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# ENGLISH GRAMMAR



AND

# HOW TO TEACH IT;

**DESIGNED AS A TEXT-BOOK FOR COMMON SCHOOLS, AND FOR THE PRIMARY, INTERMEDIATE, AND GRAMMAR DEPARTMENTS OF GRADED SCHOOLS.**



BY

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# PREFACE.

THE principal reason for adding another Grammar to the many already in print, is the fact that another is needed. In no branch of Common School study does the labor expended appear to produce so little in the way of results. It has even been discussed in State Teachers' Associations, whether the study of Grammar is productive of any good. And, since the facts pertaining to language are certainly worth knowing, the fair conclusion is, that the facts can be presented in some form better suited to the necessities of teachers and pupils than any which has yet been tried.

This volume presents a method of teaching Grammar which has been carefully tested in the school-room. The book contains a selection of the facts pertaining to language. In teaching for many years, one learns that certain facts are to be retained firmly, certain others to be read, or used as illustrations, and others used as handles by which to grasp and hold other facts. Grammarians attempting to make their school grammars complete treatises upon the study of language, have put so much in them that they have bewildered and disgusted the pupil. A grammar should be judged by what it leaves out as much as by what it contains.

Instead of commencing with letters, syllables, and words, the pupil, in this book, is made to commence with the sentence as the basis of grammatical instruction. In other words, the idea is that the child shall begin to study language just as he receives and learns it, embodied in sentences. It is more important that the child should put words together correctly, and understand them when combined, than that he should be able to name properties and attributes by formal names, or give formal definitions. Any one who has ever attempted to make perfect and concise definitions of grammatical terms, must feel that children ought not to be drilled upon terms which are beyond their comprehension, while the proper use of language is neglected.

So far as possible, throughout the Introductory Grammar, the fact has been presented and recognized before the name is given. Whenever a new fact is presented, the pupil is expected to fix it in memory by repeated writing, and by recognizing it in sentences taken from readers or other books familiar to him. If these exercises are faithfully performed, the ground passed over will be permanently held; otherwise, it will be lost. By repeated writing after correct models, habits of accurate composition are fixed.

It is absurd to say that grammar, as generally taught, is "the art of speaking and writing the language correctly." Long after the habits of speech are indelibly fixed, a few months are generally given to the study of dry details, imperfectly understood, seldom or never

applied, and soon forgotten. Such study makes no more impression on bad habits of speech that dew does on a rock.

In preparing this book, the necessities of teachers have been kept in mind. Many who teach have had limited advantages, and can not teach well because they have never been well taught themselves. Some have no other way of teaching than to follow the text-book, question by question. The book is intended to help those who are willing to be helped, and to present a plan which, even when followed blindly, will do less mischief and secure more good than the commom methods. Were it likely that none but well-qualified teachers would be required to use this book, it would have been shortened. But knowing how many will only "follow the book," the design has been to make a book which County Superintendents, School Directors, or Principals of Graded Schools can safely put into the hands of young, inexperienced, or imperfectly educated teachers, and say, "Follow this book exactly."

A Primary, Intermediate, and Common School Grammar is presented in this volume. It is intended to include all which is preliminary to the High School Course of Graded Schools, and all which could properly be called *Common-School* Grammar in non-graded schools. The Primary Grammar is designed as a teacher's guide in developing language by object-lessons, and is not intended as a text-book for children. The Intermediate develops a plan for teaching language to pupils

who are able to use a simple text-book. The Common School Grammar reviews the Intermediate, and develops the plan already begun, with additional facts and principles. Less space is given to the sounds of letters, because all good Readers and Spellers now in use contain all that the pupil generally needs. The rules of spelling are also referred to the Appendix, not as unimportant, but as coming after the study of Prefixes and Suffixes.

The common terms of school grammars have been retained as far as possible, so that pupils trained in this book may understand the common nomenclature of grammarians. Yet it has been deemed necessary to give some names only to condemn and reject them. New names have never been used simply to give an impression of originality.

Special attention is invited to the following points in the presentation of topics:

The pupil commences with the sentence.

Composition precedes analysis.

The study of language begins with the primary school, or just as soon as the child can put ideas and words together.

Attention is also invited to the following topics:

Gender, Case, Transitive Verbs, Conjugation, use of the Verb *to be*, use of *what*, the distinction of the verbal term ending in *ing* into Gerund, Verbal Adjective, and Participle, the rejection of Auxiliary Verbs, of the Pas-

sive Voice, of Mode as a Property of the Verb, and the absence of formal Rules of Syntax.

The study of Synonyms, and the Derivation of Surnames in the Appendix are also commended to attention.

Many books and authors have been consulted in the preparation of this book. Goold-Brown, Fowler, Bingham, Marsh, Howland, Green, Mulligan, and Richard Grant White have been used; besides a large number of other authors. Dr. Samuel Willard has rendered special and valuable assistance.

Though only a single name appears on the title-page, the idea of the book was suggested by Jerome Allen, A.M., of Monticello, Iowa, who also shared in its preparation through the Intermediate part. His other engagements preventing further co-operation, he is in no way responsible for the third or Common School part.

PRINCETON, ILL., *June*, 1869.

# PRIMARY GRAMMAR.

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## SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

IT is useless to give young children a text-book on grammar, expecting them to profit by its study. They must learn to use language by imitation, and by oral teaching. The young pupil should first receive from the teacher correct and simple forms of speech, and then be trained to such forms alone. It is not necessary that a single technical term be used, nor that the instructions given be called *lessons in grammar*.

The use of language should be taught in every lesson. It should be the daily study of the primary teacher to train every child in correct speaking. It is a common mistake to suppose that a grammar class is the only place where the proper use of words can be taught. A teacher should no more permit a pupil to *speak* incorrectly, than to count, or to spell incorrectly. Of course, the teacher's own speech should be a model for his pupils. The presentation of correct models, however, will not be enough.

Most pupils bring to the school-room bad habits acquired at home. These the teacher must break up. Nothing but patient effort will secure this result. The evil habits of years, strengthened by daily home example, will not yield to one suggestion, nor to ten.

It is related that the mother of the Wesleys, in answer to her husband's impatient remonstrance, "Why *will* you

teach that dull boy the same thing twenty times over?" quietly replied, "Because, Mr. Wesley, nineteen times will not do." The twentieth time fixed the fact forever. Had she stopped at nineteen, she might have lost all her pains. The little child, whose habits are forming, claims more time, more patience, and more thorough teaching than the older pupil, who is better qualified to think for himself.

In teaching language, the instructor should follow closely the order in which the child acquires words, and their uses. *Objects* are first learned, then their names, then their properties and uses. Therefore the *names*, *properties*, and *uses* of common things are the best lessons for primary scholars. Examples of simple object-lessons are here given, to show how the use of language should be taught in connection with other teaching.

# PRIMARY LESSONS IN LANGUAGE.

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## LESSON I.

### NAMES OF THINGS.

LET the teacher, standing at the board, ask the pupils to name all the objects which they see in the school-room. These names, written or printed on the board, or on the slate, furnish the very best of spelling-lessons. The proper form and size of letters, and the neat arrangement of words, must be attended to by the teacher. In collecting and writing these names, the children are profitably employed, their powers of observation are stimulated, and great emulation can be excited by commending those who make the longest lists, and show the best work. Few in our schools will be likely to name all the objects in the room; at least, to name all their parts. To name correctly all the parts of a pocket-knife, of a door, or of a window, is beyond the attainment of most pupils. Names should never be given by the teacher, until the pupils have really *labored* to obtain them for themselves.

To illustrate this exercise, a list is given of the names which may be derived from a common pocket-knife

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| handle, | blade, | edge, | point, |
| back, | notch, | shank, | rivet, |
| spring, | cap, | plate, | iron. |
| steel, | wood, | brass, | |

The names, when obtained, should be often repeated, and made familiar by pointing out the object, while

giving its name. Thus, taking the knife in hand, the pupil should say: "This is a knife." "This is the *point* of the knife;" and so through the list. Do not be satisfied till the pupils can go through all the names for themselves, fluently and correctly.

Always require the names to be written. Look closely to the neatness of every exercise, and to the spelling of every word. Require daily exercises at the blackboard,* and train the class to notice, and to correct mistakes.

Similar lessons, designed principally to develop the perceptive faculties, should be given on the following subjects:

Names of things which grow.
Names of things which we eat.
Names of things made of iron.
Names of things made of wood.
Names of things made of leather.
Names of things made of ivory.
Names of things used in a house.
Names of materials used in making a house.
Names of things found in a store.
Names of birds.
Names of four-footed animals.
First names of all the boys in the school.
First names of all the girls in the school.
Last names of all the scholars in the school.
Names of carpenters' tools.
Names of farming tools and machines.
Names of flowers.
Names of trees.

* If the teacher have no blackboard, and the school authorities *will* not furnish one, common green curtain paper, pasted on the wall, will make an excellent substitute, which will bear the crayon for several weeks.

Name the *parts* of the following things:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| tree, | body, | door, | reaper, |
| room, | house, | window, | ship, |
| chair, | watch, | book, | clock, |
| hand, | bird, | head, | stove, |
| house, | wagon, | year, | table. |

The teacher should add to this list names of things not mentioned above, with which the pupils are familiar.

## LESSON II.

### ACTIONS OF THINGS.

The child's attention is first attracted to living objects. Next to the perception of the thing comes the perception of that which the thing *does*. Taking the names of familiar animals and things, the teacher asks what each *does*. To the question, "What does the dog do?" the children may answer, "The dog *runs*, *barks*, *bites*, *growls*, *jumps*, *plays*, *hunts*, *etc.* All answers should be written in full. Thus: The dog runs. Insist that every sentence should begin with a capital letter and end with a period.

In like manner let the teacher inquire about the

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| bird, | mouse, | squirrel, | horse, |
| cat, | boy, | hen, | sheep. |

Or, of things without life; let the teacher ask, What does the sun do? etc.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| sun, | rain, | fire, | wind, |
| saw, | gun, | pin, | knife. |

Let the pupils be urged and encouraged to give as many actions as possible. Then let them group actions which are related to each other. Thus: The horse

*walks*, *trots*, *paces*, *canters*, *gallops*. Let the pupils tell the difference between these actions.

Naming the common animals, let the pupils tell *what sound* each makes; thus: The horse neighs; the dog howls; the cat mews; etc.

Name the different trades and occupations of men, and tell what each does.

Thus: the farmer *plows;* the merchant *trades;* the blacksmith *hammers;* the carpenter *saws.*

Tell what things

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| run, | eat, | sleep | jump, |
| grow, | work, | play, | swim. |

Such exercises as these may be almost indefinitely extended and varied. There is little danger of spending too much time on this drill. The teacher's skill is exhibited in making the pupils think for themselves. Neither interest nor profit is secured when the pupils are taught to repeat, like parrots, words which they do not comprehend.

## LESSON III.

### PROPERTIES OF THINGS.

Let the teacher show the pupils some familiar object, as an apple, a rose, a crayon, a pencil, asking them to look at it carefully. Then, removing it from sight, ask the class to tell something about it, thus:

The apple is *large*, *round*, *red*, *nice.* The pencil is *long*, *round*, *black*, *hard*, *smooth.*

Take in the same way the following:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| knife, | coin, | slate, | book, |
| rubber | ruler, | glass, | water. |

First write the name of the object at the head of a column, and under the name its properties. Then let sentences be written after the following models:

1.
The apple is large.
The pencil is black.
The rose is pretty.

2.
The teacher had a red apple.
The teacher had a large book.
The teacher had a white crayon.

3.
The long ruler is black.
The clear glass is brittle.
The soft rubber is square.

4.
The red apple is round and ripe.
The black pencil is long and smooth.
The white rose is soft and pretty.

Let *many* sentences be composed and written after these models, until the obvious properties of common things are very familiar, and are thoroughly understood.

Require the names that denote color; as, *red*, *blue*.

Require the names that denote shape; as, *square*, *round*.

Require the names that denote size; as, *little*, *large*.

Let every word be used by the pupil in a sentence. If you ask, "Of what color is the rose?" do not accept *red* as an answer, but require the sentence, The rose is red. If you ask the shape of an apple, do not accept *round* as an answer, but require the sentence, The apple is round. *Insist on this in every school exercise.*

# LESSON IV.

## USES OF THINGS.

Taking some familiar thing, as a pencil, the teacher asks its *uses.* The various answers given, *to mark, to write with, to make letters, etc.*, may be made into sentences after the following models:

1. The pencil is used for writing.
2. The pencil is used to mark with.
3. The pencil is useful for marking.

Inquire the uses of the following things:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ink, | paper, | wood | coal, |
| water, | knife, | cloth, | leather, |
| fire, | light, | book, | spade. |

Let each answer be a complete sentence.

Require the names of things good to eat.
Require the names of things useful to wear.
Require the names of things used in building.
Require the names of things useful in the house.
Require the names of things useful in the school.
Require the names of things useful to the farmer.

Make a sentence with each of these names, thus:

Wheat is good to eat.
Cloth is useful to wear.
Mortar is used in building.

**This exercise can, and should be, much extended.**

An exercise similar to the following should often be required of all the pupils:

### ILLUSTRATIVE EXERCISE.

What is the name of this? It is a gun.

What is it made of? It is made of wood and iron, sometimes, in part, of brass and silver.

Name its parts? Its parts are the stock, lock, barrel, ramrod, hammer, tube, sight, muzzle, breech, butt, etc.

What is its color? It is brown.

What is its surface and shape? It is smooth, long, and slender, and the barrel is hollow.

What is it used for? It is used to shoot game, to fire at a mark, and to kill men with in war.

After such an exercise, the pupil should be required to describe the thing in his own words, without any suggestions from the teacher. A child might thus describe a pencil:

This is called a lead-pencil. It is made of wood and black-lead. Its parts are, the head, the wood, the lead, the tip and the point. Its color is black. Its surface is smooth. Its shape is round, long and slender. It is used for marking on paper.

The above exercise is particularly valuable. The power of telling connectedly what one knows is most desirable.

### ADDITIONAL EXERCISES AND SUGGESTIONS.

After every lesson, require the pupils to give its substance in their own words. Question minutely on every part, and see that every word is understood, and its spelling learned. To vary the exercise, read a simple story to your class, and require them to repeat it in

their own words. Then require it to be written by each pupil, and to be read aloud. This exercise invariably interests, it calls out the power of expression, it imparts self-confidence, disciplines the memory, leads the pupils to notice one another's omissions and mistakes, and gives the teacher opportunity to make efficient corrections.

The habitual vulgarisms of speech must not be tolerated. If an incorrect expression is used, ask the class if it be right, and let them, if possible, correct themselves. If they fail to do it, the teacher must give the correct form. The common errors of speech may be entirely banished from the school by patient effort. Good-humored ridicule is often successful in overcoming such evil habits.

The above are given as hints in regard to the manner of taking up the study of language along with other things. The teacher's success will depend upon her own interest and patience. Frequent reviews are absolutely necessary. The more frequent the review, the more rapid the progress. Such lessons as the above should be given for years before the pupil looks into a text-book on grammar. Correct habits of thinking and composing may be acquired unconsciously, and without formal study. Writing of sentences must be insisted on. Punctuation and use of capitals are best taught to young children by making them observe the sentences found in their books. It is a profitable exercise to require *exact* copies of given sentences, or paragraphs.

The correct meaning of words is also best taught by the plan here given. Such common expressions as *awful* nice, *dreadful* pretty, *monstrous* small, live and thrive, because no one takes pains to teach the child what these large adjectives mean.

Many expedients for enlarging the child's stock of words, and for teaching their correct use, will readily suggest themselves to the teacher who desires to wake up mind, and who dares to drop text-books, and to talk to children of things which interest them, and are understood by them. A leaf, a flower, a bird, may be a better text-book for the child than a speller or reader can possibly be.

The well-conducted study of the uses and meanings of words is never dry, nor distasteful. If pupils find it so, teachers will find that the reason lies in themselves.

# INTERMEDIATE GRAMMAR.

## SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

THE title *Intermediate* is given to this part, because the instruction here indicated should follow a thorough drill upon the plan laid down in the Primary Course, and precede the Common-School Course. Having attained to a tolerable readiness in combining words into sentences, the pupil is now required to separate into parts, name parts, notice relations, and divide words into classes. If pupils have not had the preliminary drill required, the teacher should proceed slowly, giving prominence to the composition of simple sentences, until the pupil forms them with ease and accuracy.

It is impossible to say at what age this course should be commenced. The average pupil of ten years of age can easily learn any thing given here. And, certainly, pupils at that age should give as much time to the acquisition of their own language as to any study of the common school.

This part contains the common forms and simple constructions of the language. The analysis of the simple sentence is given, without any attempt to enlarge upon irregular, anomalous, or intricate constructions. The technical terms of grammar are used as little as possible. The principle of inflection is just mentioned, that the pupil may be led on to notice for himself how and why words are changed in form. Case is not developed,

except by noticing the Possessive. Rules of Syntax are not laid down, because they are not needed by the child. The definitions given are not presented as complete, and beyond criticism, but as such as a child can comprehend and use.

Practical Grammar deals only with the sentence, and the use of a word in a sentence is the only means of classifying it. The common order of topics in grammar reverses the order of nature. The child naturally begins with words in groups, or sentences, then gives attention to single words, and learns the elements of words last. One who knows nothing of the parts of speech, or of the rules of Syntax, may yet use words accurately. There is nothing in a word which infallibly indicates its part of speech. This must be determined by its use in a sentence.

Words and things are so frequently confounded that special pains must be taken to make their distinction plain. Instead of teaching the pupil to say "John is a noun," teach him to say "The *word* John," recognizing that the word is only the sign of the thing. This may seem trivial, but it is important.

Let pupils, on commencing this part of grammar, write every sentence required, understand and spell correctly every word employed, fix every definition and principle, and review frequently. Teachers will observe that this plan requires the pupils to preserve their written work. In no other way can the reviews, which are absolutely necessary, be secured. Each pupil should have a blank book, containing at least a quire of letter paper, and the teacher should take great care that the books be written neatly and kept clean.

Although the book is divided into *lessons*, the teacher must not let this division affect the assigning of class

work. A single paragraph may contain a week's work. The teacher can best judge of the proper rate of progress.

Teachers will do their pupils a lasting service, and much to help them on in their study of language, by inducing them to obtain, and by teaching them to use, the best dictionary within their means. No one can expect to become very accurate in the use of words without daily study of the dictionary.

## LESSON I.

### THE ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

§ **1.** Fire burns.

What is said of *fire?* What does fire *do?* What *burns?* About what are we talking?

*That of which something is said is called a* **Subject.**

We have said something about *fire;* and, therefore, *fire* is a subject.

John reads.

Of whom is something said? What is the subject? What is said of the subject?

*That which is said of the subject is called the* **Predicate.**

*The subject, with that which is said of the subject, is called a* **Sentence.**

§ **2.** We tell others our thoughts by **Words.**

A thought put into words becomes a sentence.

The words which we use are called our *language*. They are *signs* of ideas. If one says to you, "I have a *horse* in my *barn*," the words *horse* and *barn* make you think of some horse and some barn, even if you do not see them, and you make a sort of picture of them in your mind. The words make you think of this picture.

Let the teacher illustrate by talking of something which the pupils have never seen; as, for example, a palm-tree, and having described it carefully, ask them to think exactly how it looks, urging them to form a definite mental picture. Then explain to them that the word *palm-tree* makes them think, not of the real tree, but of their idea or picture of the tree.

The wind blows.

Is this a sentence? Why? What is its subject? What is its predicate?

Write ten short sentences. Name the subject of each. Name the predicates. Tell why each is a sentence.

§ 3. Studies boy good the well.

Do these words make sense? Would you know what the person was thinking about who used words like these? Put the words together so that they will make a sentence. What is the subject of the sentence which you have made?

