b</i> that they can silence the storm of passion.	Noun to <i>a</i> in Obj.	They		can silence	the storm of passion	Sent.
<i>c</i> when they will	Adv. to ,	They		will		when
<i>a</i> A man is re- spected.	Prin. to <i>b</i>	Man	a Sent <i>b</i>	is respect- [ed]		
<i>b</i> who keeps his word	Adj. to <i>a</i>	who		keeps	his word	

[The teacher may rule another column for the particle connecting the subordinate sentence to the principal. In this (the third!) column the pupil will place any connective that is not adverbial as well as conjunctive in its nature. If its adverbial force be prominent, it must be placed in the extension column]

QUESTIONS ON ANALYSIS.

How may the Grammatical Predicate be otherwise completed? How is this Predicate then spoken of? What name is given to this part of the Predicate? What other kind of sentence is there besides the Simple and the Compound? Define it. How do you know a Principal Sentence? How do you know a Subordinate? Name the different kinds of Subordinate Sentence. What is a Noun Sentence? an Adjective Sentence? an Adverbial Sentence?

EXERCISE ON ANALYSIS.

1. In the following exercise select the Principal and the Subordinate Sentences.
2. State why they are so.
3. Tell why the Subordinate Sentences are of the class you name.
4. Analyze according to plan.

It was so cold that I could not stand. I weep the more, because I weep in vain. Little did I dream that I should live to see such a disaster fallen upon her in a nation of gallant men. I thought that ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult. Rain fertilizes those fields which spread their bounty to God's creatures. Many learned men write so badly that they cannot be understood. Lazy people always do as little as they can. A short-hand writer must write as quickly as an orator speaks. It may easily be shewn that the earth is round. Socrates proved that virtue is its own reward. Give truth the same airs which you give falsehood, and the former will soon prevail. He may go home now if he can get permission. They fight for freedom who were never free. His dominions were less extensive, but more united, than the Emperor's. I am afraid that he will never come again.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX treats of the relations which words bear to one another in a sentence, and of the construction of sentences.

RULES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

RULE I.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative; as, *John* reads. *I* run. *They* speak.

1. **The Subject.**—This is either a noun or a substitute for a noun; as, *John is* a good boy; *he* is very industrious.

2. **A Finite Verb.**—By this is meant any part of a verb, except the infinitive mood and the participles.

3. **Use of Pronoun Improper.**—It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun in the same sentence as nominative to the same verb; thus, *The King he* is just, should be—*The King* is just.

4. **Verb Understood.**—The nominative, especially in the answer to a question, and after *than* or *as*, has the verb understood; as, *Who said so?*—*He* [said so]; *James is taller than I* [am]; but not so tall as *you* [are].

RULE II.—A Predicate Noun, denoting the same person or thing as its subject, agrees with it in case; as, *I am a messenger.*

1. **When Found.**—The 'predicate nominative' is found after intransitive verbs, and verbs in the passive voice; as, *Who art thou?* *He was made king.*

2. **With Infinitive.**—The infinitive may have a predicate nominative; as, *He wishes to be an officer.*

3. **Agreement.**—When we say that one word agrees with another, we mean that the one corresponds to the other in gender, number, case, or person.

RULE III.—An Appositive agrees with its subject in case; as, The cities *Toronto* and *London* are in Ontario.

Explanation of Term.—A noun or pronoun, annexed to another noun or pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis, is called an Appositive.

RULE IV.—A Noun whose case depends on no other word is put in the Nominative Absolute; as, The *rain* having ceased, the day was delightful.

1. Most Frequent Use.—The noun is generally found with a participle, as in the example given in the Rule, but sometimes *being* and *having been* are omitted; as, Her wheel [*being*] at rest. This said, that is, This *having been* said.

Now, *man* to man and *steel* to steel,
A chieftain's vengeance thou shalt feel.—*Scott*.

2. Exclamations.—Exclamations may be considered as 'nominatives absolute;' as, O the *times!* O the *manners!*

A *horse!* my *kingdom* for a horse!—*Shak*.

RULE V.—A Noun, which is the name of the person or thing addressed, is put in the Nominative of address; as, *Plato*, thou reasonest well.

THE POSSESSIVE.

RULE VI.—Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Possessive; as, I lost my *brother's* book.