My runs horse.
Torn your is book.
Scholars lessons their study should.
Colt sorrel the running was.
Praised good are boys.
Finished large is house the.
Squirrel trees little the climbs.

These words are something said about a subject, and are, therefore, a sentence. *That large tree* is that of which something is said, and is, therefore, the subject. *Was blown down* is that which is said of the subject, and, therefore, *was blown down* is the predicate.

Notice that the subject and predicate are often made up of *several words.*

Copy from your Reader ten short sentences. Notice that each sentence begins with a capital letter. Notice also the mark at the end of each sentence. Analyze these sentences.

## LESSON II.

### CLASSES OF WORDS.

§ **6.** Words are divided into different classes, as the pupils in a school are divided into classes. Scholars are classified by their studies. Words are classified by their use. The classes of words are called **Parts of Speech.** There are eight of these classes:

1. **Substantives, or Nouns.**
2. **Verbs.**
3. **Pronouns.**
4. **Adjectives.**
5. **Adverbs.**
6. **Prepositions.**
7. **Conjunctions.**
8. **Exclamations.**

§ **7.** Any word, or group of words, used as the subject of a sentence, is called a **Substantive.**

Names of objects are called **Nouns**, and all nouns are substantives.

Any word, or group of words, may be a *substantive*, thus:

*A* is a letter.

*This book* is the subject of the sentence.

Point out the nouns, or *name-words* in the sentences, which you have written, thus:

*Dog* is the name of something; therefore, the word *dog* is a noun.

Point out ten nouns in your geography. Tell why each is a noun.

Write ten sentences, each containing *two* nouns. Analyze each sentence.

§ **8.** *Words which are used to assert something of a subject are called* **Verbs.**

*Assert* means nearly the same as *say* or *tell.* The predicate of a sentence always contains a verb. Verbs generally express *action.* The Chinese call verbs *live* words, and nouns *dead* words. Until a verb is put into a group of words, they do not assert any thing. *Scholars —lessons*, tells you nothing about scholars, or lessons, but if you put the verb *study* between, you tell something, or *assert* something of *scholars.*

Call attention frequently to the fact that the verb is not always a single word, but often two or more; as, *was trotting*, *have been playing*.

Name the verbs which you have already written, and tell why each is a verb, thus:

*Burns* asserts or tells something about *fire*, and, therefore, *burns* is a verb.

Point out the verbs in your reading-lesson, and tell *why* they are verbs.

Write predicates after the following subjects, telling what each subject *does*; thus:

What does the horse do? The horse *draws a wagon.*

SUBJECTS:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| the cat, | the doctor, | the cooper, | the sun, |
| the rabbit, | the barber, | the blacksmith, | the wind, |
| the squirrel, | the farmer, | the tailor, | the rain. |

Of what part of speech is the *asserting word* in the predicate? Analyze your sentences.

Write ten sentences, with subjects of your own selection.

Dark was the night.
Beautiful was the morning.
Where is the book?

Sometimes, as in the above sentences, the subject comes before the predicate. The sentence is then said to be **inverted.**

If the pupils have any difficulty in finding the subject in an inverted sentence, it may be developed by a question. Thus, in the above sentence, *Dark was the night*, ask *what* was dark, and so in other sentences.

Analyze the following sentences:

How sad was the story!
Great was the joy.
Fiercely raged the battle.

Write sentences with the following nouns as subjects:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| soldiers, | ice, | eagles, | books, |
| spring, | marbles, | mouse, | knowledge. |

Write sentences containing the following predicates:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| are running, | is good, | rolls, | jumps, | plants, |
| is coming, | are useful, | falls, | swings, | flashes. |

Analyze the sentences.

## LESSON III.

### MODIFIERS OR LIMITING WORDS.

§ **9.** *Words which in any way change, explain, or complete the meaning of other words, are said to* **modify** *or* **limit** *the other words.*

Mr. Reed bought a house.

Mr. Reed, *the carpenter*, bought the house.

In the second sentence, the words *Mr. Reed* are modified by the words *the carpenter*, which explain *which* Mr. Reed is meant. *Bought* is modified by the word *house* which *completes* the meaning, telling *what* Mr. Reed bought.

Sometimes a whole sentence is modified.

He has learned his lesson.

He has *not* learned his lesson.

The word *not* changes the meaning of the whole sentence, or *modifies* the sentence.

*Modify* means to vary, or to change; *limit* means to shut up, or to confine. When one says, "*Boys study*," the assertion is made of all boys,

and is said to be *unlimited.* But if one says, "Good boys study," the assertion is made only of *good* boys, and is *limited.*

§ **10.** Nouns are most frequently limited by a class of words called

## ADJECTIVES.

That large white house is for sale.

Analyze. Point out the noun in the subject. *House* is modified by the words *large* and *white*, which limit its meaning by naming something by which the house can be known from other houses. They are said to name its *properties* or *qualities.* *That* limits *house* by pointing out *which one* is meant.

*This* book is mine.

*Yonder* tree is tall.

*This* limits *book* by pointing out which one is meant. *Yonder* limits *tree* in the same way.

Five rebels were captured.

*Five* modifies rebels by limiting our thoughts to an exact number.

A few men assembled.

*Few* does not limit our thoughts to an *exact* number, but to a *small* number.

§ **11.** An **Adjective** is a word which modifies a substantive by naming some quality or property, or by pointing out *which*, or *how many* are meant.

An adjective may be used as a part of a *predicate*, but can never be a subject.

An adjective can generally be known by its making good sense when placed directly before the noun.

§ **12.** The same word may be sometimes of one class, and sometimes of another. The **use** of a word in the sentence is the only fact by which we tell its part of speech.

The *silver* cord is loosed.

The spoon is made of *silver*.

Jewelers *silver* their work.

In the first sentence, *silver* modifies *cord* by naming a property, and is an adjective. In the second, it is a *noun*, naming a metal. In the third, it asserts something, and is a *verb*.

The sailors *man* the boat.

That *man* bought my skates.

He sent his *man*-servant.

Of what part of speech is *man* in each of the above sentences?

In the following sentences, tell to what part of speech the words in *italics* belong.

The *saw* is broken. We *saw* wood.

*Chalk* is useful. We *chalk* the line.

The *fish* swims. Anglers *fish*.

Girls wear *rings*. The sexton *rings* the bell.

Write ten sentences, using some word as a *noun* in one sentence, and as a *verb* in the next.

# LESSON IV.

## NAMES OF QUALITIES OR PROPERTIES.

**§ 13.** Chalk is *soft*, *white*, *brittle*, *useful*.

*Soft*, *white*, *brittle*, and *useful* are words which name properties, or qualities of the chalk. They make sense when they stand directly before the noun, and they can not be used alone as the subject of a sentence. Therefore they are adjectives.

It is convenient to have names of properties which can be used as subjects of sentences. The names *softness*, *whiteness*, *brittleness*, *usefulness*, are used for the same qualities. These words do not make sense when placed directly before the noun, and they can be used as the subjects of sentences, thus:

The *usefulness* of chalk is great.

Usefulness is a *noun*.

A thing is *described* by naming its properties. Either noun names or adjective names may be used. If you know that there is in the desk something *round*, *smooth*, *mellow*, *red*, *sweet*, and *ripe*, you have a *description* of it from these names of qualities.

Name all the qualities of

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| rubber, | ivory, | iron, | wood, | a ball, |
| paper, | glass, | lead, | snow, | a knife. |

Urge pupils to make the naming of qualities complete as possible. A quality may be noticed or suggested for which the pupils have no name. They may observe that wood and paper burn, while iron and lead do not, but they do not know the word *combustible*. Do not give out names hastily. Let the pupils hunt for them. Particularly encourage them to go home with questions

2. Those which point out *which* or *what* objects are meant. These are called **Specifying** Adjectives.

3. Those which denote *how many* are meant. These are called **Numeral** Adjectives.

§ **17.** Sometimes an adjective appears to be the subject of a sentence. When this is the case, the noun which the adjective modifies is omitted, thus:

*Both* were mistaken. This means, both *persons* were mistaken.

The *wise* say. This means, the wise *men* say.

A noun is often used as an adjective; as, *stone* wall; *iron* frame. It may then be called an *adjective*, or a noun used as an adjective.

Analyze the following sentences, and point out the nouns, adjectives and verbs in each. Tell to what *class* each adjective belongs.

The other horse is black.
That silvery cloud is beautiful.
Those large red apples are the best.
These industrious scholars are busy.
The poor old man is lame.
Few rich men are happy.
Several severe battles were fought.
Twenty brave soldiers were killed.
Any attentive pupil will learn.
Every day brings new duties.

Compose and write ten sentences, each containing a *Descriptive* adjective; ten, each containing a *Specify-*

*ing* adjective; and ten, each containing a *Numeral* adjective.

A word which modifies the subject, can not be a part of the predicate, and any word which is in the predicate, is not a modifier of the subject.

## LESSON V.

### ENTENCES CONTAINING MODIFIERS.

**§ 18.** The brave soldiers of the Union fought well in the war.

The principal word in the subject of this sentence is *soldiers*. The principal thing said of them is *fought*. Soldiers is modified by *the*, a specifying adjective, and *brave*, a descriptive adjective, limiting the subject. The words *of the Union* limit the subject still further. It is not said that all soldiers fought well, but only that *the brave soldiers of the Union* fought. *Fought* is modified by *bravely*, telling *how* they fought, and by *in the war*, telling when or where they fought.

My dog ran through the garden.

*Dog* is modified by the word *my*, telling to whom the dog belongs, and *ran* is modified by the words *through the garden*, showing *where* the dog ran.

Words are divided into eight classes.

The subject, *words*, is not limited, for the assertion is made of all words. *Are divided* is modified by the words *into eight classes*, showing *how* words are divided.

The pupil's success in grammar depends largely upon the clearness with which he comprehends the *effect* of modifiers. The

principal ideas in a simple sentence are easily understood; the difficulties are generally with the modifiers, not so much in perceiving *what* they are, as in telling *what they mean*. The above examples show how the *effect* of modifiers should be made plain to a class.

Analyze the following sentences, name the modifiers, and tell how each modifier changes the meaning, or limits the assertion.

Every man went to his house.
The first Napoleon was banished to St. Helena.
Three wise men of Gotham went to sea in a bowl.
These large yellow oranges came from Havana.
The sailor brought home a parrot for his brother.

§ **19.** A subject without modifiers is called a **simple** subject. A subject with limiting words is called a **modified** subject. The simple subject is always a *substantive*.

Predicates, like subjects, are simple or modified. The simple predicate is always a *verb*.

Review the sentences which you have already written, point out the *modifiers*, and tell what the modifiers express.

Write ten sentences with modified subjects and predicates.

Modifiers of nouns are called *adjective* modifiers; modifiers of verbs are called *adverbial* or *verbal* modifiers.

## CLAUSES.

§ **20.** Sometimes a group of words is used as a *modifier*, which, when used by itself, forms a sentence.

1. Who is here?
2. Do you know *who is here?*
3. I do not know *who is here.*
4. Who is honest?
5. The man *who is honest* is respected.

In the above, the words which form the first and fourth sentences are used as modifiers in the other sentences.

§ **21.** A modifier containing a subject and predicate, and which, when used alone, can be a sentence, is called a **Clause.**

Words properly put together, not making a sentence or a clause, are called a **Phrase.**

*In the house*, is a phrase. *My book*, is a phrase. *Thomas and William*, is a phrase. *Down by the mill-pond*, is a phrase.

Point out the modifiers in the following sentences, and tell what they express?

The snow falls steadily.
The rain falls in torrents.
The cars move swiftly.
Boys skate on the ice.
Three children were going to school.

*Analyze each sentence.*

# LESSON VI.

## ADVERBS.

**§ 22.** He speaks *slowly* and *indistinctly.*

Martha writes *neatly* and *rapidly.*

These words in italics belong to a new class. Their common name is **adverbs**, meaning that they are *added* to *verbs.* They never modify substantives. Most of them are formed from adjectives by addingly *ly* to the adjective.

Besides modifying verbs, adverbs often modify *adjectives.* One adverb may modify another adverb, and sometimes, instead of modifying any single word, an adverb modifies a whole sentence.

Most adverbs modifying verbs express *when*, *where*, or *how* something is done.

The work was done *yesterday.* (When).
My brother lives *here.* (Where).
You have learned *well.* (How).

### § 23. ADVERBS MODIFYING ADJECTIVES.

His house is *very* large.
The apple is *too* sour.
Our school-room is *really* beautiful.
The colonel was *over* confident.
This movement was *more* successful.
The weather is *excessively* hot.

### ADVERBS MODIFYING OTHER ADVERBS.

Henry writes *very* well.
The horses ran *too* fast.
You should not read *so* rapidly.
You ought to study *more* diligently.

### ADVERBS MODIFYING WHOLE SENTENCES.

The boy has *not* learned his lesson.
*Certainly* the money was sent.
*Indeed* you are mistaken.
*Verily* I say unto you.
*Perhaps* I shall see him.

## § 24. Examples for analysis.

Point out the verbal modifiers in the following sentences, and tell what each expresses. Point out the phrases used.

The lightning was bright last evening.
The waves dashed upon the shore.
The storm rages fiercely.
He comes every day.
He remained in Europe three years.
The wood was cut with an ax.
The poor man died of hunger.
Mary sings, because she is happy.
The hunter killed two bears.
The teacher likes attentive pupils.

Verbal modifiers express *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*, *how long*, *whom*, *what*, *with what*, *by what*.

Compose twenty sentences, containing verbal modifiers of all these kinds, and give the meaning of each modifier.

## CLAUSES AS MODIFIERS.

§ **25.** The man *whom you saw with me* was my uncle.

The boy *who dares to speak the truth* is respected.

He told me *what he had seen.*

Samuel showed me *how the example was worked.*

Clauses, like other modifiers, may be *adjective* modifiers, or *verbal* modifiers.

*Adjective* clauses usually begin with *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, or *that*, and stand directly after the substantive which they modify.

*Verbal* modifying clauses often begin with some word answering the questions, *when? where? how?* or *why?*

## EXAMPLES FOR ANALYSIS.

### ADJECTIVE MODIFYING CLAUSES.

The man *whom I met* was a German.
I have sold the horse *that I used to drive.*
This is the boy *whose arm was broken.*
The storm *which was raging* is over.
The pupil *who is diligent* will improve.

### VERBAL MODIFYING CLAUSES.

Helen said *that she would go.*
He went *where his country called.*
The oak stands firm *when tempests rage.*

in the sentence which follows, he uses *you* instead of the person's name. The teacher does not say, "Charles, Charles must study." But, "Charles, *you* must study."

§ **27.** Words used instead of nouns are called **Pronouns.**

Instead of the names of those persons who are speaking, the pronouns, *I*, *my*, *mine*, *me*, *we*, *our*, *ours*, *us*, are used.

Instead of the names of persons to whom we speak, we use the pronouns, *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, *ye*, *you*, *your*, *yours*. In common speech we use only *you*, *your*, *yours*. *Thou*, *thy*, *thine*, and *thee* are used mostly in poetry, and in addressing God.

Instead of the names of those objects of which we speak, we use three classes of pronouns.

1. In speaking of a single male being, we use the pronouns *he*, *his*, *him*.

2. In speaking of a single female being, we use the pronouns, *she*, *her*, *hers*.

3. In speaking of a single thing, neither male nor female, or of a thing whose sex is unimportant, we use the pronouns, *it*, *its*.

In speaking of things more than one, we use the pronouns, *they*, *their*, *theirs*, *them*.

Analyze the following sentences. Name the pronouns, and tell whether they stand for the name of the speaker, the person spoken to, or something spoken of.

I have my book and your pencil.
James has his ball and my bat.
Your pupils have learned their lessons.
She has received a present from him.
I have my book, you have yours, she has hers.
This is my book. This book is mine.
I found them in their garden.
You praise us, because we do our duty.
He found my knife, and lost it again.
The bird feeds its young and cares for them.
The child has cut its finger.

§ **28.** The name of a speaker, or a pronoun standing for his name, is said to be of the *first person*, because the speaker is the first who has any thing to do with the sentence, The name of a person spoken to, or a pronoun standing for his name, is said to be of the *second person*, because the person spoken to, is the next in order who has any thing to do with the sentence. All other nouns and pronouns are said to be of the *third person*.

That for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent.**

§ **29.** Pronouns which are used only in one *person* are called **Personal** pronouns. *I*, *my*, *we*, *our*, *us*, are used only in place of the name of the speaker; *you* only in place of the name of

persons spoken to; *they* only in place of the names of objects spoken of. All the pronouns given above are *personal.*

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ **30.** The words, *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, and *that*, standing at the beginning of *adjective clauses* (§ 25), are called **Relative Pronouns.**

The **Antecedent** of a relative pronoun is to be found in the same sentence, and usually stands directly before it.

Write ten sentences with clauses containing *relative pronouns.*

Select from your reader ten sentences containing relative *pronouns.* Analyze them, and name the *antecedents* of the pronouns.

The pronouns, *my*, *thy*, *him*, *her*, *your* have sometimes the word *self* added to them. The pronoun *them* adds *selves*, in the same way.

These pronouns with the word thus added are called **Compound personal** pronouns. They are used when the antecedent of the pronoun is the subject of the sentence, and also to modify a noun, making it *emphatic.*

I have hurt *myself.*
James has cut *himself.*
Isabella made *herself* sick.
Those boys will kill *themselves.*

The king *himself* could do no more.
I *myself* am to blame.

A descriptive adjective standing before a noun often means the same as an adjective *clause* which might stand after it.

| | |
|---|---|
| The *wise* man. | The man *who is wise.* |
| The *shining* star. | The star *which shines* |

§ **31.** Insert *adjective* clauses after the subjects of the following sentences, thus:

The train —— has not arrived.
The train *which was due at eight o'clock* has not arrived.
The book —— is lost.
My friend —— has come.
The farm —— has been sold.
The merchant —— has bought a house.
Washington —— is called a patriot.

Insert *adjective clauses* in the predicates of the following sentences, thus:

Father has sold the farm ——.
Father has sold the farm *which he bought last fall.*
They are chasing a horse ——.
We found a guide ——.
I should like to read the book ——.
The country honors the man ——.
I received two dollars for the wheat ——.

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ **32.** *Who* did it? *What* did you say? *Whom* did you see? *Which* way have they gone?

It has already been noticed that the sentence is sometimes *inverted* (§ 8), when the predicate, or part of the predicate, comes before the subject. This is usually the case in questions. In the sentence "How do you do?" *you* is the subject, *do do how* is the predicate.

Analyze the questions given above. Write and analyze ten sentences, each in the form of a question.

A sentence in which a question is asked is called an **Interrogative** sentence.

The pronouns *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which* and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called **Interrogative pronouns.**

The word for which an interrogative pronoun stands is found in the answer of the question, thus:

Who broke the window? *James* broke it.

*Who* stands for *James*.

Write ten sentences containing interrogative pronouns. Analyze them.

Select from some one of your books ten sentences which contain *interrogative pronouns*.

## LESSON VIII.

### PREPOSITIONS.

§ **33.** My dog is ——— the table.
Charles sits ——— the table.
The book lies ——— the table.
Father stood ——— the table.

Put a word into each of the above sentences that will complete the sense. Notice that these words show something about the *position* or *place* of the subject compared with the table. *Under*, *at*, *on*, *by*, show how the table is *placed*, or in what way it is *related* to each subject.

There are about forty common words which are used to connect substantives with other words, and, at the same time, to show *how* the following substantive is related to some preceding word. These words are called **Prepositions.** The name *preposition* means *placed before.* The following substantive whose relation is expressed, is called the **subsequent** of the preposition. The preposition and its subsequent usually make an *adverbial phrase*, answering the question *where*, as, "The book is — *where?*" The book is *on the desk.*

## § 34. A LIST OF COMMON PREPOSITIONS.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| about, | before, | for, | through, |
| above, | behind, | from, | till, |
| across, | below, | in, | to, |
| after, | beneath, | into, | toward, |
| along, | beside, | of, | under, |
| amid, | between, | off, | until, |
| among, | beyond, | on, | up, |
| around, | by, | over, | with, |
| at, | down, | since, | without. |

Prepositions are very closely related to adverbs, and are used mostly in *adverbial* phrases. *Of* is the only preposition which is often employed in an *adjective phrase.*

When the subsequent of the preposition is omitted, the preposition may be called an *adverb.*

Notice that many of these prepositions have exact *opposites* in meaning, and may be arranged in pairs, thus:

| | |
|---|---|
| before, | behind, |
| over, | under, |
| above, | below. |

Name other prepositions which have opposites.

Write sentences containing each of the above prepositions. (Two or more can be used in the same sentence). Analyze; and tell what *relation* the preposition and its subsequent show.

## WORDS THAT CONNECT SENTENCES AND WORDS.

§ **35.** In order that words may make sense, they must be joined together properly. The words, *stick, a, with, boy, dog, the, struck,* do not make sense because they are not in proper order to express any thing.

The same words make sense when placed thus:

The boy struck the dog with a stick.

Generally the sense is shown by the *order in which words stand.*

Write four sentences with compound subjects. Write four with compound predicates.

Write four with both subjects and predicates compound, thus:

Charles and William read and spell.

Sometimes a sentence is joined to another sentence, or a clause to a sentence, by a conjunction, thus:

The company will come, *if* it does not rain.

His courage was never doubted, *but* his judgment was not trustworthy.

Write two sentences connected by *and*.
Write two sentences connected by *but*.
Write two sentences connected by *or*.
Write two sentences connected by *because*.

Sometimes a relative or an interrogative pronoun stands as a connecting word between a sentence and a clause of the sentence. Sometimes an adverb connects a sentence with a clause.

The general asked *what* they saw.
They will hear us *when* we call.
Who knows *why* the army failed?

## EXCLAMATIONS.

§ **37.** Certain words are used to express feeling which the speaker can not well express by sentences. *Pshaw! Fudge! Bah! Oh!* are examples. There are not many of them in the language. They form no part of the sentence.

# LESSON IX.

## CHANGES IN THE FORM OF WORDS.

**§ 38.** The farmer *binds* the sheaf with a *band*.

They *bound* the thief with *bonds*.

Notice that all the four words in italics contain the idea of *tying*, though they do not mean exactly the same. The letters *b*, *n*, *d*, are found in each word, and these letters contain the principal meaning. They are called the *root* of the word. The changes in meaning are made by changing the other letters of the word.

When one word is formed from another by changing some of its letters, or by adding letters to the beginning, or to the end of the word, we say that a new word is *derived* from the first.

**§ 39.** Words are derived from other words in four ways:

1. By changing letters *within* the word; as, *bind*, *band*, *bond*, *bound*.

2. By placing letters before the word; as, *bind*, *un*-bind; *use*, *mis*-use, *ab*-use.

3. By adding letters to the word; as, *care*, care*ful*, care*less*, car(e)*ing*, cares.

4. By joining one word to another; as, watch-factory.

These changes *modify* the meaning of the root, but as we have used *modifiers* to express

*words* which modify other words, we call these changes which are made *in* the word, or in its ending, **changes in form.**

§ **40.** When the same changes are made in the form of a *class* of words, to denote the same change in meaning, the change is called **Inflection.**

**Nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs** and a few **adverbs** are **inflected.**

§ **41.** Pencil, book, house.

Pencils, books, houses.

Notice that under each of the nouns given in the first line, there stands another noun derived from it by adding *s*. Each noun in the upper line denotes *one thing;* the noun derived from it in the lower line denotes more than one thing.

That form of a substantive which denotes one thing is called the **Singular** number.

That form of the substantive which denotes more than one thing is called the **Plural** number.

To *annex*, in speaking of changes in form, means *to place after.*

To *prefix* means *to place before.*

Most nouns, like those given above, are changed from the *singular* form to the *plural* form by annexing *s* to the singular

When *s* annexed can not be easily sounded, *es* is added to form the plural, as

box, glass, match, bush, church.
boxes, glasses, matches, bushes, churches.

A few nouns form the plural by changing letters *within* the word; as,

man, *men*; mouse, *mice*; foot, *feet*; tooth, *teeth*.

Can you give any other words of either of these classes?

## CHANGE OF SEX.

§ **42.** A few nouns change their endings to show whether the persons named by them are *male*, or *female*.

Act*or*, act*ress*; count, count*ess*; hero, hero*ine*; widow*er*, widow; Francis, Franc*es*.

## POSSESSION.

§ **43.** This is the nest of an eagle.

The house of my father is large.

How can these sentences be shortened? What does the phrase *of my father* show?

Which sounds the better, "This is the ring of my mother," or "This is my mother's ring?" Do the sentences differ in meaning?

The phrase *of my mother* shows to whom the ring belongs; or who *possesses* or *owns* the ring. The same relation is expressed in the shorter

sentence by changing the ending of the noun *mother*, and by bringing the noun into another place in the sentence.

When the preposition *of*, and its *subsequent* modify a noun, the same relation is sometimes expressed by changing the ending of the subsequent noun, and placing it before the noun modified.

Change the phrases in italics to shorter forms:

The flash *of the lightning* was bright.

The poems *of Milton* are admired.

The flight *of the swallow* is rapid.

*Of* and its subsequent frequently express *possession*, and nouns whose ending is changed to express this relation are called **Possessives.**

§ **44.** Nouns in the singular express the relation of possession by adding *s*, preceded by an apostrophe. The apostrophe shows the omission of *i* which was once written in the ending.

Mary's, teacher's, pupil's, bird's.

Nouns in the plural, ending in s, add the apostrophe to make the possessive form.

Turkeys', eagles', soldiers', babies'.

Write sentences containing the plurals of the following nouns:

monkey, hero, king, queen, fox.

Write sentences containing the *possessive singular* of the following nouns:

servant, soldier, officer, teacher, doctor.

Find ten sentences in your reader containing nouns in the *possessive.*

§ **45.** Nouns, then, *change their form* to denote *three relations.*

1. The relation of **number.**
2. The relation of **sex.**
3. The relation of **possession.**

The change *of the form of the noun which denotes number* and *possession* is called **Declension.**

## LESSON X.

### CONJUGATION.

§ **46.** I *write* to-day. I *wrote* yesterday. I *shall write* to-morrow. John *writes.* The letter *is written.* Father *was writing.*

In these six sentences the same action is spoken of; the action of *writing.* The letters *w–r–t* are the *root* of the verb, and contain the principal meaning.

The verb is varied in the following ways:

By changing letters *within* the word; as, wr*i*te, wr*o*te.

By annexing letters; as, write, write*s*, writ(e)-*ing.*

By prefixing other words, which, although not joined to it, are called a part of the *predicate verb;* as, write, *shall* write, *may* write.

Write sentences containing some variation of each of the following verbs:

give, throw, know, see, hear, feel.

§ **47.** Some of these changes show the **time** of the action; some show whether the action is **finished** or **unfinished**; some show the **person** of the subject (§ 28); some show whether the subject is the doer of the action; some show whether the subject is singular or plural.

EXAMPLES.

Soldiers f*i*ght. Soldiers f*ou*ght.

The change in the form shows a change in *time.*

I am writing a letter. I have written a letter.

The action in the first sentence is unfinished, in the second, *finished.*

Thou God see*st* me.

God see*s* all things.

The change in ending shows that the *person of the subject* is changed. In the first sentence God is spoken *to*, in the second He is spoken *of.*

The man plows the field.

The field is plowed.

In the first sentence the subject *does* the action which is affirmed; in the second, the same action is affirmed, but the subject is not the *doer*, and the sentence does not tell who did it.

The man *is* here. The men *are* here.

action, and whether it is *finished* or *unfinished*, are called **Tense-forms.** *Tense* comes from a word meaning *time.* When a verb has the form which denotes *present time*, it is said to be in the *present tense;* when its form denotes past time, it is in the *past tense.*

The forms which show that the subject is the doer of the action are called the forms of the **Active Voice.** If these forms are not used, the verb is said to be in the **Passive Voice.**

§ **50.** I read, he read*s*. You go, she go*es*.

The endings *s* and *es* show that the subject is of the third person and singular number.

Write five sentences, in which there is mentioned some *unfinished action;* as,

The boys were skating.

Write five sentences in which the verbs express *finished* action; as,

The time has come.

Write five sentences with a verb in the *present tense;* as,

Mother is mending my kite.

Write five sentences with the verb in *past* time, either *finished*, or *unfinished;* as,

I sold my knife. She was singing a hymn.

Write five sentences with the verb in *future* time, either *finished*, or *unfinished;* as,

The boy will fall. The mail will have been opened.

## THE PARTICIPLE.

§ **51.** Verbs have *adjective* forms, or forms which are used to modify nouns. These forms are commonly called **Participles,** or **Verbal Adjectives.** There are two of these verbal adjectives for each verb. One always ends in *ing*, the other ends in *d*, or *n*; as, see*ing*, seen.

This *laboring* man earns his wages.

He *was laboring* with great earnestness.

In the first sentence *laboring* asserts nothing, and is a verbal adjective. In the second sentence it may still be called an adjective, but as it is a part of the predicate, it is asserted of the subject, does not modify the subject (§ 17), and is generally called a part of the verb.

§ **52.** The verbal adjective in *ing* is called the **Imperfect** (or *unfinished*) **Participle;** the other endings belong to the **Perfect** (or *finished*) **Participle.**

The principal difference between the *verbal* adjective and other adjectives is, that the verbal adjective may have all the modifiers of the verb.

The participle *having* joined with the *perfect* participle of a verb, makes what is called a **Compound** participle.

A **Clause** (§ 20) is sometimes *shortened* by leaving out the *subject*, and by using the participle instead of some form of the verb which expresses assertion. The participle is then said

to **refer** to the word which would be the subject of the sentence, if nothing was omitted.

When I had finished my lesson, I had an hour left for reading.

*Having finished* my lesson, I had an hour *left* for reading.

The *compound verbal adjective* (or participle) *having finished* refers to the subject *I*. The ending *ing* in *having* shows that it is the *imperfect* participle; the ending *ed* in *finished* shows that it is the *perfect* participle. *Having finished* is modified by *my lesson*, showing *what* is finished, answering the question *what*. *Hour* is modified by *left*, a verbal adjective, derived from the verb *leave*.

§ **53.** This verbal adjective form in *ing* is also used as a noun, while it still retains the modifiers of the verb.

*Writing* rapidly is very tiresome.

In this sentence *writing* is a noun, because it is the subject of the sentence. But it is modified by the adverb *rapidly*. Therefore, it differs from other nouns, because it admits a verbal modifier.

*Taking* his gun, the farmer went out.

The *finished* garment lay beside her.

*Hunting* tigers is dangerous sport.

A neatly-*written* letter indicates a careful scholar.

*Having read* the letter, he put it in his pocket.

The battle, hotly *contested* for three hours, was at last won by the rebels.

Point out the participles in the above sentences. Tell whether they denote *finished* or *unfinished* action. Put clauses in place of the participles and their modifiers.

### THE INFINITIVE.

§ **54.** Verbs have another substantive form besides that in *ing*. This form is usually preceded by the preposition *to*, and is called the **Infinitive** of the verb.

She tried *to sing* the song.
*To sing* well is a valuable accomplishment.
*To write* neatly requires pains.
We have learned *to spell* correctly.

The substantive form, or *verbal noun*, differs from other nouns in having *adverbial* modifiers. The *to* before the verb is sometimes omitted.

Verbs are conjugated to express **Tense, Voice, Person** and **Number.**

## LESSON XI.

### COMPARISON.

§ **55.** Some descriptive **Adjectives,** and a few **Adverbs,** admit a change of form called **Comparison.**

When an adjective simply names a quality, it is said to be in the **Positive** degree; as, *wise, brave, kind.*

But when, besides naming the quality, one person or thing is compared with another by the adjective, the adjective is said to be in the **Comparative** degree. The *comparative* form

annexes **r** or **er** to the *positive* form; as, wise**r**, brave**r**, kind**er**.

When, besides naming a quality, the adjective compares any person or thing with more than one other, the adjective is said to be in the **Superlative** degree. The superlative form annexes **st** or **est** to the *positive* form; as, wise**st**, brave**st**, kind**est**.

This is a *large* boy.
This boy is *larger* than his *older* brother.
Thomas is the *largest* boy in school.

Never use the ending *est* with an adjective when comparing *two*. Do not say, He is the old*est* of the two. You might as well say, He is old*est* than his brother.

Descriptive adjectives of one syllable, and a few of more than one syllable, admit the inflection of *comparison*.

Dear, dearer, dearest.
Tall, taller, tallest.
Lovely, lovelier, loveliest.

Compare *small*, *wise*, *old*, *near*, *fine*, *sweet*.

## DIMINUTIVES.

§ **56.** From nouns are sometimes formed nouns which denote a small thing of the same kind. Such nouns are called **Diminutives.** The word from which another word is formed is called a **Primitive** word.

From stream we form stream*let;* meaning *little stream.*
From river we form riv*ulet;* meaning a *little river.*
From goose we form gos*ling;* meaning a little, or young goose.
From lamb we form lamb*kin;* meaning a little lamb.
From hill we form hill*ock;* meaning a little hill.
From cat we form *kit;* meaning a little cat.
Form diminutives from the following:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| lance, | flower, | wave, | lake, | bull, | brook, |
| leaf, | isle, | eye, | bird, | top, | duck. |

## ABSTRACT NOUNS.

§ **57.** In § 13 we have names of qualities used as *subjects*, and names which are used only as modifiers of nouns. The **substantive** names of Qualities are called **Abstract nouns.**

They are derived from adjectives by annexing **ness, ity, th, ce, cy,** and a few have other endings. Thus, from *good* we form good*ness;* from *kind*, kind*ness;* from *able* we form abil*ity;* from *true, truth;* from *long, length;* from *eloquent, eloquence;* from *fluent, fluency.*

Form *abstract nouns* from the following:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| wide, | strong, | deep, | high, | broad, |
| active, | agile, | acid, | plural, | docile, |
| neat, | useful, | idle, | happy, | weary, |
| elegant, | fluent, | eloquent, | different, | truant. |

# LESSON XII.

## KINDS OF SENTENCES.

### DECLARATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 58. The king has governed well. My father will return. Your plan may not succeed. We should study diligently.

### INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Can your story be true? Do you intend to remain? Why did you not learn this lesson? What did you say?

### IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

Let seven sentences be written. Go home now, but return immediately. Lend me a knife. Do not be rude.

### EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES.

What a beautiful sunset! How he does talk! A very strange story! How very ridiculous!

§ 59. A **Declarative** sentence asserts a thing as a *fact*. The thing asserted may not be true, but the speaker *gives* it as a fact.

An **Interrogative** sentence contains a question.

An **Imperative** sentence expresses the will of the speaker, as a *command*, *entreaty*, or *request*. The subject of an imperative sentence is generally of the *second person*, and is usually omitted.

A *complex* sentence may contain several clauses. A sentence may be both complex and compound.

## INCOMPLETE SENTENCES.

§ **61.** A sentence is often left **incomplete** by the speaker, either to save words, or because his meaning is plainly understood without words.

Leaving out words which the hearer easily supplies is called **Ellipsis,** and a sentence from which something is omitted, is called an *elliptical* sentence. Sometimes the subject is omitted; sometimes the predicate; sometimes both.

Go home.

The subject *you* is omitted.

How strange!

This sentence in full would be "How strange it is!"

Ellipsis is most common in *Imperative* and *Exclamatory* sentences. It may be used in *speaking* much more than in *writing*, because the speaker's looks and motions may make his meaning plain.

Supply the ellipsis in the following sentences:
Give me a book.
Go to that chamber. Why? Because you are bidden.
Whither are you going? *To the city.*
Why did he come back? *For his books.*

§ **62.** The name of the person addressed forms no part of the sentence. It is used simply to call his attention to the sentence following.

Harry, what have you there?

Jane, is this your book?

*Exclamations* generally stand alone, and neither modify, nor are modified. They are a kind of *elliptical* sentence.

*Yes*, *no*, *certainly*, and some other words used in answering questions, do not modify the sentence with which they stand connected. They modify either an omitted verb, or the *sentence* containing the question.

No, you are mistaken.

Certainly, with pleasure.

Yes, you may have it.

Supply sentences to which the above may be answers, and if there is any ellipsis, supply it.

## § 63. Analysis of sentences.

An analysis of several sentences is now presented, that a plan for general use may be made plain. It is not so important to name the exact form as to name the use of the word in a sentence. The analysis offered is designed to show what a pupil ought to know of a sentence when he has finished the book up to this point.

1. On a pleasant morning in the early autumn, a traveler was riding leisurely along the valley.

This is a simple sentence, containing but one subject and one predicate. It asserts something as a fact, and

is therefore *declarative.* *A traveler* is that of which the assertion is made, and is, therefore, the subject. *Was riding leisurely along the valley, on a pleasant morning in the early autumn,* is the predicate. *Traveler* is the name of an object, and is, therefore, a noun. It is modified by the specifying adjective *a.* *Was riding* is the *verb* of the predicate. Its form shows that the action spoken of is *past* and *unfinished.* It is modified by *leisurely,* an adverb telling *how;* by the phrase *along the valley,* telling *where;* and by the phrases, *on a pleasant morning* and *in the early autumn,* telling *when* the traveler was riding. *On, in* and *along* are prepositions. Their respective *subsequents* are *morning, autumn* and *valley.* *Morning* is modified by the descriptive adjective *pleasant,* and the specifying adjective *a.* *Autumn* is modified by the descriptive adjective *early,* and the specifying adjective *the.* *Valley* is modified by the specifying adjective *the.*

§ **64.** 2. The tree which stood by the roadside was struck by lightning last night.

A declarative sentence; complex, because the subject contains an adjective clause. The subject is, *The tree which stood by the roadside;* the rest of the sentence is the predicate. The noun *tree* is modified by *the,* a specifying adjective, and by the clause *which stood by the roadside.* This clause is a *specifying adjective clause; adjective,* because it modifies a substantive, and *specifying,* because it tells which tree is meant. *Which* is a relative pronoun. Its antecedent is *tree.* It is the subject of the clause. *Stood by the roadside* is the predicate of the clause. *Stood* is a verb; it asserts something of *which.* Its form shows *past time, finished.* It is modified by the phrase *by the roadside,* telling *where.*

*Was struck* asserts something of *tree*, and is, therefore, a verb. Its form shows *past time*, *finished*, and also that the subject is not the doer of the action. It is said to be in the *passive voice*, *past tense*. It is modified by the phrase *by lightning*, telling what did the action; also by the phrase, *last night*, telling *when* the action was done.

§ **65.** 3. Had you finished your work when I saw you walking in the garden?

A *complex interrogative* sentence, containing an *adverbial clause*. *You* is the subject. It is a pronoun standing for the name of some person addressed, and is, therefore, of the *second* person. *Had finished* is the verb of the predicate. Its form shows that the action is *past* and *complete*. It is modified by *your work*, telling *what* was finished, and by the clause *when I saw you*, expressing *time*. The subject of the clause is *I*, a pronoun standing for the name of the speaker, and therefore of the *first* person. *Saw* is the verb of the clause. Its form shows that the action is *past* and *finished*. Its *present* form is *see*. It is modified by *you*, telling *whom* I saw. *You* is modified by *walking*, a verbal adjective. *Walking* is modified by *in the garden*, a phrase denoting *place*. *When* is an adverb of time, modifying *saw*, and also connecting the clause to the principal sentence.