I The Governing Word sometimes Omitted.—The noun governing the possessive is often understood; as, This book is *John's* [book]. *St. Paul's*. This takes place when the sense is clear without it. It is always omitted after the possessive case (long form) of the personal pronouns; as, This book is *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, &c.

2. Use of Sign.—(1) When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, 'Jane and Lucy's books,'—that is, Books the common property of Jane and Lucy.

(2) In separate possession, both have the apostrophe.

3. **Position of 's.**—(1) When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, I called at Smith's the bookseller, or, at Smith the bookseller's. But if, to such a phrase, the substantive which it limits is added, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, I called at Smith the bookseller's shop.

(2) In compound terms the last only has the mark; as, The Queen of England's crown.

THE OBJECTIVE.

RULE VII.—The Objective case follows an active transitive verb or a preposition; as, He struck the *table* with his *hand*.

1. **Meaning of 'follows.'**—This word refers rather to the order of the sense and construction, than to the placing of the words. Sometimes the position of the objective is before the verb or preposition; as, *Him*, the Almighty hurled headlong. The green hills *among*.

2. **How Known.**—As nouns shew no difference in inflection for the nominative and the objective, this case is marked by position and meaning.

3. **Intransitive Verbs.**—This kind of verb is not followed by an objective case, except

(1) When the noun agrees in meaning with the verb; as, He *lived* a wretched *life*, and *died* a miserable *death*.

(2) When used in a causative sense; as, *Walk* the *horse* to the pond.

4. **Omitted Objective.**—Sometimes the objective of the relative pronoun is omitted; as, The person (whom) I wanted to see, has left.

5. **Objective of Time, &c.**—(1) Nouns denoting TIME, VALUE, WEIGHT, or MEASURE, are commonly put in the objective case, without a governing word,—after intransitive verbs, and adjectives; as, He was absent six *months* last *year*. Cowards die many *times* before their death. A child two *years* old. It cost a *shilling*. It is not worth a *cent*. It weighs a *pound*. The wall is six *feet* high, and two *feet* thick.

(2) This may be called the objective of time, value, weight, &c., as the case may be.

6. **After Adjectives.**—The objective is found after the adjectives near, next, nigh, like, worth.

THE ADJECTIVE.

RULE VIII.—An Adjective limits or qualifies a noun, or its equivalent; as, *A truthful person is always respected.*

1. **Adjectives Used as Nouns.**—(1) ‘Qualifying’ adjectives preceded by the ‘limiting’ adjective ‘the’ have the force of abstract nouns, if the idea expressed is singular; as, *Longinus on the sublime.* The perception of *the ridiculous* does not necessarily imply bitterness.—*Hare.*

(2) If the idea conveyed is plural, the adjective then has the force of a common, or concrete noun; as,

The rich and the poor meet together.

In the last example the word ‘persons’ may be supplied, but in the other examples we can supply no word.

2. **Adjective in Predicate.**—Sometimes an adjective is found forming part of the predicate; as, *The rose smells sweet.* It would be incorrect to say *the rose smells sweetly*,—*i. e.*, in a sweet manner, because that would represent the rose as performing the operation of smelling in a particular manner. Again, ‘*She looks cold,*’ and ‘*She looks coldly on him,*’ convey very different ideas; so also do ‘*He feels warm,*’ and ‘*He feels warmly the insult offered him.*’

3. **Incorrect Use of Adjectives.**—This predicate use of the adjective, however, does not justify the use of an ‘adjective’ as the modifier of another ‘adjective.’

4. **Double Comparatives and Superlatives.**—These are sometimes met with in old writers; for instance, ‘*This was the most unkindest cut of all.*’—*Shak.* Their use is to be avoided.

5. ‘**This**’ and ‘**That**.’—As these adjectives are singular in their application, they must never precede plural nouns; therefore, such expressions as ‘*these kind*’ or ‘*those sort,*’ are incorrect—they should be ‘*this kind*’ or ‘*that sort.*’

6. **Other Parts of Speech as Adjectives.**—Participles and even nouns are used with the force of nouns; as, *He wears the waving crest.* *He wears a gold ring.*

7. When participles are used as adjectives, they retain the form but not the government of the participle; as, *The man that is most sparing of his words is often the most deserving of attention.*

THE PRONOUN.

RULE IX.—A Pronoun must agree with the noun for which it stands (its ‘antecedent’) in person, gender, and number; as, A tree is known by *its* fruit.