§ **66.** 4. All ancient art was religious, but all modern art is profane.

A *compound declarative sentence*, consisting of two simple sentences. (The subjects and modifiers are plainly seen). The sentences are connected by the conjunction *but*. This conjunction shows that the sentences are compared with each other, and that the speaker wishes us to notice a *difference*.

§ **67.** 5. Three kings had once met to form a treaty of peace.

## ANALYSIS BY WORDS.

A simple declarative sentence.

*Three* is a numeral adjective modifying *kings*. *Kings* is a noun, in the plural, subject of the sentence. *Had met* is a verb, predicate of the sentence, past tense, active voice, denotes complete action. *Once* is an adverb, derived from the numeral adjective *one*, denotes time, and modifies *had met*. *To form* is an infinitive phrase, modifies *had met*, shows *why* they had met, or for what purpose they had met. *A* is a specifying adjective, modifies *treaty*. *Treaty* is a noun, modifies *to form*, shows *what* they had met to form. *Of* is a preposition, shows the relation between *treaty* and *peace*. *Peace* is a noun, subsequent of *of*, and with *of* forms a phrase modifying *treaty*, showing what kind of treaty.

## § 68. Sentences for Analysis.

The following sentences are selected from the Third Readers of several common series, as presenting the kind of sentences with which children, contemplated by the plan of this grammar, are expected to be familiar. Teachers must remember that pupils at this stage are not expected to analyze very complex sentences.

Just then her father came in from the field.

Uncle William, may I go over to your store this morning?

One evening, soon after his father's return from the city, Edwin took his seat beside him.

How long have you had that box?

During the night the cattle got into the garden, and destroyed every thing in it.

*Never give up* is a good motto.

Out of the little twigs these tall trees were made.
His garments are red with the blood of the grape.
Tell me, if you know, who he is, and what is his name.

The frost looked forth one still, clear night,
And whispered, "Now I shall be out of sight."

Ben Adam had a golden coin one day
Which he put at interest with a Jew.

"Will you give my kite a lift?" said my little nephew to his sister.

I think John Brown has it, for I saw him pick it up.

Around the fire one winter night,
The farmer's rosy children sat.

The types with which the letters are printed are made of metal.

The sound of dropping nuts is heard in the wood.

As we were coming home we saw, ahead of us, a queer-looking affair in the road.

Among the most beautiful of small birds is the Australian robin.

The Cadi bowed to the ground, and kissed his master's hand.

"A pleasant nap, indeed!" replied the swallow.

"Keep your distance!" said the pack horse, again throwing up his heels.

He heard it ringing, and saw it glancing down the old mossy stones.

# LESSON XIV.

## LETTER WRITING.

One of the most important things for a pupil to learn is *how to write a letter*. It is a necessity in every com-

mon education. Yet mistakes in dating and directing letters are very common. Some years ago, an important school in Massachusetts advertised for a teacher, a College graduate, and one who had had experience in High Schools. Of one hundred and ten applicants, seventy were rejected in consequence of mistakes in spelling, punctuation, and in dating, folding, and directing their letters.

The *date* of a letter properly means the time at which it is written. It commonly includes the name of the place from which the letter is sent. The date should stand near the top of the page; on the first line, as a general rule. Care should be taken to commence far enough to the left to prevent crowding.

The name of the post office comes first, then the name of the county, then the state, then the month and day of the month, then the year. These generally stand upon the same line, but if the names of the post office and county are long, it is better to make two lines, thus:

PRINCETON, BUREAU CO., ILL., *Jan.* 30*th*, 1869.

JEFFERSON, ASHTABULA CO., OHIO,
*September* 29*th*, 1868.

In writing from *large towns*, or *cities* where letter carriers deliver letters, the name of the county is omitted, but the name of the street, and the number of the house are given, thus:

310 E. 55TH ST., NEW YORK, *June* 1*st*, 1869.

Let the pupils write other examples. Notice the punctuation carefully.

Next follows the *address*. It should never stand on the same line with the date. Its usual place is on the

SPRINGFIELD, SANGAMON CO., ILLINOIS,
*February 26th*, 1869.

MR. SAMUEL JONES,

*Dear Sir;* In answer to your letter of inquiry, I beg leave to say, etc.

---

244 CANAL ST., NEW YORK, *Aug.* 1*st*, '69.

MESSRS. P. SMITH & CO.;

We enclose you our price list, with the latest additions and corrections.

---

23 CARONDELET ST., NEW ORLEANS, LA.,
*November 25th*, 1867.

DEAR BROTHER WILLIAM;

Your letter of the 15th inst. was received some days since.

If the full name of the person addressed does not appear at the beginning of the letter, it is customary to write it at the bottom of the letter, below the writer's signature, and at the left hand. This is often of importance, as letters are sometimes miscarried and are opened by the wrong person. The one who opens the letter may wish to send it to the rightful owner, but if it is only addressed "Dear Ellen," or "Cousin Ralph," he does not know to whom to send it.

A broad margin should always be left on the left of the page, but the lines should be filled out to the right. Great care should be taken to have no blots or erasures, and to write legibly. A mistake may sometimes lead to serious consequences.

For the ending of a letter there are many forms. A few of the common ones are given. They should stand to the right rather than to the left of the page.

## BUSINESS LETTER FORMS.

Hoping to receive your order, we remain,

Yours respectfully,

HARPER AND BROTHERS.

MESSRS. J. H. WILDER & Co.

---

Yours truly,

JAMES A. LOCKWOOD.

Agent for S. P. SANDERS.

---

Yours with respect,

JOHN HOLMES.

DANIEL ANDERSON, ESQ.

---

Letters to friends admit more variety.

Your affectionate son,

HENRY.

TO MRS. ELLEN GREEN,
*Indianapolis, Ind.*

---

Cordially yours,

JAMES BOWEN.

J. R. CLARK,
*Derry, N. H.*

Yours as ever, Affectionately yours, Yours in love, Yours in the good cause, Yours in Christ, are other forms which may be mentioned.

No special directions need be given for folding a letter. One simple rule is to have as few folds as possible. The paper should fill the envelope, but not crowd it. Nothing looks more clumsy than a small envelope with a large sheet of paper crowded into it. A paper-folder should be used to press down the folds, and make

them lie smooth, and to avoid soiling the paper. The first page should be folded inside.

The common fault in directing envelopes is to begin too far to the right, so that the writing is crowded and one-sided. The direction should stand about in the middle of the envelope. The place for the stamp is on the upper right-hand corner, and the writing should not interfere with the stamp. The greatest pains should be taken to have the direction plain. Nine-tenths of letters lost are lost by careless direction.

### FORM FOR DIRECTION.

[Stamp.]

Daniel Anderson, Esq.,
288 Broad St.,
New York.

Care of Ripley & Morse.

The gummed part of the envelope, that is, the movable flap, is always the top of the letter. The post office and state should be very distinct, for the convenience of those who are to deliver it. They do not care so much to know to *whom* it is to go, as *where* it is to go. So many post offices in the United States have the same name, that the state should *always* be given, and generally the county. Except that in the case of large cities like New York, Philadelphia, Boston, etc., the name of the city alone is enough.

### A FORMAL BUSINESS LETTER.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *April 19th*, 1831.

SIR; I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of yours of this date, in answer to mine of the same.

In reply to your remark that there is one expression in my letter to which you must except, I would respectfully answer that I gave what I understood to be the substance of your conversation. I did not pretend to quote your language.

I have the honor to be, with the greatest respect,
Your obedient servant,

JOHN BRANCH.

His Excellency, ANDREW JACKSON,
*President of the United States.*

## ORDINARY BUSINESS LETTERS.

PRINCETON, ILL., *August* 1*st*, 1869.

MESSRS. G. & C. W. SHERWOOD;

The desks and settees ordered by me in June were received yesterday, in good condition. I find, by measurement of one of our rooms, that it will accommodate a few more pupils, and you will oblige me by forwarding immediately

Twelve (12) single desks, folding seat, size *B*.

I will remit the amount of your bill on receipt of the goods.

Yours truly,

WILLIAM A. DICKINSON,
*Chairman of Board of Education.*

---

DOVER, BUREAU CO., ILL., *July* 10*th*, 1869.

MESSRS. HURD AND HOUGHTON;

Please change the address of the "Riverside Magazine," sent me at this place, to *Sabula, Jackson Co., Iowa*, and oblige,

Yours respectfully,

WILLIAM H. FRENCH.

MESSRS. HURD AND HOUGHTON,
459 *Broome St., New York.*

## FAMILIAR LETTERS.

ALPINE HOUSE, GORHAM, N H.,
*July 20th*, 1869.

DEAR MOTHER;

According to our promise we write you immediately after our arrival among the mountains. We are so tired with our long journey, and so much confused with the hundreds of new and strange things that we have seen, that we have decided to wait until we are a little rested before writing you a full history of our journey. We can only tell you that we are too happy to think of being sick, and have already seen more wonders than we supposed were in the whole world. With our best love to you and all the family.

Your affectionate sons,

GEORGE AND HENRY.

MRS. ELLEN MARCY.

---

MARIETTA, OHIO, *June 18th*, 1869.

DEAR JOE;

You know that you owe me two letters already, but I have some good news to tell you, and so I write. Our Active Base-Ball Club have just played a match game, and I send you enclosed a slip from our newspaper, which will tell you all about it. We won the game handsomely. I played second base, and did some pretty good batting. I made a clean score. I wish you had been here to cheer for us. This is all that I can afford to write you until you pay up.

Your old friend,

HARRY MCKEE.

JOSEPH MARTIN.

## § 70. Common errors corrected.

A few common errors are noted. Their infinite number prevents a full list. Let every teacher firmly resolve to banish every one of them from his own speech, and from that of his pupils. Whenever and wherever they occur, in the school-room or out of it, make war upon them. Keep the most common and most offensive posted on the blackboard until they are overcome.

| WRONG EXPRESSION. | CORRECT EXPRESSION. |
|---|---|
| When do you *take up* school? | When do you *begin* or *commence* school? |
| I *allowed* to go. | I *meant* to go. |
| I could not *git to go.* | I could not go. |
| We *done* our work. | We *did* our work. |
| He *seen* him. | He *saw* him. |
| There he *sot.* | There he *sat.* |
| It was *me.* | It was *I.* |
| It was *her.* | It was *she.* |
| It was *him* or *them.* | It was *he* or *they.* |
| Who wants this? *Me.* | Who wants this? *I.* |
| You *had* ought to go. | You ought to go. |
| Had I ought to go? I think you *had.* | Ought I to go? I think you *ought.* |
| Give me *them* books. | Give me *those* books. |
| *Them* molasses. | *That* molasses. |
| He *throwed* a stone. | He *threw* a stone. |
| He *preached a funeral.* | He preached *a funeral sermon;* or, he conducted a funeral service. |
| I *guess* I *will* go.<br>I *reckon* I *will* go. | I *think* I *shall* go. |
| Last Tuesday *was a week.* | Last Tuesday *week;* or, *a week ago* last Tuesday. |
| You *was* there. | You *were* there. |
| I *were* there. | I *was* there. |

| | |
|---|---|
| Every man went to *their* house. | Every man went to *his* house. |
| *Who* did you give it to? | *Whom* did you give it to? |
| The man *which* came. | The man *who* came. |
| *Set* down and be quiet. | *Sit* down and be quiet. |
| I *knowed* it. | I *knew* it. |
| I *laid* abed all day. | I *lay* abed all day. |
| Just as *lives* as not. | Just as *lief* as not. |
| Be present *in our midst.* | Be present *in the midst of us.* |
| A *specie* of shells. | A species of shell. |
| I have *got* my lesson. | I have my lesson. |
| This *here* knife. | This knife. |
| That *'are* book. | That book. |
| Your book is *wore* out. | Your book is *worn* out. |
| He *draved* a knife. | He *drew* a knife. |
| Have you *wrote* an exercise? | Have you *written* an exercise? |
| I *hearn tell* of it. | I have heard of it. |
| He has *done* gone. | He has *already* gone. |
| I meant *to have seen* him. | I meant *to see* him. |
| I hoped *to have visited you.* | I hoped *to visit* you. |
| We intended *to have written.* | We intended *to write.* |
| He said *as how* he bought it. | He said *that* he bought it. |
| They went *for* to find him. | They went to find him. |
| You might have *went.* | You might have *gone.* |
| He *learned* me grammar. | He *taught* me grammar. |
| I and my father. | My father and I. |
| Do *like* I do. | Do *as* I do. |
| A *heap* of people. | A *great many* people. |
| *Right smart* of corn. | A *great deal* of corn. |
| A *good* many. | A *great* many. |
| *Quite* warm. | (Quite means *exactly*, or *completely.*) *Very* warm. |

sentence? What are the interrogative pronouns? Where is the antecedent of an interrogative pronoun found?

For what are prepositions used? Name the common prepositions? Name the prepositions which have *opposites.* What is the subsequent of a preposition? What do a preposition and its subsequent usually modify? What preposition with its subsequent usually modifies a noun? What are conjunctions? What are the common conjunctions? What other words are used to connect clauses to sentences? What are exclamations? Give examples.

What is the root of a word? When is a word said to be derived from another? How are words derived from other words? What is inflection? What classes of words are inflected? What is the singular number? What is the plural number? How is the plural formed from the singular? When is a noun called a possessive? How is the possessive formed in the singular? How in the plural? What preposition and subsequent often mean the same as the possessive? What three relations of nouns are expressed by change of ending? Define Declension.

How may verbs be varied in form? What is expressed by these variations? What is tense? What are the divisions of time? What is conjugation? What do the active voice forms show? What is indicated by the passive voice forms? What are participles? How many has a verb? In what does the imperfect participle end? How does the perfect participle end? What is the difference between a verbal adjective and any other adjective? What is a compound participle? How is a clause sometimes shortened by the use of a participle? What other use has the verbal adjective in *ing?* What is the infinitive?

What is comparison? What parts of speech are compared? Define the positive degree. Define the comparative, the superlative. How is the comparative formed? How the superlative? Are all adjectives compared? Give examples of adjectives which can not be compared. What is a diminutive? In what do diminutives end? Give examples. What are abstract

nouns? From what are they derived, and in what do they end?

What is a declarative sentence? What is an interrogative sentence? What is an exclamatory sentence? Define a simple, a compound, and a complex sentence. Give examples.

Define ellipsis. In what sentences is it most common? Give examples.

What is included in the date of a letter? Where should the date be placed? When may the state, or county, be left out of the date? In writing from cities or large towns, what is included in the date? Give examples of dates properly written. Where does the address stand? How is the date punctuated? How is the address punctuated? Where is a margin left blank? Give examples of the address of a letter. Give examples of the signature of letters. Direct an envelope properly to the publishers of this book.

# COMMON SCHOOL GRAMMAR.

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## SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

THE pupils who commence this part should be familiar with the Intermediate part, or its equivalent. They should know the elements of the sentence and the parts of speech, and should have the idea of inflection and modification. The teacher should continue to require abundant illustration, constant written practice, and frequent reviews, and require examples to be taken from books in common use which will illustrate every point.

Correcting printers' proof-sheets is a very valuable exercise. The first proofs abound in mis-spelled words, inverted letters, faulty punctuation, improper use of capitals, different kinds of type mixed, and in omissions which materially affect the sense. In correcting these errors, the pupil learns practical grammar, and fixes the all-important habit of *close, patient attention.* Very likely the pupils will not observe every error, but they will improve rapidly by practice.

## LESSON XV.

§ **71. Language** is that by which thought and feeling are expressed. It includes *signs, gestures, expressions of countenance, pictures or other symbols, inarticulate sounds,* and *words.*

Generally when language is spoken of, the language of *words* is meant. Brutes have a kind of language, expressed by motions and inarticulate sounds. The deaf and dumb have a language of signs.

A **Word** is the *written* or *spoken* symbol of an idea.

An **Idea** is a mental picture. The *name* of a person with whom we are acquainted, calls up in mind a kind of image of the person. In the same way we picture to ourselves unreal objects, or objects which we have never seen. The word is the sign of this picture. Different languages employ different signs for the same idea.

§ **72. Grammar** treats of the **facts, laws,** and **rules** of language.

**General Grammar** treats of facts which are common to all languages.

The facts in regard to the sentence given in § 1, are the same in all languages, and belong to general grammar.

**English Grammar** gives the *facts, laws* and *rules* of the English language.

A *Law* is a fact which applies to a whole class of words; a *Rule* is a guide in the *use* of language. It is a *law* of the language that abstract nouns (§ 57) are derived from adjectives; it is a *rule* that the relative pronoun stands after its antecedent.

Language is usually divided into **Oral** and **Written.** Oral language is spoken, and is addressed to the ear; written language is addressed only to the eye.

§ **73.** Grammar is divided into four parts.
**Orthography,** which treats of **Letters.**
**Etymology,** which treats of **Words.**

**Syntax**, which treats of **Sentences.**

**Prosody**, which treats of **Accent, Punctuation**, and **Versification.**

## LESSON XVI.

### ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ **74. Orthography** treats of **elementary sounds** and the **letters** which represent them, of **syllables**, and of **spelling.**

The sounds of the language and its pronunciation are often treated under a separate head called *Orthoepy.* Pupils are expected to learn most of Orthography from Readers and Spellers, and to learn the sounds thoroughly.

The English language has forty-three elementary sounds. These sounds are expressed to the eye by twenty-six different characters, called letters. The letters of a language are called its **Alphabet.**

Since forty-three sounds are represented by twenty-six letters, it follows that either some letters must represent more than one sound, or that some sounds must be represented by two or more letters combined. Notice that the *name* of the letter is not the sound of the letter.

§ **75.** There are four principal styles of letters.

ROMAN, A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f.
*Italic, A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F.*

Old English, A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F.
*Script, A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E.*

Each letter is represented by two characters, differing in size, and generally in form. The great body of written or printed matter is made up of *small* letters. For rules for the use of the *larger* letters, called **Capitals**, see the Appendix.

*Italics* are used to express emphasis. Emphatic words are sometimes commenced with a capital letter. **Full-faced type** is employed in school books to attract the attention to important words. In script, the *underscore* is employed to denote emphasis.

§ **76.** Sounds are divided into two classes, **Vowel Sounds**, and **Consonant Sounds.**

Letters are divided into **Vowels** and **Consonants.**

A **Vowel** is a letter representing a sound which is uttered with the organs of speech open, and which can be prolonged.

A **Consonant** is a letter which represents a sound that can not be uttered without bringing some of the organs of speech in contact.

The **Vowels** are **a, e, i, o, u, w,** and sometimes **y.** The other letters are *consonants. Y* is a consonant at the beginning of a syllable.

A **Diphthong** is a combination of two vowels, and is uttered at a single impulse of the voice.

In a *proper* diphthong both vowels are sounded; as in *boil;* in an *improper* diphthong one vowel is sounded; as in *beat, receive.*

§ **77.** Consonants are divided into **Liquids** and **Mutes.**

The liquids are **l, m, n, r.** They are also called **Semi-vowels,** because they represent sounds which can be prolonged.

Mutes are sub-divided into

1. **Labials,** (or *lip*-consonants) **b, f, p, v.**
2. **Gutturals,** (or *throat*-consonants) **c** hard, **g, h, k, q.**
3. **Linguals,** (*tongue*-consonants) **d, j, t, s, z.**

*S*, *z*, and *c* soft are called **Sibilants,** or hissing letters.

**H** is called an aspirant, or breathing letter. **C** is soft, that is, has its hissing sound, before *e*, *i*, and *y*, and before the diphthong *æ*; as in *cent*, *city*, *cycle*, *Cæsar*. Otherwise it is hard; that is, it has the sound of *k*.

**G** is soft, or is sounded like j, before *e*, *i* and *y*, in words derived from the Latin and Greek. Otherwise it is hard; as in *go*, *bag*.

A letter is **silent,** or **mute,** when it has no sound; as, *k* and *w* in know, *t* in often, *n* in hymn.

§ **78.** The **sounds** of the language are given below as classified into labials, gutturals, and linguals.

| **Labials.** | | **Gutturals.** | | **Linguals.** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **SONANT,** | **NON-SONANT.** | **SONANT,** | **NON-SONANT.** | **SONANT,** | **NON-SONANT.** |
| b. | p. | g. | k. q. | d. | t. |
| v. | f. ph. | | **ch** hard. | z. | s. c soft. |
| | | | | j. | ch. |
| | | | | zh, as in azure. | sh. |
| | | | | th, as in this. | th, as in thin. |

# ETYMOLOGY.

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## LESSON XVII.

§ **80. Etymology** treats of the **Meaning, Derivation, Classification, Inflection** and **History** of words.

The **meaning** of a word is learned by its **use**, by its **derivation**, or from a **dictionary.**

Neither teacher nor pupil can afford to be without a dictionary.

**Derivation** treats of the **Origin, primary meaning,** and **formation** of words.

The English language originated from the **Anglo-Saxon** and the **Norman-French.** It contains many words from the Latin and from the Greek.

From the Anglo-Saxon come all our pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions, and all verbs of the strong conjugation.

§ **81.** In respect to origin, words are classified into **Primitive, Derivative, Simple** and **Compound.**

A **Primitive** word is not derived from any other word in the language; as *man, boy, strike.*

A **Derivative** word is formed from some other word in the language by *prefixing* or *suffix-*

*ing* letters, or syllables, or by changing letters within the word; as, boy-*ish*, man-*ly*, *un*-man, str*o*ke.

A primitive word, from which other words are derived is called a *stem.* From the stem *man* are formed the derivative words, *manly*, *manful*, *unman*, *mannish*, *men.*

The **root** of a word is that part which remains unchanged in its derivatives. The root is generally made up of consonants. The vowels of a word are more subject to change than the consonants. The same root may be common to several primitive words which resemble each other in meaning. Thus, *two* is the root of *two*, *twain*, *twelve*, *twine*, *twist.* *Str* is the root of *string*, *strong*, *strew*, *straight.*

A **Simple** word can not be separated into two or more words; as, *door*, *window*, *machine.*

A **Compound** word is made up of two or more simple words; as, *door-mat*, *window-sash*, *sewing-machine.*

In compound words the accent is upon the first part; as, *steám-boat*, *rów-boat.*

Let the pupils think out the reason of this. If they have a clear idea of emphasis, it will not be difficult.

For the use of the hyphen between the parts of a compound word, see the subject of Punctuation.

Words are sometimes compounded to express one meaning, and written separately to express another. For instance, a *glass house* is a house made of glass; a *glass-house* is a house where glass is made.

The teacher is expected to require of the class illustrations enough to fix every fact clearly in mind. When the pupil is able to bring to the class a considerable number of illustrations of his own selection, it is tolerably certain that he understands the principle. Require written illustrations, and a great many of them.

§ **82.** By the **Classification** of words is meant their arrangement in classes according to their use. The classes are called **Parts of Speech.**

There are eight classes of words in English, the **Noun**, the **Verb**, the **Pronoun**, the **adjective**, the **Adverb**, the **Proposition**, the **Conjunction**, and the **Exclamation.**

The specifying adjectives, *an* or *a* and *the* are sometimes called *Articles.* The verbal adjective (§ 5,) is also made a separate part of speech by some authors, and called a *Participle.*

A **Noun** is the name of an object, either of perception or of thought, and can itself be the subject of a sentence.

A **Verb** is a word which, in some of its forms, can be used as the simple predicate of a sentence. Its office is to **assert.** It usually asserts the *being*, *state* or *action* of the subject.

A **Pronoun** is a word used to supply the place of a noun.

An **Adjective** is a word which modifies a substantive by naming a **quality** or **attribute,** or by pointing out **which**, or **how many** are meant.

An **Adverb** is a word whose office is to modify a verb, a sentence, or some word which is not a substantive.

A **Preposition** is a word which connects a

substantive to some word which is modified by the preposition and its subsequent.

A **Conjunction** is a word whose office is to connect **words, phrases, clauses** and **sentences.**

An **Exclamation** is a word used by itself to express emotion or feeling,—forming no part of the sentence.

The **Theme** of a word is that form which is used as the name of the word; or, as the starting-point from which other forms are derived. Thus we speak of the pronoun **who,** though it has the forms **whose** and **whom. Who** is the **theme** of the pronoun.

§ **83.** By **Inflection** is meant that change of form which words undergo to express change in their relations to other words, or in their meaning. If a change is expressed by a separate word, the word changed is **modified**, not **inflected.**

*Wise*, taken as a theme, has the inflected forms *wiser*, *wisest*. *His* and *him* are inflections of the theme he.

§ **84.** The **History** of a word tells its origin, its primary meaning, and the changes which it has undergone.

Thus *knave* first meant *boy*, then *servant*, now *rascal.*

An **Obsolete** word is one which was once in

good use, but is not now. An **Obsolescent** word is going out of use.

*Leasing*, meaning lying, is *obsolete; pate* for head, is *obsolescent.*

## LESSON XVIII.

### THE NOUN.

§ **85.** A **Noun** is a **substantive** name, or the name of an object. It includes the names of all things which exist, or are spoken of as existing.

A **Substantive** is any word or group of words which is used as a *subject of a sentence*, an *object of a verb*, or a *subsequent of a preposition.*

In grammatical analysis many sentences are formed whose subjects are *phrases*, or words used out of their common use. These subjects should be called *substantives* or *substantive phrases.* In analyzing the sentence, "*Will go* is the predicate," call *will go* a *substantive phrase.*

Nouns are divided in **Proper** and **Common.**

A **Proper** noun is the name of one object, distinguishing it from all others of its class; as, Peoria, Illinois, William.

A **Common** noun is the name of a *class* which may include a great number of individuals; as, city, state, boy.

The name of the class may be applied to any object in the class. If the *proper* name of a person is not known, we address him by a *common* name; as, *friend*,

*stranger, sir.* His **proper** name is his **own** name; it belongs to him alone.

A *proper* noun becomes common when made to apply to a **Class**; a common noun becomes proper when applied exclusively to an individual.

Ex.—There are six Williams in the school. *Williams* is a common noun, because applied to a class.

Mr. Field bought the field. The subject *Field* is a proper noun, because made the *property* of one man.

§ **86.** Common nouns are subdivided into **Abstract, Collective, Verbal** and **Diminutive.**

An **Abstract** noun is the substantive name of a quality (§ 13; § 57), derived from a descriptive adjective. Abstract nouns generally end in **ness** as in *kindness;* **th** as in *truth;* **ce** or **cy** as in *prudence, clemency;* in **ity** as in *ability.* They do not admit the plural nor the possessive form.

A **Collective** noun has a singular form, but is applied to a number of individuals; as, *flock, army, host.*

A **Verbal** noun admits the modifiers of a verb. In form it may be either the **Participle** (§ 51), or the **Infinitive** (§ 54).

Ex.—*Playing* foot-ball is violent exercise. *Learning* Latin is not easy. *To hear* and *to see* are very different.

A **Diminutive** is a derivative noun denoting a small thing of the kind expressed by its prim-

itive (§ 56). The diminutive endings are **et, kin, lock, ling, el, ie.**

Ex.—Floweret, mannikin, hillock, duckling, petrel (that is, little Peter, because it walks on the water), wifie, Mattie. **Ling** sometimes denotes contempt, as in lordling. Diminutives frequently express *endearment.*

A **Complex** noun is a group of names not compound applied to a single person; as, President William Henry Harrison. Marcus Tullius Cicero.

# LESSON XIX.

## INFLECTION OF THE NOUN.

§ **87.** Nouns are **inflected** (§ 83), or change their forms, to distinguish a name which denotes *more than one* from a name which denotes *one* object. This is called the inflection of **Number** (§ 41).

They are also inflected to denote the relation of **Possession** (§ 43). This is called the inflection of **Case.**

A few nouns are inflected to denote a difference in **Sex.** This is called the inflection of **Gender.**

The **Inflection** of a noun is called **Declension.**

**Number, Gender,** and **Case** are called **Attributes** of a noun. **Person** (§ 28) is also called an attribute of nouns, but is not indicated by inflection.

The principal use of a knowledge of these *attributes* is to determine the **pronoun,** which should be used in place of the noun, and the *form* of the verb to which the noun is subject.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Pea, | peas (individuals). | pease (different kinds). |
| Penny, | pennies (coins), | pence (value). |
| Cow, | cows, | kine (only in poetry). |
| Genius, | geniuses (men of genius), | genii (spirits). |

Many foreign words retain their original plural; as, *genus*, *genera*. No rules can be given for their inflection.

Some foreign words have an English plural, and also retain their original; as, *cherub*, *cherubs*, or *cherubim* (never cherubims).

Letters and figures form their plural by adding *s*, preceded by an apostrophe; as, Cross your *t*'*s*, and dot your *i*'*s*. Make your 9'*s* closed at the top.

Nouns denoting things weighed or measured, used in their common sense, have no plural idea, and, of course, no plural form; as, wheat, gold, sugar. If used in the plural, they either denote *different kinds*; as, *wines*, *teas*; or, things made of the material; as, *irons*, *brasses*. Names of chemical elements have no plural; as, *oxygen*, *iodine*.

**Abstract** nouns have no plural. **Collective** nouns sometimes express plurality without the plural form.

Some nouns have no plural form, but are used in both numbers; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*. (Give other examples.)

Some nouns have only the plural form; as, *victuals*, *embers*, *ashes*. In this class are several names of objects made up of two corresponding parts; as, *tongs*, *drawers*, *scissors*. (Give other examples.)

Some nouns which seem to have plural forms are always singular; as, *molasses*, *measles*, *news*.

§ **90.** In **Compound** nouns the plural ending is annexed to that part which is really made plural; as, *man-trap*, *man-traps*; *father-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*.

When **proper** nouns are preceded by a title before which a **specifying** or a **numeral** adjective stands, the *name* is made plural and not the *title;* as, our six Generals *Smiths;* the two Miss *Chapins.*

Whenever the same **surname** is annexed to two or more Christian names, preceded by a title, or whenever the same title includes different persons, the **title** is made plural; as, *Misses* Mary and Ellen Brown; *Messrs.* George and James Harper; *Generals* Meade, Banks and Butler.

In other cases, **either** the *name* or the *title* may be made plural; as, the *Misses Thompson;* or, the *Miss Thompsons.* Usage inclines to the latter form when the name does not end in *s.*

When *words* are used **substantively** they form the plural regularly; as, the *whys* and the *wherefores.* In long compounds the *s* is added to the last word; as, will-o'-the-wisps.

# LESSON XX.

## GENDER AND CASE.

§ **91.** A few nouns have an inflection corresponding to the different sex of the beings named by them; as, Abb*ot*, abb*ess;* hero, hero*ine;* Luci*us*, Luci*a.* This inflection is called **Gender.**

The use of gender is to determine what *pronoun* should be used instead of a noun in the *third person* and *singular number.* **Natural** gender depends upon the meaning of the word; **Grammatical** gender varies the form to express the meaning.

Nouns denoting **male beings** are of the

**Masculine** gender; nouns denoting **female** beings are of the **Feminine** gender.

Names of objects *without sex*, or whose sex is unimportant, are of the **Neuter** gender.

Names applied to beings of either sex are sometimes said to be of the **Common** gender; as, child, parent, cousin, pupil.

Nouns which are inflected to denote gender, change the *masculine* ending into **ess, ine,** or **rix,** to denote the corresponding *feminine.* **Ess** is the only English ending, the others belong to foreign words. Sometimes the endings are added to the masculine form.

Ex.—Actor, actress; hunter, huntress; count, countess; Joseph, Josephine; Wilhelm, Wilhelmine; hero, heroine; executor, executrix; administrator, administratrix.

Some foreign words have other endings.

Such words as uncle, aunt, king, queen, beau, belle, have natural gender, but the pronoun to be used for them is known by their **meaning,** not by their **ending.**

Sex is often ascribed to things without life by a figure called **Personification.** Objects remarkable for strength, violence, or size, are usually made masculine; those remarkable for grace, delicacy, or beauty, are made feminine. Thus, the sun, the wind, the winter, the frost, are masculine; the moon, the rose, the lily, the spring, are feminine.

In ordinary speech animals are masculine or feminine, according to their leading attributes. Thus the lion and elephant are generally masculine; the cat is generally feminine.

The masculine gender is used for all general state-

**Possessive**, or as **Absolute**; that is, without grammatical relation.

The **Possessive singular** is formed by annexing to the theme the ending **s**, preceded by an **apostrophe**; as, ship, ship's; river, river's.

The apostrophe shows the omission of a vowel (*e* or *i*) which in old English formed a part of this ending.

**Plural** nouns ending in s make their Possessive form by adding the apostrophe; as, farmers' wives; eagles' wings.

Plural nouns not ending in s make their Possessive form by adding **s** preceded by the apostrophe; as, women's.

Sometimes when a noun in the singular, of more than one syllable, ends in a *hissing sound* it adds the apostrophe only, especially before a word beginning with *s*, to avoid too many hissing sounds; as, Achilles' shield: Moses' disciples; conscience' sake.

**Complex** and **Compound** nouns, and nouns with modifying phrases regarded as one title, add the ending to the last word; as, *John Paul Jones'* ship; a *Major-General's* commission; the *King of England's* crown; *Smith the bookseller's* store.

§ **93.** A word given as a model by which to inflect other words is called a **Paradigm.**

FULL INFLECTION OF A NOUN.

| | **Singular.** | | **Plural.** | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* | *Masculine.* | *Feminine.* |
| **General form,** | hero, | heroine, | heroes, | heroines, |
| **Possessive,** | hero's, | heroine's, | heroes', | heroines'. |

## INFLECTION OF A NOUN WITHOUT GENDER.

| | **Singular.** | **Plural.** |
|---|---|---|
| **General form,** | river, | rivers. |
| **Possessive,** | river's, | rivers'. |

# LESSON XXI.

### THE VERB.

§ **94.** A **Verb** is a word whose office is to **assert,** and which usually asserts the **exist-ence, action,** or **state** of its subject (§ 8).

The word **verb** means **word,** and was given to this part of speech as the most important. In the Latin language, from which we derive the names of our parts of speech, it was frequently used alone as a complete sentence. Other words are of equal importance in meaning, but no other word can **assert.**

As verbs are necessary in every sentence, and as actions admit of more variations than objects, the verb has more variations of form than any other part of speech. Besides **asserting** action or existence, verbs have forms which **name** actions, and are, therefore, **verbal nouns.** These nouns differ from other nouns by admitting **verbal modifiers;** as, *To speak* well is very desirable.

The **theme** of the verb is that form which admits the preposition *to* before it; as to *have,* to *see.* This form is called the **Infinitive,** or *unlimited* form.

Verbs have also **Adjective** forms, called **Participles;** as, a *laboring* man; a *printed*

page. Participles are distinguished from other adjectives by their form, their derivation, and their modifiers.

From the same theme, then, we have **asser-tive** forms, or verbs proper, **Substantive** forms, and **Adjective** forms.

The Infinitive and Participle sometimes *imply* assertion (§ 52), but do not make it directly.

§ **95.** The **Inflection** of a verb is called its **Conjugation.**

Verbs are inflected to give a Substantive form, and two Adjective forms; to show the **time** of the act or state asserted; and to indicate the **Person** and **Number** of the subject.

Verbs have two **Adjective** forms; the **Imperfect** or *incomplete*, and the **Perfect** or *complete* form.

(The Imperfect is sometimes called the *Present*, and the Perfect the *Past* participle.)

The Imperfect participle is formed from the theme by adding *ing;* as, do-**ing,** be-**ing,** chang(e)-**ing.**

This form is also used as a **Substantive;** as, *Running* is violent exercise. When so used it is called a **Gerund,** or a **Verbal Noun.**

The Perfect Participle is formed from the theme by the endings **ed,** and **en.** **Ed** sometimes becomes **d** or **t,** and **en** becomes **n.** Examples:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Loved, | saved, | paid, | dealt, | discovered. |
| Written, | thrown, | given, | seen, | known. |

§ **97.** To express the fourteen different meanings given above, the theme *walk* has but three inflections; walk**s**, walk**ing**, walk**ed.** In place of varying the verb, the idea required is expressed by other verbal forms standing between the subject and the stem *walk*.

A Latin verb complete had over a hundred different endings; not counting the still greater number of inflections of its adjective forms. These endings were all significant. Thus serva**buntur** meant, *They will be preserved.* **B** denoted future time; **n**, the plural number; **t**, the third person; **r**, the passive voice; **u** was used simply to give the syllables a vowel sound.

The English verb has properly two tenses; called the **Present** and the **Past.**

The Present tense is used for general assertions, and may be used for either present, past, or future time. *The sun rises in the East*, means that it does generally; has risen there in the past, and will rise there in the future. *I go to St. Louis to-morrow*, implies future time. A historian describing a battle, speaks thus of the commander: "He *comes* in all haste, *finds* every thing in confusion." He uses the present as if the actions mentioned were going on in our sight.

§ **98.** Paradigm of the verbs **go** and **change.**

Present tense.

| | **Singular.** | | **Plural.** |
|---|---|---|---|
| First person, | go, | change. | go, change. |
| Second person, | go**est**, | change**st.** | go, change. |
| Third person, | go**es**, | change**s.** | go, change. |
| | (old ending **eth.**) | | |

Notice that the ending **st** marks the second singular, (which is used only with the pronoun thou), and **s** marks

the third singular. **Eth** is obsolete, except in solemn style and in poetry. The other forms are the same as the theme. **S** is the only *personal* ending in common use.

Past tense of the verbs **move** and **write.**

| | **Singular.** | | **Plural.** |
|---|---|---|---|
| First person, | moved, | wrote. | moved, wrote. |
| Second person, | moved**st,** | wrote**st.** | moved, wrote. |
| Third person, | moved, | wrote. | moved, wrote. |

Notice that the Past tense has but one personal ending, and that occurs in the second singular which is seldom used.

§ **99.** There are two methods of forming the Past Tense and Past Participle, already illustrated. *Move*, and similar verbs form the Past Tense by adding **d** or **ed** to the theme. The Past Participle of such verbs is the same as the Past Tense. **D** is sometimes changed into its corresponding non-sonant **t.**

Such verbs are of the **weak** (or regular) conjugation. Most verbs are conjugated in this way.

Some verbs — mostly of one syllable, and all of Anglo-Saxon origin — form their past tense by **changing the vowel sound** of the theme, and form their Past Participle by adding **n** or **en** to the theme, or to the Past Tense.

Such verbs are of the **Strong** (or irregular) conjugation.

For convenience, we call verbs *weak* and *strong*, instead of saying *of the weak*, or *of the strong* conjugation.

The **theme**, the **past tense**, and the **past participle**, are called the **Principal Parts** of a verb.

### PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS.

#### Weak Conjugation.

| THEME. | PAST TENSE. | PAST PARTICIPLE. |
|---|---|---|
| Change, | changed, | changed. |
| Pay, | paid, | paid. |
| Have, | ha(ve)d, | had. |
| Ask, | asked, | asked. |
| Gild, | gilt, | gilt. |

#### Strong Conjugation.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Know, | knew, | known. |
| Rise, | rose, | risen. |
| See, | saw, | seen. |

## LESSON XXII.

### § 100. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.

Before taking up compound verbal forms, it seems necessary to discuss a relation of the verb which belongs to Syntax rather than to Etymology.