1. **The Pronoun for Collective Nouns.**—A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, 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. A civilized people has no right to violate *its* solemn obligations. The *court* were divided in *their* opinion.

2. **Gender of Pronoun in Certain Cases.**—(1) When singular nouns of different genders are taken separately, they are represented by a repetition of the pronouns of the corresponding genders; thus, If any *man* or *woman* shall violate *his* or *her* pledge, *he* or *she* shall pay a fine.

(2) Pronouns referring to singular nouns or other words, of the common gender, taken in a general sense, are commonly masculine; as, A parent should love *his* child. Every person has *his* faults. No one should commend *himself*. The want of a singular pronoun of the third person and common gender, is felt in such constructions as these.

3. **Pronouns to be Used in Personification.**—Pronouns representing nouns personified, take the gender of the noun as the name of a person; as, ‘*Night*, sable goddess, from *her* ebon throne.’ The *lion* said to the *ass*, *who* had been hunting with *him*. But pronouns representing nouns taken metaphorically, agree with them in their literal sense; as, Pitt was the *pillar* which in *its* strength upheld the state.

4. **‘You’ and ‘We.’**—(1) The former pronoun, the nominative form of which is also ‘ye,’ is used with reference to either a singular or plural noun, and is always followed by a plural verb; the use of a singular verb is incorrect. (2) In the same way ‘We’ is used by monarchs, reviewers, and authors, instead of ‘I,’ and is always followed by a plural verb.

5. **The Distributive Pronouns.**—These pronouns take after them a verb in the singular, and a pronoun in the third person singular; as, Each of us *has his* own work to do.

6. **‘This’ and ‘That.’**—In using these two pronouns, we must remember that ‘this’ refers to something near the speaker or to the subject last mentioned; ‘that’ refers to something more remote, or to the subject first mentioned; as, Virtue and vice are contrary to each other; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it.

7. **Pronoun in an Answer.**—In answering a question the pupil should bear in mind that the pronoun or noun contained in the answer must be in the same case as the word asking the question; as, *Who did it?—I. Whom did you see?—James.*

8. **Omission of Relative.**—The relative in the objective case is often omitted; as, Here is the book (*which*) I promised you. The relative in the nominative case is hardly ever omitted except in poetry; as,

In this, 'tis God (*who*) directs; in that, 'tis man.—*Pope.*

9. **Omission of Antecedent.**—The antecedent is sometimes omitted both in prose and in poetry, but especially in the latter; as,

Who lives to nature rarely can be poor,
Who lives to fancy never can be rich

THE VERB.

RULE X.—1. A Verb agrees with its subject nominative in person and number; as, *I read, thou readest, he reads.*

2. Two or more Substantives, singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, *James and John are here.*

3. Collective Nouns take a plural when the idea of plurality is prominent; as, *The College of Cardinals elect the Pope.*

4. When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*, it agrees with them in the singular number; as, *Neither James nor John attends.*

1. **Nouns Connected by 'and' with Singular Verb.**—(1) When substantives connected by 'and' denote *one* person or thing, the verb is singular; as, *Why is dust and ashes proud?*

(2) Singular nouns, preceded by 'each,' 'every,' 'no,' though connected by 'and,' have the verb in the singular; as, *Each book and each paper was arranged*

2. **Adjuncts of the Nominative.**—The adjuncts of the nominative do not control its agreement; as, *The mill, with all its appurtenances, was destroyed. The number of paupers increases.*

3. **Separated Subjects of Different Persons, &c.**—When two or more substantives, taken separately, are of different persons or numbers, the verb agrees with the one next it, and the plural subject is usually placed next the verb; as, James or I *am* in the wrong. Neither the captain nor the sailors *were* saved.

4. **Sequence of Tense.**—(1) When one verb depends upon another, the proper succession of tenses must be attended to; as, He *tells* me that he *will*. He *promised* that he *would* do so. (2) Propositions regarded as universally true are generally put in the present tense, whatever tense precedes them; as, Plato believed that the soul *is* immortal.

The force of this remark may be better illustrated in this way:—

He may speak	if he can,	if he will,	if he be inclined.
„ might „	„ could,	„ would,	„ were „
He can write	if he may,		if he choose.
„ could „	„ might,		„ chose.
He will go	if he may,	if he can,	if he think fit.
„ would „	„ might,	„ could,	„ thought „
	&c.,	&c.	