In such expressions as *It seems; I may; That looks; He was informed; His name is; I gave; Franklin is called; The merchant sold;* there is a subject and a verb, or the *elements* of a sentence, and yet the sentence is not complete. An affirmation is made, but something more is needed to complete the sense.

intransitive verb is called **Neuter.** The dictionaries mark a verb which is usually transitive *v. a.*; that is, a verb active; and other verbs *v. n.*; that is, verb neuter. But the *use of the verb in the sentence* must determine. *Strike* expresses vigorous action, but is sometimes intransitive, as in the sentence "Strike for your altars and your fires!" The object of a verb may be developed by the question *whom* or *what?* Whom did you see? I *saw* the *Governor* (object of saw).

We heard that you were going. What did you hear? *That you were going.* (The clause is the object of *heard.*)

The object is often an *infinitive*, a *clause*, or an entire *sentence;* as, She heard *what he said.* He said "I will go."

A *Customary* object is often omitted; as, The farmer plows (the ground), and sows (the seed). The trader buys and sells (goods).

Care must be taken to distinguish the object from a noun forming *part of the predicate.* If the verb admits an adjective complement, it is not transitive. In the sentence, He is a sailor, *sailor* answers the question, What is he? but it is not an object, for *is* admits an adjective complement. This subject will be referred to again under *Pronouns* and under Syntax.

The object is often called an element of the sentence, but it is not an *essential* element.

# LESSON XXIII.

## IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE VERBS.

**§ 102.** Verbs which do not form the principal

parts according to the models given in the preceding chapter are called **Irregular.**

Verbs which are not used in all their parts are called **Defective.**

The most irregular verb in the language is *be*, whose conjugation is given below:

Principal parts, **be, was, been.**

Present tense, singular number, **am, art, is.**
Present tense, Plural number, **are** in all persons.
Past tense, singular number, **was, wast, was.**
Past tense, plural number, **were** in all persons.

**Have** is irregular by dropping the *v* before the endings, except before *ing*.

Present tense, sing., I **have**, thou **ha**(ve)**st**, he **ha**(ve)**s.**
Past tense, **ha**(ve)**d, hadst, had**, etc.

**Go** has no past tense, but supplies the place of one by borrowing from the verb *wend*.

Past tense, I **went**, thou **wentest**, etc.

The following verbs want the infinitive and the participles, and are irregular in their past tense:

**Theme**, may, can, must, shall, will,* ought.
**Past**, might, could, must, should, would, ought,

Returning to the Latin verb (§ 96), notice that the English verb has but two tenses to correspond to the six in Latin. Twelve of the fourteen meanings given for the Latin forms were expressed by combining the irregular and defective verbs given above with one another, and with the Gerund *walking*, and with the Infinitive *walk*. By such combinations a variety of

* *Will* has sometimes the regular weak past, *willed*.

meanings is expressed, even greater than in the Latin verb. The forms corresponding to the Latin tenses are generally called tenses of the verb which stands last in the group, and the preceding verbs are called **Auxiliaries**, or helpers. But really the verb which stands first in the group of verbal forms is the principal verb — the true asserting word — and the forms standing after it, which are not assertive forms, are its modifiers, complements or auxiliaries. The only word which varies its form is the first in the group. This admits personal endings.

§ **104.** The following groups of verb-forms correspond to the tenses of the Latin verb·

Present complete or perfect,

I have, thou hast, he has
We have, you have, they have } **walked.**

Past perfect,

I had, thou hadst, he had
We had, you had, they had } **walked.**

Future incomplete,

I shall, thou wilt, he will
We shall, you will, they will } **walk.**

Future perfect,

I shall, thou wilt, he will
We shall, you will, they will } **have walked.**

In this way are made up the forms for completed action in present or past time, and for future time, complete and incomplete.

§ **105.** To denote that an action is finished in present time, the present tense forms of *have* take after them the perfect participle.

# LESSON XXIV.

## PROGRESSIVE AND EMPHATIC FORMS OF THE VERB.

§ **107.** The **Progressive form** of the verb is made up of the forms of the verb *be*, followed by the *gerund*. This form presents an action as in progress, and corresponds to the ordinary meanings of the Latin tense forms.

A **Synopsis** of a verb is the giving of a single personal form in each tense.

Synopsis of the verb **send.** Progressive form, third person, singular.

Present, *is* sending. Present Perfect, *have been* sending. Past, *was* sending. Past Perfect, *had been* sending. Future, *will be* sending. Future Perfect, *will have* been sending. In the form *will have been sending*, *will* is the true verb, or assertive form; *have* is an infinitive complement, object of *will; been* is the past participle of be, and taken with *have* implies completion; *sending* is a gerund; it was once preceded by the preposition *a*, as we still say, *a-fishing*, and is an adjunct of *been*.

§ **108.** *Do* takes an infinitive after its present and past tense, and makes the **Emphatic** form of the verb; as, I *do* learn, I *did* try.

It is also used in questions before the subject; as, *Did* you go? *Do* you know? In negative sentences *do* may stand before *not* followed by an infinitive; as, He *does not know*, instead of he *knows not*.

§ **109.** *May*, *can*, *must*, *shall* and *will* take after them the infinitive; as, *may* learn, *might* hear, *can* talk,

*could* see, *must* stay. They often stand before the complete present and past forms of other verbs; as, *may have written, might have been.*

These verbs are often treated as if very peculiar in meaning. But if the pupil learns their exact meaning from a dictionary, he will find no difficulty in their use, except in explaining how their *past* forms can be used when the sense is plainly *future.* Thus, one says, "I *might* do that for you to-morrow." "We *could* easily stop that." What is *past?* Not the actions implied in *do* and *stop;* these are *present* forms, and may be used for the present or future. The speaker implies that something is past *in his own mind* which he is thinking of; some condition, for instance. "I might do that for you to-morrow, *if you wished me to do it.*" The conditional clause having its verb in past time, the other verb is *past* also. Compare "I *may* do it, if you *wish*" with "I *might* do it, if you *wished.*" The first sentence implies that the speaker is in doubt whether the person spoken to wishes it done; the second form implies that the doubt is past.

§ **110.** The forms of the verb already given are called the **Active Voice.**

The forms of the verb *be*, followed by the complete participle, make up the **Passive Voice;** as, *am loved, were seized, have been taken.*

This form does not in itself imply that the subject is passive, or has something done to it; but simply that the act is finished. By common usage this form is used when the act is not finished by the subject. Compare "I have finished the letter" with "The letter is finished."

The first gives prominence to the subject *I* as the *doer* of the action, the second gives the fact of *completion* as the important fact.

If the doer of the action is expressed in the Passive form, it is done by an adjunct which follows the predicate verb, introduced by the preposition *by*; as, The battle was won *by the English.* The same idea may be actively expressed thus: The English won the battle.

§ **111.** Only **transitive** verbs admit the passive form. Any idea expressed by the active form of a transitive verb, may also be expressed by the passive form, by making the direct object of the active form the subject of the passive form; as,

| ACTIVE. | PASSIVE. |
|---|---|
| I broke the stick. | The stick was broken. |
| They captured the city. | The city was captured. |

This distinction of the active and passive forms is a difference in *meaning*, rather than in form, and need not be given in analyzing the sentence. It is only given because pupils will find the term in general use, and ought to know what it means. There is just as much *passivity* implied in the sentence, The boy is *sick*, as in the sentence, The boy is *struck.* In either case, the last word in the sentence is an adjective, forming a part of the predicate.

§ **112.** Of late, a *progressive passive* form has been making its way into newspapers, and into common speech. It inserts *being* before the complete participle of the group. A synopsis of this form, third singular, is given below.

If thou *wert* wise, thou wouldest at once escape.

Though my foes *be* many, I am not afraid.

The third person singular of other verbs omits the ending *s* in the subjunctive form; as, If he *write* a letter, instead of, If he *writes* a letter.

*Have* is used in the second and third singular subjunctive, instead of *hast* and *has.*

The subjunctive forms are all **obsolescent,** except in the past tense of *be.*

§ **114.** The participle *having*, prefixed to a perfect participle, expresses completion in past time; as, *having written.* This is called the *compound* participle. In the same way *to have* takes the past participle after it, and forms a *compound*, or *perfect* infinitive; as, *to have seen, to have known.* This infinitive is not the equivalent of the Gerund, as the present infinitive is. I intended *to see you;* or, I intended *seeing* you, are correct; I intended *to have seen* you, is not correct, for a complete form is used instead of a general form.

§ **115.** *Beware, ought, quoth, wit,* and *think* in the sense of *seem* are defective.

*Beware* is used only in the infinitive, and in imperative sentences. *Ought* is past in form (from *owe*) but is used either as present or past. *Quoth* is used only in the past tense. *Wit* is used only in the infinitive. *Think* is used only in the present tense, third person singular, preceded by *me;* as, Methinks I see him now. The subject of *thinks* is the following sentence. The meaning is *It seems to me that I see him now.* In this latter sentence *it* stands for the sentence following *seems.* This verb *think* is not from the same root as the verb think which means *to have thoughts.*

# LESSON XXV.

§ **116.** The principal parts of weak verbs are easily formed from the theme. The variety of vowel changes in the Strong Verb renders it necessary to give a list of them.

## Regular Strong Conjugation.

| THEME. | PAST TENSE. | PAST PARTICIPLE. |
|---|---|---|
| Arise, | arose, | arisen. |
| Be, | (was,) | been. |
| Bid, | bade, | bidden, or bid. |
| Chide, | chid (obs. chode), | chidden, or chid. |
| Come, | came, | come (obs. comen). |
| Draw, | drew, | drawn. |
| Drive, | drove, | driven. |
| Eat, | ate, or eat, | eaten, or eat. |
| Fall, | fell, | fallen. |
| Forsake, | forsook, | forsaken. |
| Give, | gave, | given. |
| Go, | (went), | gone. |
| Grow, | grew, | grown. |
| Hide, | hid, | hidden, or hid. |
| Hold, | held, | held, or holden. |
| Know, | knew, | known. |
| Ride, | rode, | ridden, or rode. |
| Rise, | rose, | risen. |
| See, | saw, | seen. |
| Slay, | slew, | slain. |
| Smite, | smote, | smitten. |
| Stride, | strode, | stridden. |
| Take, | took, | taken. |
| Write, | wrote, | written. |

**§ 117.** Verbs whose Past Participle is formed from the Past Tense by adding *n*, or is the same as the Past.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Bear, | bore, or bare, | borne, or born. |
| Bind, | bound, | bound, or bounden. |
| Beat, | beat, | beaten, or beat. |
| Bleed, | bled, | bled. |
| Break, | broke, | broken. |
| Breed, | bred, | bred. |
| Cling, | clung, | clung. |
| Feed, | fed, | fed. |
| Fight, | fought, | fought (foughten). |
| Find, | found, | found. |
| Forbear, | forbore, | forborne. |
| Get, | got, | got, or gotten. |
| Lead, | led, | led. |
| Lie, | lay, | lain. |
| Meet, | met, | met. |
| Read, | read, | read. |
| Ring, | rung, or rang, | rung. |
| Run, | ran, | run. |
| Shoot, | shot, | shot (shotten). |
| Shrink, | shrank, | shrunk (shrunken). |
| Sit, | sat, | sat (sitten). |
| Sling, | slung, | slung. |
| Slink, | slunk, | slunk. |
| Speak, | spoke (spake), | spoken. |
| Spin, | spun (span), | spun. |
| Spring, | sprang, or sprung, | sprung. |
| Stand, | stood, | stood. |
| Steal, | stole, | stolen. |
| Stick, | stuck, | stuck. |
| Sting, | stung, | stung. |
| Stink, | stunk (stank), | stunk. |

Many verbs not given in this list contract *ed* in *t*; as, *blest*, *built*, *gilt*, *past*, for blessed, builded, gilded, passed.

Verbs of the *mixed* conjugation change the vowel and add *d* or *t* in the past tense: Bring, brought; buy, bought; do, did, (strong participle *done*;) seek, sought; sell, sold; teach, taught; think, thought.

### REDUNDANT VERBS.

§ **120.** A verb is **redundant** when it has double forms for any of its parts. Some examples have already been given. Many verbs once strong are *weak* in common use, but retain their strong forms in poetry. The following are among the more common redundant verbs:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Awake, | awoke, or awaked, | awaked, or awoke. |
| Cleave, (to adhere to), | cleaved, or clave, | cleaved. |
| Cleave, (to split), | clove, or cleft, | cleft, or cloven, |
| Clothe, | clothed, or clad, | clothed, or clad, |
| Dare, | dared, or durst, | dared, or durst. |
| Hang, | hung, or hanged, | hung, or hanged, |
| Heave, | heaved, or hove, | heaved, or hoven, |
| Light, | lighted, or lit, | lighted, or lit, |
| Saw, | sawed, | sawed, or sawn, |
| Seethe, | seethed, or sod, | seethed, or sodden, |
| Shine, | shone, or shined, | shone, or shined, |
| Wind, | winded, or wound, | winded, or wound, |
| Work, | worked, or wrought, | worked, or wrought, |

### DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ **121.** Verbs are derived from adjectives and nouns by adding the ending *en*. Such verbs signify *to make* or *to do* that which is implied in the primitive. Thus wid*en* means to make wide; length*en*, to make long.

Let the pupil give further examples.

Verbs are derived from nouns by a **change of accent.** The accent of the verb comes on the final syllable.

**Nouns,** ob'ject, cem'ent, sur'vey, trans'port, con'sort.
**Verbs,** object', cement,' survey', transport', consort'.

Let the pupil add to this list, which contains 150 words.

Verbs are derived from nouns by changing a **non-sonant** consonant into the corresponding **sonant.**

**Noun.** life, breath, cloth, grief, glass, use.
**Verb.** live, breathe, clothe, grieve, glaze, use.

Verbs are derived from Latin roots by adding **fy,** signifying to *make.* Thus, *amplify* means to make *ample ; glorify* to make *glorious ; certify* to make *certain.*

The ending **ize** with Greek and Latin roots has sometimes the same meaning; as, realize, to make real; Anglicize, to make English, or to give an English form or accent.

A few *strong* intransitive verbs form *weak transitive* verbs by a change of vowel; as, lie, lay; fall, fell; rise, raise; drink, drench.

## RECAPITULATION OF THE VERB.

§ **122.** The *Verb* has two **conjugations,** the **weak** and the **strong;** two simple **tenses,** the **present** and the **past;** two **substantives,** the **infinitive** and the **gerund;** two **adjective** forms, the **imperfect** and the **perfect participles;** two **voices,** the **active** and the **passive.**

It has also an **Emphatic** form, and a **Progressive** form, and forms which denote the *per-*

*son* and *number* of the subject. It has also an obsolescent **Subjunctive mode.** In form verbs are **regular** or **irregular; complete, defective,** or **redundant.** In respect to complement, they are **transitive** or **intransitive.**

The Compound forms are made up of the verbs **be, have, do, may, can, must, shall** and **will,** with their infinitive and adjective complements.

## LESSON XXVI.

### THE PRONOUN.

§ **123.** A **Pronoun** is a word used in place of a substantive, which admits only adjective modifiers, and can stand in any relation in which a noun can stand.

Adjectives are sometimes used in *place* of nouns, but do not admit the modifiers of nouns.

The substantive for which the pronoun stands is called the **antecedent** of the pronoun. It may be a *noun*, a *phrase*, a *clause*, or a *sentence.*

*Antecedent* means *going before*, but the substantive for which a pronoun stands often comes *after* it, or is unknown. When we ask "Who did it?" we use a pronoun for an unknown noun.

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

Personal pronouns are those which indicate

The *second* forms of the possessive are used when the name denoting the thing possessed is omitted; as, *yours* is better than *mine.* *Mine* and *thine* were formerly used for euphony before a word beginning with a vowel; as, *mine* eyes. Compare the use of *an* and *a.* In such a phrase as, A brother of *mine*, mine seems to be used instead of *me.*

*Its* is of recent introduction. It does not appear in the common version of the Bible published in 1611. *His* was employed in its place; as, the altar and *his* vessels.

*It* stands as the subject of the verb *be* followed by a substantive of either gender or number; as, It is they; It is the French; It was she.

*It* often stands as the subject of a verb whose real subject is a sentence, an infinitive, or a clause following the verb. *It* is then *redundant*, or unnecessary to the construction, and may be omitted by transposing the sentence.

*It* is no light thing *to violate one's conscience.*

*It* is not strange *that he is ashamed of his conduct.*

*It* is difficult *to hear him distinctly.*

By transposing these sentences, *it* may be omitted; as, *to hear him distinctly* is difficult.

*It* is sometimes used indefinitely; as, *It* rains; *it* thunders.

## COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ **126.** Myself, thyself, himself, herself, itself, ourself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, and themselves, are called **Compound Personal Pronouns.** They are used in two senses.

1. To make *emphatic* a preceding substantive which they modify; as, The king *himself*; I *myself*.

2. After a transitive verb; to denote that the action terminates upon the subject; as, I have hurt *myself*. That child will kill *itself*. They are then said to be used *reflexively*.

*Reflex* means *turn back;* the pronoun turns back our thought to the *subject*.

Rarely a compound personal pronoun is used alone as the subject of a sentence; as, *Thyself* shall see the act.

## LESSON XXVII.

### RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ **127.** The pronouns, **who, which, what, that,** and **as,** besides supplying the place of a substantive, perform the office of a connective, and join an adjective clause to the substantive which it modifies. When so used they are called **Relative Pronouns.**

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

The chief difference between the pronouns is in the position of the antecedent, which stands before the pronoun in case of the relative, and in case of the interrogative in the answer of the question. The relative has usually a *definite* antecedent; the interrogative has often an *indefinite* antecedent.

*Who* is the only word of either class which is always a pronoun. It applies only to persons, or to things personified; as, *The man who.*

*Which*, formerly used of persons, is now used only of things. It is properly a specifying adjective, and often is followed by a noun. In the expression "Our Father which art in heaven" we have the old use of the pronoun. Modern use requires "*who* art." Whenever in questions *which* is used of persons, a noun is always implied after it; as, which (man) was it?

*That*, also a specifying adjective, may refer either to persons or things; as, The men *that;* or, The words *that.*

§ **128.** *What*, as a relative, is never used when the antecedent is expressed before it. It is often indefinite. It can always be treated as a specifying adjective. It often stands at the beginning of a question which is the object of a verb, and should then be called an interrogative.

Ex.—He gave me *what* money he had. *What* is a specifying adjective.

Tell me *what* you saw. What is interrogative and indefinite. It may mean what *persons*, what *sights*, what *goods*, or any thing else. The noun *things* may be used after it. The clause *what you saw* is the object of *tell*, and is called an *indirect* question.

This is *what* I wanted. The clause *what I wanted* is the complement of *is.* The indefinite antecedent of *what* is omitted. *What* is the object of *wanted;* or, if it be called a specifying adjective, it modifies an omitted noun. If an antecedent is expressed, *what* is changed to *which;* the indefinite form to the definite.

Sometimes the antecedent *what* is expressed in the

would be indefinite, and a definite relative would be used; as, *Any one who comes*, etc.

*What* is sometimes an adverb in the sense of *partly*; as, *what* with running, and *what* with shouting, my breath was spent.

## PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

**§ 131.** Certain specifying adjectives are so often used without a noun following them, that they are sometimes called pronouns. *What*, *which* and *that* are examples. They are not strictly pronouns, but may be called **Pronominal adjectives.** Their number is not fixed, because the classification depends principally upon the frequency of their use. *This* and *that* (plural, *these* and *those*) are called **Demonstratives.** They have the same root as *the*, but are more emphatic. *This* refers to the nearer; *that* to the more remote.

*Each*, *every*, *either*, *neither* and *other* are called **Distributives.**

*Each* is used of any number taken one by one; as, Each of you shall have a share.