5. **The Infinitive Mood.**—(1) This mood has no nominative, but has its subject in the objective; as, I saw *him* jump. Here *him* is the subject of the infinitive mood, the object of the verb *saw* being ‘*him* jump.’ (2) This mood is found after verbs, adjectives, and nouns; as, I *told* him to do so. *Anxious* to learn. *A desire* to improve.

6. **Sign Omitted.**—‘*To*,’ the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs ‘*bid*,’ ‘*dare*,’ (intrans.) ‘*need*,’ (used as an auxiliary.) ‘*make*,’ ‘*see*,’ ‘*hear*,’ ‘*feel*,’ ‘*let*,’ in the active voice, and after ‘*let*’ in the passive; as, I saw him do it. You need not go.

7 **Participles.**—(1) The Participles often require other words to complete the sense, and are therefore followed (as verbs) by the ‘objective case;’ and they may stand either before or after their nouns; as, *Leaning* my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.—*Sterne*.

(2) They sometimes refer to some indefinite word which is omitted; as, *Granting* this to be true, what is the inference? Here we may supply the pronoun *we*, which stands in the nominative absolute.

(3) The past tense and the past participle of a verb must not be interchanged; as, I *done*—for ‘I have done,’ or, I have *drank*—for ‘I have drunk.’

RULE XI.—A transitive verb, in the active voice, is followed by the Objective case; as, We love *him*. He loves *us*.

Double Objective —(1) Certain verbs, as 'ask,' 'allow,' 'lend,' 'give,' 'tell,' 'send,' 'pay,' 'cost,' &c., are followed by two objectives; the one standing for the person receiving, the other for the thing given. The former is called the indirect object; the other the direct.

(2) Other verbs, such as 'name,' 'appoint,' 'call,' 'choose,' &c., have also a double object, the nearer object being the direct; the remoter object the indirect.

RULE XII.—The predicate substantive after a verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as, It is *he*. She walks a *queen*. I took it to be *him*.

Caution.—Mistakes frequently occur in translations from not attending to this Rule. Thus the translation, '*Whom* do men say that *I* am?' is incorrect; it should be, '*Who*,' &c. This caution is especially necessary in ordinary conversation; thus we frequently hear such expressions: s, '*Who* do you think *I* saw to-day?'—this should be '*Whom*,' &c.

THE ADVERB.

RULE XIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, John speaks *distinctly*, he is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very* correctly.

1. **Adjectives Used Adverbially**—Though we find that 'adjectives' are used in the Predicate of a sentence with the force of 'adverbs,' it does not follow that they may be used as modifiers of adjectives; thus it is incorrect to say, It is an *excessive* hot day, &c.

2. **Adverbs Used as Adjectives.**—Adverbs are often, though inelegantly, made adjectives, and used to qualify nouns; as, The *then* ministry,—The *above* remarks, &c. Such expressions are to be avoided. This point, therefore, must be remembered, 'Adjectives must not be used as adverbs, nor adverbs as adjectives.'

3. **Negatives.**—Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended; as, I can *not* drink *no* more, should be, I can drink *no* more; or, I cannot drink *any* more.

4. '**Hence**,' '**thence**,' '**whence**.'—As these adverbs imply motion from, the use of the preposition '**from**' with them is inelegant.

THE PREPOSITION.

RULE XIV.—Prepositions are followed by the Objective case; as, He was killed *in* battle.

1. Position of Preposition.—(1) As its name implies, the 'Preposition' is placed before the word, though sometimes it is found after it; as, He spoke *against* the measure.

Thy deep ravines and dells *among*.—*Scott*.

(2) **With Relatives.**—Prepositions never stand before the relative 'that;' and when the relative is omitted they are placed after the verb; as, That is the person I spoke of. Such an arrangement of words is suitable for simple conversational style, but strict attention to grammatical structure would prefer this arrangement: 'This is the person *of whom* I spoke.'

2. Choice of Prepositions.—(1) Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions. The pupil can become acquainted with these only by extensive practice.

A few examples will explain this remark.