*Every* is more emphatic than each, and is used of any number more than two.

*Either*, *neither* and *other* are used of one of two. The ending **er** is comparative, and they should not be used of more than two. Instead of saying, *Either* of the three, say, *Any one of the three.*

*All*, *another*, *both*, *few*, *former*, *latter*, *many*, *much*, *none*, *one*, *own*, *same*, *several*, and *such* are generally classed as pronominal adjectives. *One* admits a complete declension, and might be called an indefinite personal pronoun. *Both* applies to two taken together.

**§ 132.** *Each other* and *one another* are called

*Reciprocals.* *Each other* is used when two are spoken of; *one another* is used of any number larger than two. They admit of declension, and add the declension endings to the last word.

They were beating each other, means, They *each* (of the two) were beating *the other.*

Little children, *love one another;* that is, do you *each one* love *another*, *any other*, or, *all the others.*

## LESSON XXVIII.

### THE ADJECTIVE.

§ **133.** The **Adjective** is a word which modifies or limits a substantive by naming some quality or attribute; or by pointing out which, or how many are meant. It can form a part of the predicate, but can never be a subject.

There are three kinds of adjectives.

1. **Descriptive** Adjectives, or Names of Qualities.

2. **Specifying** Adjectives, which point out *which are meant.*

3. **Numeral** Adjectives, which denote **Number.**

Descriptive adjectives are divided into **Variable** and **Invariable.** Variable adjectives name qualities which vary in degree; as, *sour*, *costly*, *large*, *small.* Invariable adjectives name qualities which can not be varied in degree; as, *golden*, *square*, *triangular.*

*Proper* adjectives are derived from proper nouns, and

are commenced with a capital letter; as *Websterian* intellect, *Socratic* method. After long and frequent use such adjectives may become common; as *martial*, *stentorian*.

**Material** adjectives denote the material of which any thing is made; sometimes that which it resembles. They are derived from nouns by adding **en**; as *golden*, *flaxen*, *leaden*, *brazen*, (from *brass*. Notice the consonant change.) A noun is often used instead of a material adjective; as *iron* chains, *steel* bolts, *silver* cord.

§ **134. Specifying** adjectives include *a*, *an*, and *the*, the pronominal adjectives, and a few others.

**Numeral** adjectives are of three kinds.

1. **Cardinals**, which are used in counting, and answer the question. How many? as, *one*, *twelve*, *twenty*.

2. **Ordinals**, which denote *which one in order*, either in time or in place; as *first*, *fifth*, *ninth*.

3. **Multiplicatives**, which denote the number taken together, or the number of parts which make up the whole; as, *two-fold*, *four-fold*, *single*, *triple*.

One by one, two by two, etc., are called *distributive* numerals.

A verbal adjective (§ 95) is derived from a verb by inflection, and admits verbal modifiers.

BY DIMINUTION.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Rapid, | less rapid, | least rapid. |

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Good, | better, | best. |
| Bad, Evil, Ill, | worse, | worst. |
| Much, Many, | more, | most. |
| Near, | nearer, | nearest, or next. |
| Late, | later, or latter, | latest, or last. |
| Old, | older, or elder, | oldest, or eldest. |
| Far, | farther, or further, | farthest, or furthest. |
| Little, | less, | least. |

*Much* denotes quantity, and is singular; *many* denotes number, and is plural. *Later* and *latest* are used only of time; *latter* and *last* of either time, or place. *Elder* and *eldest* are now used only of persons.

Specifying, numeral, and material adjectives are invariable. All nouns used as adjectives are invariable, though some may be modified by adverbs.

The adjectives junior, senior, major, minor, interior, exterior, prior, posterior, anterior, and superior are Latin comparatives.

Some adjectives take *most* as a superlative ending, instead of prefixing it as an adverb; as, *foremost*, *hindmost*.

§ **137.** In analyzing a sentence the degree of an adjective need not be mentioned, unless it is expressed by the ending. The modification by adverbs does not differ from any other modification.

The adjective of whatever class usually stands before its noun. Except when it is modified by an *adjunct* following; as, an agreeable man; a man agreeable in manner.

Some adjectives, mostly compounds of *a*, can be used only in the *predicate*; as, asleep, alive, awake.

Some adjectives which are really invariable are compared by way of emphasis, or because we do not use words in their *exact* meaning. We say, the house is fuller than usual to-night, meaning *more nearly full.* But, of course, if it were full it could not be more than full. So we say that one ball is *rounder* than another; that is, it comes nearer to a globular shape.

**§ 138.** The specifying adjectives *an* or *a*, and *the* are often called articles.

*An* is the same as *one*, and *any* is closely allied in meaning. Before a consonant sound *n* is dropped for euphony. As *an* is singular, it can only be used before a noun in the singular. *The* has the same root as *this* and *that.* It is used with nouns of either number.

*An* is used in general statements, indefinitely; *the* of something definitely known; as, I saw *a man* (indefinite) passing. In a moment I saw *the man* (definite) turn back, etc.

Often *an* and *the* differ principally in emphasis.

An honest man's the noblest work of God.

The honest man's the noblest work of God.

In the expressions *the* more, *the* better, the is an adverb.

Certain numerals, as *hundred*, *thousand*, are used as collective nouns in the singular, and admit the article *an*; as, a thousand (of) men.

In such expressions as *many a time*, the phrase *many*

*a* has a distributive force, and can agree with a singular noun.

## LESSON XXIX.

### THE ADVERB.

§ **139.** The **Adverb** is a word whose office is to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. It rarely modifies prepositions, and frequently serves as a connective.

Its name means *added to a verb*, and it stands in the same relation to the verb that the adjective does to the noun; so that all modifiers of the verb are sometimes called, collectively, adverbial modifiers.

A few adverbs admit the inflection of **comparison**, and are compared like adjectives; as, soon, sooner, soonest.

The following adverbs are irregular in comparison; Well, better, best; ill, much and little, whose adverbial forms are the same as the adjective forms already given (§ 136); far, farther, farthest; forth, further, furthest.

Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pronouns and prepositions.

Many words are either adjectives or adverbs according to the connection. They are often interchanged in poetry, either for rhyme or for meter.

| ADJECTIVES. | ADVERBS. |
|---|---|
| *Much* gold, | *Much* worse, |
| The *farther* side, | They went *farther*. |
| The *still* hour, | He fared *still* better. |

§ **140.** Many adverbs are derived from descriptive adjectives by adding **ly**; as, brave*ly*, earnest*ly*, knowing*ly*.

pound a pronoun. *Thereof* was formerly used as the possessive of *it* (§ 124); as, Gaza and the villages thereof. *Whereof* was used instead of *of what* or *of which*; as, The *country* whereof ye spake. *Thereof* and *whereof* are *adjective modifiers* of substantives, and may be called adjectives, or separated into the preposition and its subsequent, calling the first part a pronoun.

§ **142.** The principal relations denoted by adverbs are, **manner, time, place, direction, degree,** and **number.** Besides these there are **modal** adverbs which modify the assertion; and **adverbial connectives.**

Adverbs of Manner answer the question *How?* as, well, nobly, skillfully.

Adverbs of Place are sub-divided into those of

1. Place *in* which; as, *here, yonder, hereabouts.*
2. Place *from* which; as, *thence, away, forth.*
3. Place *to* which; as, *homeward, ashore, thither.*

Adverbs of Time include those which denote

1. Time present; as, *now, to-day, yet, now-a-days.*
2. Time past; as, *already, yesterday, formerly.*
3. Time future; as, *to-morrow, hereafter, henceforth.*
4. Time in general; as, *always, forever, aye.*
5. Time repeated; as, *often, once, thrice, usually.*

Adverbs of Degree are divided into

1. Adverbs of abundance or excess; as, *greatly, totally, fully, altogether.*
2. Adverbs of equality or sufficiency; as, *enough, precisely, so, as, even, quite.*
3. Adverbs of deficiency; as, *less, hardly, scarcely, partly.*

Adverbs of number may be referred to *Time repeated* and *Place in order.*

Modal adverbs modify the assertion, and may be

1. Emphatic; as, *verily*, *certainly*, *indeed.*

2. Affirmative; as, *yes*, (obsolete *yea*), which modifies either a preceding verb, or a sentence following.

3. Negative; as, *no* (used in modifying like yes), *not*, *nowise*, *nay.*

4. Doubtful; as, *perhaps*, *possibly*, *perchance.*

Adverbial connectives are adverbs which connect a clause to a sentence. They are generally derived from the relative pronoun; as, *why*, *wherefore*, *when.* They modify the verb of the clause. Occasionally they have an antecedent adverb in the principal clause; as,

*Then* shall we know, *when* Christ shall come. Often the antecedent is a noun; as, at the time when (at which) kings go out to war.

§ **143.** The adverb and the preposition are closely related, and a preposition without a subsequent is usually an adverb.

It is the usage of the language that the subject should stand before the predicate. We noticed in § 125 that when a sentence is the subject, *it* often precedes the verb, so that it may not stand without an apparent subject. The adverb *there* is used in the same way before the verb *be;* as, *There* were many. *There* is no doubt. *There* will be a shower. This sounds less abrupt than, A shower will be, No doubt is.

Words used for sound, and not affecting the sense are called **Expletives.** *There* as used above is a good example. It is said to be used *expletively*, and has no modifying power.

# LESSON XXX.

## THE PREPOSITION.

**§ 144.** A Preposition is a word whose office is to connect a substantive with a word which is modified by the preposition and the following substantive in a manner denoted by the preposition.

The word *preposition* means *placed before*, because the preposition stands before the substantive. The substantive which follows is called the **subsequent** of the preposition. The preposition and its subsequent are together called an **adjunct.** The preposition is called the **base** of the adjunct.

A pronoun used as a subsequent of a preposition has the *objective* form.

To the list of prepositions given in § 34, the following may be added:

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| aboard, | athwart, | ere, | throughout, |
| amidst, | besides, | out, | underneath, |
| amongst, | betwixt, | round, | unto, within. |

Some of the above are only different forms of the prepositions given before. All prepositions are of Saxon origin.

**§ 145.** The following are prepositions less frequently used. Those in italics are borrowed from foreign languages, and are not fully recognized as good English:

A (as a-fishing), abaft, adown, afore, aslant, astride, despite, inside, *maugre*, *minus*, outside, *per*, *plus*, *sans*, *versus*, *via*.

Sometimes the preposition is incorporated with the verb in *meaning*, but not by *position*; as, They *went by* the house. *By* is joined to the *verb* in sense; not to the noun. Compare, They went *by water*, where *by* is a preposition.

He *brought up* a family; He is well *spoken of*; He *gave up* his situation, are other examples of a preposition compounded with a verb.

Two prepositions are sometimes used with one subsequent; as, Our acquaintance *with* and mastery *of* English. Better, Our acquaintance with English and our mastery of it.

The subsequent of a preposition may be an entire clause; as,

*Ere* the blue heavens were stretched abroad.

*Till* the work was finished.

## LESSON XXXI.

### THE CONJUNCTION AND THE EXCLAMATION.

§ **148.** The **Conjunction** is that part of speech whose office is to connect **words, phrases, clauses,** and **sentences.**

The Conjunction forms no part of the sentence in which it stands, and has no modifying power. Its meaning determines the relation in which the terms connected stand to each other.

Adverbs and relative pronouns may connect clauses to sentences, but do not connect words, nor independent sentences.

Words connected by conjunctions are usually of the

same part of speech, and in the same relation in the sentence; as, Samuel *or* Robert will come *and* help you.

**§ 149.** The following lists contain the common conjunctions:

1. *Pure* conjunctions, or words used only to connect. Although, and, because, if, lest, nevertheless, nor, or, than, though, unless, whereas, whether.

2. Conjunctions or prepositions. But, for, since.

3. Conjunctions, or adverbs. Also, as, even, then, yet.

4. Conjunctions, or adjectives. Both, either, neither, that.

Conjunctions are classified into

1. **Co-ordinate,** which connect words in the same relation, or sentences in the same form; as,

Art is long, *and* time is fleeting.

2. **Sub-ordinate,** which connect a clause to a principal sentence, making the sentence complex; as, This work will be done, *if* you will do your part.

**§ 150.** The following are the principal meanings expressed by conjunctions:

1. **Addition;** as, The blind *and* dumb *both* spake *and* saw. Conjunctions connecting terms in the same relation, and to be considered together, are called Copulative.

2. **Separation;** as, Take one *or* the other. *Either* you are mistaken, *or* I am. These conjunctions imply a choice between two, and are called Disjunctive.

3. **Opposition**, or **Contrast;** as, He is rich, *but* economical; He was defeated, *yet* he persevered.

4. **Cause;** as, The wall fell, *because* the stream undermined it. This dependent clause is called a *Causal* clause.

5. **Conclusion;** as, He is innocent, *therefore* he is confident. *Then* is often used instead of therefore.

6. **Purpose;** as, He came *that* he might receive his commission. Instead of a clause with *that*, an infinitive is often used; as, He came to receive.

7. **Condition;** as, *If* you wish, you can have it.

8. **Concession;** as, *Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.

9. **Comparison;** as, He learns faster *than* I. He is as strong *as* a lion.

Comparison of difference is denoted by *than*; comparison of equality by *as*. *As* often connects a noun to another noun which modifies it; as, He sent him as ambassador.

§ **151.** Conjunctions are often used *correlatively;* that is, if one conjunction is used in the first member of two terms connected, the other is employed in the second. The principal correlatives are both —— and, either —— or, whether —— or, neither —— nor, if —— then, though —— yet, or still.

If the first of one of these pairs is used in the first member, its *correlative* must be used in the second. "*Neither* the one *or* the other" is not correct, because *neither* requires the correlative *nor*. The first of the correlatives is often omitted.

When two connectives come together, there is usually a transposition, or an ellipsis of some clause.

*And if* it be true, why do you fear?

And why do you fear, if it be true?

In the first of the above, the two conjunctions *and* and *if* come together. By transposing the sentence, they are separated and brought in their proper order, *and* connecting the complex sentence to some preceding sen-

A **Sentence** is the complete expression of a thought by means of words.

The expression of a thought involves, at least, three things.

1. Some subject of thought.
2. Some idea which is connected with the subject.
3. Some word which *expresses* the connection of the first and second ideas.

Thus if one has the idea of *glass*, and connects with it in his mind the idea of brittleness, he expresses the connection of the two ideas by a word which asserts; as, glass is brittle.

The second idea may take an *assertive* form, or two ideas may be expressed in one word; as, trees grow.

The first idea is that of *trees*, the second, of *growth*, and the word *grow* asserts the second idea of the first. A sentence must contain two words.

§ **154.** The **Subject** of a sentence is that of which something is asserted.

The **Predicate** of a sentence is that which is asserted of the subject.

The **Elements** of a sentence are the subject and the predicate.

The subject of a sentence is a substantive, either with or without modifiers. The predicate is a verb either modified or unmodified.

A thought may be expressed as a declaration of the belief, or the purpose of the speaker, as a question, as a command, or as an exclamation. The word *assert* is used to express any one of these forms of communicating thought.

There are four kinds of sentences; **Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative,** and **Exclamatory.** (See § 58, 59.)

A declarative sentence is called a **Proposition.** A **general** proposition has no limit, or modification; as, Fire burns. Iron is heavy.

A **limited** proposition is restricted to bounds defined by limiting words; as, *This* fire burns *well.*

The affirmation of the last sentence is restricted to one specified fire, and *burns* is modified by an adverb of manner.

§ **155.** Any word which limits the application, explains the meaning, or completes the sense of another word, is said to **modify** that word.

My Newfoundland dog likes to swim.

This assertion is limited; it is made of but one dog, and the word *dog* has two modifiers, one telling what kind of dog, and the other to whom the dog belongs. *Likes* has a modifier completing its meaning, telling what the dog likes.

The **Simple** subject is the substantive without modifiers; the Simple predicate is the verb without modifiers.

The **Logical** subject and predicate are the simple subject and predicate with their respective modifiers.

The honest man who found the purse restored it without delay to the owner.

The simple subject of the above is *man*, the simple predicate is *restored*. The logical subject is *the honest man who found the purse;* the logical predicate is *restored it without delay to the owner.*

§ **156.** A **Simple** sentence has one subject and one predicate.

A compound sentence is made up of simple sentences combined. It can be separated into simple sentences.

Either the subject or the predicate, or both, may be made compound; as, John and James read and write.

A **Clause** contains the *elements* of a sentence, but does not make complete sense. It is always used as a modifier.

A **Complex** sentence contains a clause as a modifier; as, They also serve *who only stand and wait.*

A sentence may be both compound and complex. A complex sentence may contain several clauses, either in the subject or in the predicate.

An **Independent** sentence makes sense by itself; a **dependent** sentence is the same as a

The appositive usually stands after the word which it modifies, and is in the same *case* (§ 92) as the modified word. It is often equivalent in meaning to an *adjective clause;* as, Napoleon, the first emperor; or, Napoleon who was first emperor.

The different words which make up a Complex noun may be regarded as appositives, and when the possessive relation is to be expressed by a noun modified by an appositive, the *'s* is annexed to the last word; as, King Richard's crown; Allen the bookseller's store.

The appositive is sometimes connected with the noun by the conjunction *as;* as, I gave him a ball *as* his birthday *present.*

Instead of a noun in apposition, an adjunct with the preposition can sometimes be employed; as, the city Boston, or, the city of Boston.

The *whole* is often modified by its *parts* in apposition with it; as, They went in haste; *some* to the field, *some* to the garden, *some* to the forest.

A noun is sometimes in apposition with a sentence or something implied in it; as, I must tell the whole truth; a painful *duty.* The truth *that all men are created equal* is self-evident.

The pronoun *it* is often in apposition with a clause, sentence, or phrase following the verb of which *it* is the subject (§ 125). *It* is a good thing *to give thanks.*

A substantive used in apposition to two or more nouns must be in the plural; as, Helen and Mary, *pupils* in the same school.

§ **158.** A noun or pronoun in the Possessive Case limits the noun denoting the thing possessed; as, his book. Mary's slate. Achilles' shield.

Adjectives of all kinds, including articles, pronominal, verbal, descriptive, specifying, and numeral adjectives, modify nouns.

An adjective may be the complement of a verb, and is then said to *refer* to the subject, but does not *modify* or *limit* it.

The grass is green. The grass *grows* green, *looks* green, *becomes* green.

*Green*, in the above, is a quality or attribute of grass, but in each case the quality is *asserted*, and the subject is not modified.

A participle standing in an abridged proposition (§ 52, § 175) may be said to *refer* to the noun which would be the subject of the clause, if it were not elliptical.

Adjectives which imply the singular idea, like *an*, *one*, *each*, *either*, should be used only with nouns in the singular number; those which are plural in meaning, like *both*, *these*, *many*, should be used only with nouns in the plural number.

The adjective properly stands before the noun which it modifies. The pronoun does not admit the adjective before it.

The specifying adjective *the* stands before descriptive and numeral adjectives modifying the noun; as, the white house; the two Scipios. But *all* and *both* take *the* after them; as, all the gold; both the men.

**§ 159.** The only adjunct which generally modifies the noun is that which is introduced by the preposition *of*; as, the roof of the house.

The adjunct with *of* is generally equivalent to the possessive case, and is gradually displacing the posses-

sive. With few exceptions, the possessive form is limited to *pronouns*, to *proper names*, and names of living things.

By the abbreviation of prepositions, an adjunct often stands in such close relation to a noun, that it is said to modify it, when strictly it modifies an omitted word. Thus, in the phrase, "The man in the moon," the adjunct *in the moon* is really an abbreviation of the clause *that is in the moon*, and modifies the omitted verb. But speaking concisely, it may be said to modify *man*, because it is a part of a clause which modifies *man*.