Abound <i>in, with.</i>	Differ <i>with,</i> (quarrel.)
Absent <i>from.</i>	Differ <i>from,</i> (disagree.)
Accuse <i>of.</i>	Different <i>from.</i>
Address <i>to.</i>	Exclude <i>from.</i>
Advantage <i>over, of.</i>	Expel <i>from.</i>
Affection <i>for.</i>	Free <i>from.</i>
Agree <i>with</i> a person; <i>to</i> a proposition from another; <i>upon</i> a thing among themselves.	Fruitful <i>in.</i>
Approve <i>of.</i>	Grateful <i>to</i> a person.
Arrive <i>at.</i>	Grateful <i>for</i> favors.
Ask <i>of</i> a person; <i>for</i> a thing; <i>after</i> what we wish to hear of.	Hinder <i>from.</i>
Associate <i>with.</i>	Improve <i>upon.</i>
Assent <i>to.</i>	Interfere <i>with.</i>
Attain <i>to.</i>	Long <i>for.</i>
Banish <i>from, to.</i>	Made <i>of,</i> (material.)
Betray <i>to</i> a person; <i>into</i> a thing.	Made <i>for,</i> (purpose.)
Boast <i>of.</i>	Need <i>of.</i>
Blush <i>at.</i>	Occasion <i>for.</i>
Call <i>on</i> a person; <i>at</i> a place.	Opposite <i>to.</i>
Capacity <i>for.</i>	Persevere <i>in.</i>
Careful <i>of, in.</i>	Prefix <i>to.</i>
Change (exchange) <i>for;</i> (alter) <i>to, into.</i>	Quarrel <i>with.</i>
Compare <i>with,</i> in respect of quality; <i>to,</i> by way of illustration.	Reflect <i>upon or on.</i>
Depend <i>upon.</i>	Restore <i>to.</i>
Deprive <i>of.</i>	Smile <i>at.</i>
	Swerve <i>from.</i>
	Think <i>of.</i>
	True <i>to or of.</i>
	Unite <i>with.</i>
	Wait <i>on, at, or for.</i>
	Worthy <i>of.</i>

(2) The prepositions 'among' and 'between' are frequently misapplied. 'Between' is used when there is reference to 1 or 2 objects or classes of objects; 'among,' when there are more than two; as, He divided it *between* James and John. He divided it *among* James, John, and Henry.

THE CONJUNCTION.

RULE XV.—Co-ordinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions; as, *He and I* intend to go. He gave it *him and me*.

RULE XVI.—Subordinate Conjunctions connect dependent with principal constructions; as, *If I* have erred, pardon me.

1. 'Than,' 'As.'—The case of the noun or pronoun after the conjunction—(1) 'than,' which follows comparatives, and the words 'else,' 'other,' 'otherwise,' and 'rather'; also—(2) after 'as' depends upon its relation to its own clause; as,

(a) I visit the doctor oftener than *he* (visits.)
 Do. do. *him* (I visit him.)

(b) He loves her as much as *I* (love her.)
 Do. do *me* (he loves me.)

2. **Correlative Conjunctions.**—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 ——— *or*; as, *Whether* he *or* I came.

Though ——— *yet*; as, *Though* He slay me, *yet* will I trust in Him.

Not only ——— *but also*; as, *Not only* he *but also* his brother goes.

(2) In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—

The comparative degree requires *than*; as, He is *taller than* I am.

Other requires *than*; as, It is no *other than* he.

Else ——— *than*; as, What *else* do you expect *than* this?

As ——— *as* (expressing equality); as, He is *as tall as I am*.

- As* requires *so* (expressing *equality*); as, *As thy day is, so shall thy strength be.*
- So* ——— *as* (with a negative expressing *inequality*); as, *He is not so learned as his brother.*
- So* ——— *that* (expressing *consequence*); *He is so weak that he cannot walk.*
- Such* ——— *as* (expressing *similarity*); as, *He or such as he.*
- Such* ——— *that* (expressing *consequence*); as, *The change is such that any one may perceive it.*

THE INTERJECTION.

RULE XVII.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence; as,

'Alas! poor 'Yorick.'—Shak.

*Stern then and steel-girt was thy brow,
Dun-Edin! O! how altered now;—Scott.*

1. 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!*

2. In neither of them, however, does the case depend on the interjection. The object is commonly thought to depend upon some word understood; thus, *Ah [pity:] me!—Ah [what will
do:] me!* The nominative form is commonly the 'inde-

DEGREE OF SYNTAX.