§ **160.** Clauses modifying nouns are generally introduced by a *relative pronoun*, and are called relative clauses. (§ 127.) They are often equivalent to an adjective, either descriptive or specifying. Thus, *yonder man*, means, the man *who stands yonder*; the *honest man*, means, the man *who is honest*.

Relative clauses have two distinct uses. The first is to modify by way of restriction, or description. In this sense they are the equivalents of adjectives. The second is to add some fact which might be expressed by an independent sentence.

They *who are truly wise* begin heaven here.

The clause limits the subject.

Jackson, *who was always impetuous*, sprang up in a rage.

The clause does not limit, but adds a fact. Although it refers to *Jackson*, it really gives a reason why he sprang up. Jackson sprang up in a rage, *for* he was always impetuous, would express nearly the same idea. An appositive often expresses the idea of such a clause.

# LESSON XXXIV.

## MODIFIERS OF THE PRONOUN, ADJECTIVE, ADVERB AND PREPOSITION.

§ **161.** The **Pronoun** admits three classes of modifiers, the **Appositive**, the **Adjunct**, and the **Clause.**

The appositive is very common with the pronouns of the first and second person; as, I *Paul* beseech you. We *Consuls* are remiss. You rich *men* know nothing of our burdens. You *rogue!* You idle *fellow!*

The adjunct is rarely used with the pronoun; as, They *of the city*; who *of you all?*

The clausal modification of the pronoun differs in nothing from the noun modification.

§ **162.** The **Adjective** may be modified by an **Adverb**, and by an **Adjunct**, including the infinitive, and by a noun used in an adverbial relation.

Adverbs modifying adjectives are generally of *degree*, or of *emphasis*; as, *somewhat*, *rather*, *excessively*. Verbal adjectives are modified by adverbs of nearly every class.

The variety of adjuncts admitted by the adjective is very great. The verbal adjective may be modified by any preposition with its subsequent. Descriptive adjectives are most frequently modified by adjuncts whose bases are *of*, *in*, *to* and *for*; as, eager *for* praise; desirous *of* going; useful *to* the fields; strong *in* purpose.

§ **163.** The infinitive modifying an adjective is a

true *adjunct*, with the preposition *to* as its base. It is the equivalent of the Gerund (§ 95), as may be seen below:

Good *to eat*, or, good *for eating*.
Apt *to teach*, or, apt *in teaching*.
Fair *to see*, or, fair *to the seeing*, or, *to the sight*.
Anxious *to learn*, or, anxious *for learning*.
Competent *to instruct*, or, *for instructing*.

This construction is further explained under the head of the **Infinitive**, (§ 181).

The preposition proper to use after the adjective should be carefully noted; as, agreeable *to*; delighted *with*; different *from*; like *to*.

§ **164.** Adjectives denoting **time, measure, distance** and **value** are modified by a noun used adverbially; as,

The book is worth *a dollar*. (Value.)
He is sixteen *years* old. (Time.)
The wall is four *feet* thick. (Measure.)
Harrisburg is five *miles* away. (Distance.)

Noticing other languages which denote relation by *ending*, we find that nouns used adverbially have the *objective* form. But in parsing, it is enough to say that the adjective is modified by the noun expressing value, time, etc.

The adjectives *like*, *near*, and *opposite* admit a substantive modifier; as, like *me*; near the *wall*; opposite the *house*. This modification is an abbreviated adjunct. The preposition *to* is often expressed before the noun. The adjective may be said to be modified by the noun used adverbially, or by an adjunct with the preposition omitted.

§ **165.** The **Adverb** may be modified by other adverbs, chiefly by those denoting *emphasis* and *degree;* and by adjuncts; as, *very* wisely, *most* kindly, where *in the world*, never *in my life.*

The **Preposition** is nearly related to the adverb, and therefore sometimes admits an adverb as a modifier; as, *just* about going, *close* beside him.

The **Conjunction** and the **Exclamation** neither modify, nor are modified.

## LESSON XXXV.

### MODIFIERS OF THE VERB.

§ **166.** The **Verb** admits four classes of modifiers; the **Object**, the **Adjunct**, the **Adverb**, and the **Clause.**

The Object is the substantive complement of a verb which does not admit an adjective complement. (§ 100, 101.) Such verbs are called *transitive*, and the complement is called the **Direct Object**, and limits the verb to a single thing.

The direct object, if a personal name, answers the question *whom?* if the name of a thing, the question *what?*

A noun used as object has the general form. The

Care must be taken not to consider all adjuncts with *to* or *for* as indirect objects. This object is usually *personal.*

He sold his wheat *for cash.* *For cash* is not an indirect object, but the name of the buyer preceded by *to* would be.

§ **168.** Some verbs which do not admit the direct object, admit the indirect; as, This is *for me;* It seems strange *to me.*

In the compounds *methinks* and *meseems*, the *me* is an indirect object, and the subject of the verb is a following sentence or clause.

Methinks I see a fair and lovely child.

*It* seems to me *that I see*, etc. (For the use of *it*, see § 125.)

The second form is the common prose use. Shakspeare wrote, "When it *thinks* best unto your royal self." A modern writer would say, "When it *seems* best."

Woe worth *the day!* Woe is *me!* If *you* please.

The above are examples of the indirect object. *Worth* is an obsolete defective verb in the sense of *be.* *You* is not the subject of the verb, but the indirect object; and the clause was once written, If it you please.

When a sentence containing a direct and an indirect object is put into the passive form, the direct object becomes the subject, and the indirect object is retained; as, They gave me *a book* (active form); A book was given me (passive form).

§ **169.** The infinitive, either with or without a preposition, is used as the direct object of a verb; as, They can *go.* He might *learn.* Let us try *to learn.* Boys expect *to become men.* When do you begin *to plant?* I dare not *go.*

Verbs signifying *to appoint*, *to call*, *to choose*, *to name*, and *to make*, admit two objects, one of which is direct, and the other is a complement of the idea expressed by the verb and the first object; as,

They called the city *Cleveland.*

They made Richard their *leader.*

The first object expresses that upon which the action is exerted; the second expresses the *result* of the action.

When sentences of this kind assume the passive form, the first object becomes the subject, and the second remains as a part of the predicate, and has no modifying power; as, Richard was made *leader.*

The verbs *ask* and *teach* take properly a direct and an indirect object, but as the preposition is seldom expressed before the indirect object of these verbs, it is sometimes said that they take two direct objects. Either object is used as a subject in the passive form, and the other object is retained after the verb.

They asked me a question. A question was asked me; or, I was asked a question.

We taught him grammar. He was taught grammar; or, Grammar was taught him.

§ **170.** The principal differences between the active and the passive forms are these. The active form gives prominence to the *subject*; the passive form makes prominent the fact of *completion.* The active form of a transitive verb requires complements; the passive, except with the verbs given above, does not.

The complement of a verb may be a sentence, a clause, or a phrase; as in the following:

His only answer was, "*You must do it.*"

We heard *that you had been ill.*

Without raising his head, he said, "*To the left.*"

§ **171.** An abridged clause is sometimes used as the complement of a verb; chiefly with verbs denoting *thought* and *sensation.*

An abridged clause, when used as a complement or object, omits the connecting word, changes the subject, if a pronoun, to the *objective form*, and changes the *assertive* form of the verb to the *infinitive*, or, sometimes, to the *gerund.*

### OBJECT CLAUSES UNABRIDGED.

I believe *that she is truthful.*

They knew *that he was an Italian.*

She felt *that these words were true.*

All men wished *that the work should go on.*

They heard him *that he sang.* (This expression is obsolete.)

### OBJECT CLAUSES ABRIDGED.

I believe *her to be truthful.*

They knew *him to be an Italian.*

She felt *these words to be true.*

All men wished *the work to go on.*

They heard *him sing*, or, They heard him singing.

In many common expressions the full form has become obsolete, and the abridged is the only proper form; as, They made *him tremble.* I saw *him do* it. Hear

Many adjuncts, like modal adverbs, modify the whole assertion; as, *Of course*, he will go. *Without a doubt*, he will succeed.

An adjunct often modifies a verb and its modifiers; as in the sentence, "In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth." The adjunct *in the beginning* modifies not simply the verb *created*, but the verb and its object. God *created the heavens and the earth* in the beginning.

§ **173.** 3. The **Adverb** is generally used as a modifier of the verb. All modifiers of a verb are called by the general name *adverbial*.

The adverb is often equivalent to an adjunct; as, *speedily*, for *with speed*; *emphatically*, for *with emphasis*; *soon*, for *in a short time*.

A noun may be used as an adverbial modifier of a verb. (Compare § 165.) This modification is used with intransitive verbs to express **time, quantity, direction** and **value.** He remained a *year*. The field measures five *acres*. We are going *home*. He has gone *east*. This happened last *week*. Flour costs nine *dollars* a *barrel*. This horse weighs twelve hundred *pounds*.

This adverbial modifier originally had the objective form, and a noun so used may be called an adverbial objective.

It may be asked, why not call a noun used adverbially an *adverb?* Why not call a noun used in apposition an *adjective?* The principal reason is that a word is classed according to its *general* use, and when its *class-name* is once fixed, it is well, when its use in the sentence puts it into another class, to recognize in the name applied to it, both its *general* use, and its *special* use. When we say "An adjective used as a noun," we recognize

the *general* use of the word as an adjective, and its *special* use as a noun.

§ **174. Clauses** used as modifiers of verbs are principally of the following classes:

1. **Temporal,** or such as denote time. They are usually introduced by an adverb of time; as, He will hear us *when we pray*. Sometimes a preposition introduces the clause; as, Charles waited *till* he heard the bell.

2. **Causal,** or such as express the reason of some assertion. They are generally introduced by the causal conjunctions *because* and *for;* as, He does it, *because* he can not help it.

3. **Inferential,** which denote a conclusion from a previous sentence; as, I believed, *therefore* have I spoken. *Then* and *now* are sometimes used in inferential clauses; as, Tell me, *then*, what you mean to do. *Now* we are satisfied that this is an absurdity.

4. **Conditional,** or such as denote doubt, or supposition; *If it were so*, it was a grievous fault. *If we are to do it*, you must let us know to-morrow. *If* and *whether* are most frequently used in conditional clauses. Conditional clauses generally modify a *proposition* rather than a verb.

5. **Concessive,** or such as admit something, while an opposite, or contrasted statement is made; as, *Though you oppose me*, I will go on. The concessive clause is sometimes an imperative whose verb is followed by the conjunction *that;* as, Grant that this story is true, what does it prove? *Yet* and *still* are frequently used in the principal sentence as correlatives to *though* in the concessive clause.

6. **Final,** or those which express purpose; as, It is

my intention *that order be maintained.* *That* and *lest* most generally introduce final clauses. The *infinitive* is very often employed to express purpose.

In conditional, concessive and final clauses, the subjunctive mode (§ 113) is still employed; particularly the forms of the verb *be.*

**§ 175.** Temporal and causal clauses are often abridged by dropping the connective, and changing the assertive form of the verb to the participle; as, *Having finished* his work, for *when he had finished* his work; *Crossing the river*, or, *having crossed* the river, for, *when he had crossed* the river.

In such contractions as the above, the subject of the clause is the same as that of the leading sentence. The participle is then said to *refer* to the subject, and an assertion is *implied*, but not directly made.

When the subject of the clause is not the same as that of the leading sentence, the connective is omitted, and the subject remains, with a participle instead of the assertive form; as,

*When the war was over*, the prisoners were released.

*The war being over*, the prisoners were released.

The noun in such clauses is said to be **absolute,** or used without grammatical relation. When a *pronoun* is the subject of such a clause, it retains the form of the subject; as, *He having been elected*, the opposition was diminished, instead of *when he was elected.*

An independent member of a compound sentence is sometimes shortened into a participial clause; as, *Taking a lamp*, he opened the door, instead of, *He took a lamp* and opened the door. *Taking* refers to *he.*

I knew *that he was a soldier.* I knew *of his being a soldier*, or, *of his having been a soldier.*

6. As the subject of an **infinitive** in an abbreviated object clause (§ 171). A pronoun so used has the objective form.

7. As a part of a predicate, without any grammatical relation. This substantive complement is employed only after intransitive verbs, and especially after the verb *be.*

Ex.—He was a *sailor.* They became *merchants.* He fell a *victim.* I walk a *queen.* He died a *martyr.* It is *I.* It is *we.*

A noun used as the complement of an intransitive verb has the general form, and a pronoun so used has the nominative, or subject form. In analyzing, say that the substantive is a part of the assertion, or predicate.

8. This same construction is used in abridged prepositions, both after the infinitive and the participle; as, *To be a Roman* was greater than a king. *His being a cripple* prevented his obtaining the place. The subject in either of these sentences is the abridged clause. *Roman* and *cripple* are a part of the implied predicate. A noun so used is often called the predicate Nominative, because it has the nominative, or general form. This form of the abridged clause may be the subsequent of a preposition; as, The atrocious crime of *being a young man.*

When in an abridged object clause, the infinitive *to be* is used with a subject before it, a pronoun which forms part of the predicate has the *objective form;* as, I believe *it* to be *him.* You knew *it* to be *me.*

8. As **absolute,** with a participle, in an abridged clause. This use *implies* the subject relation, and a substantive so used has the subject form.

9. As **absolute,** in direct address, when the noun has no relation to the sentence, and has the general form.

10. As an **adverb**, modifying adjectives and verbs denoting Time, Quantity, Direction and Value (§ 165, 173).

§ **177.** The **adjective** has two distinct offices.

1. To modify or limit nouns.

2. To form a predicate with intransitive verbs.

The adjective when modifying or limiting a noun generally stands before the noun. It may be a part of the predicate when a pronoun, an infinitive, or any substantive phrase is employed as the subject. It is then said to *refer* to the subject.

Numerals and a few pronominal adjectives contain the idea of number, and must be used with nouns which correspond to them in number. Nouns which have the same form in both numbers may be modified by singular or by plural adjectives; as, *one* pair; *three* pair. *Five* yoke of oxen. In the expression *this ten years*, *this* is singular, because *one period* is implied.

§ **178.** The Verb has endings in the second and third persons singular of the present tense, and in the second singular of the past tense, to show the person and number of the subject. In these forms, the verb is said to *agree* with its subject, and the singular forms should never be used with a plural subject, nor a plural form with a singular subject. Observe that a word may be singular in form, but plural in idea, and that a collective noun (§ 86) may take a verb in either form.

Two times two *are* four. Two times two *is* four. Both forms are used. The singular form is preferable.

(For a full discussion of this expression, see Goold-Brown's Grammar of Grammars; pp. 587–591.)

*Upwards of a million bushels have* been received. *Over a thousand dollars have* been collected.

Some use the singular verb in the above, and consider the logical subject as an expression for a sum, or a quantity. *Bushels* is the subject of the first sentence, and *million* is the subsequent of *of*. *Bushels upwards of a million* is the order of the sense.

§ **179.** The verb properly stands after its subject. Except in Interrogative and Imperative sentences, and when the sentence is transposed for emphasis, or for meter; as, *Ask* you why? *Have* we changed? *Did* you know? *Break* we our watch up. Go thou. *Great is* Diana of the Ephesians! *Parched was* the grass, and *blighted was* the corn.

Except also conditional clauses, when the conjunction is omitted; as, Were it so, instead of *if it were so.*

When the subject is properly a clause standing after the verb, *it* often stands before the verb as an apparent subject.

The verbs *lack*, *need* and *want* are sometimes used in the simple form instead of the compound; as, There *needs* no evidence, instead of *no evidence is needed.* There *lacked* not men of daring, instead of *were not lacking. Need* often omits the ending of the third person singular; as, He need not go.

The active form is sometimes used instead of the passive; as, Wheat *sells* readily, instead of *is sold.* No one is *to blame* (to be blamed).

§ **180.** When the subject is compound, and the substantives composing it are connected by *or*, or *nor*, the verb agrees with the *nearer* subject in person and number; as, You or I *am* mistaken. (Better, You are mistaken, or I am.) Neither the citizens, nor the city *pleases* him.

used after the great majority of verbs, and came in time to be regarded as the true infinitive form. The preposition was retained after its meaning had entirely disappeared. And even when the infinitive is used as subject, we find *to*, the preposition appropriate to the *indirect object*, standing before it.

§ **182.** The infinitive, then, as it now exists in our language, comes from three sources.

1. From an old nominative and objective form in *an*, which never had a preposition before it. This infinitive is used as the direct object of a verb, and sometimes in the predicate of an abridged clause; as, do *go*; may *send*; let us *see*.

2. From the old indirect object form, after the preposition *to*. In many cases, the preposition still takes the infinitive as a *subsequent*; as, good *to eat*, that is, *for eating*; a house *to let*, that is, *for letting*; glad *to hear*, that is, *at hearing*; too late *to see* him.

3. From the form preceded by *to*, from a mistaken notion that the preposition is a part of the form. In this sense, *to* has no meaning. This form is used as a subject, as a direct object, and as part of a predicate; as, *to hear* is *to obey*; *to err* is human, *to forgive* divine. This form is even used as the subsequent of another preposition; as *about* to go. Nothing should ever stand between the preposition *to* and the following infinitive. *To thoroughly comprehend* is incorrect. The adverb should stand after the verb.

§ **183.** The following are the principal uses of the infinitive.

1. To express **purpose**; as, Do not stop *to play*; that is, for the purpose of playing. I flee unto thee *to*

*hide* me; that is, for the purpose of hiding. I am going to Quincy *to buy* grain.

2. To express **cause**; as, I am glad *to know* it. We are pained *to hear* of his conduct.

3. As an **adjective modifier**, or in the sense of the imperfect participle; as, in the time *to come*; that is, *coming time*. Our kings *to be*; that is, *future* kings.

4. After *as*, to express **result.** So great *as to surpass* himself; that is, great as the surpassing of himself. Who is so wise as *to know* these things? That is, Who is so wise as the knowing these things would prove him to be? (*To surpass* and *to know* are the subjects of omitted verbs.) Remember the commandments *to do them.* He is too old *to be caught.*

5. As an **adjunct**, in a great variety of meanings. It is often equivalent to a relative clause, or to a descriptive adjective; as, an event *to be deplored*, or a *deplorable* event. A character *to admire*; that is, *which should be admired*, or, an admirable character.

6. It is used in place of the **participle** in abridged clauses, referring to the subject; as, *To return* to our subject, that is, *returning* to our subject. *To tell* the truth, I did it. *Telling* the truth, I did it. Every common-sense man has, *so to speak*, a stereoscopic vision. The phrase *so to speak* means *speaking thus*, and the implied subject is indefinite; *one* might speak thus.

The Gerund and the Infinitive represent the action of the verb in a general sense, without any distinction of Voice. Hence, in the phrases, a house *to let*, the picture which is *painting*, there is no necessity for using a passive form.

§ **184.** The Imperfect Participle in Saxon had the ending *and*, which distinguished it from the Gerund;

but both endings in time became *ing*. The verbal form ending in *ing* has three distinct uses, which may now be distinguished by three distinct names.

1. It stands before a noun as a modifier; as, a *thresh-ing* machine, *running* water, a *standing* army. It is then called a **Verbal Adjective.**

2. It is used as a Substantive, either as a subject, a complement, or an adjunct modifier; as, Your *writing* looks well. Leave *wringing* of your hands. I am *doing* what you told me to do. My brother is *going a-hunting*. I saw him *running*, that is, in the act of running. The water is *boiling* (not *being boiled*). It is then called a **Gerund.**

3. It is used to imply Assertion, in abridged clauses, either with a noun absolute in the same clause, or referring to the subject or object of the principal sentence, or to some indefinite word. It is then called a **Participle.**

### EXAMPLES.

1. With a substantive *absolute*.

*This having been done*, they returned in triumph.

The enemy *having received* reïnforcements, the siege was raised.

Notwithstanding his struggles, he was bound fast.

His mission *having been fulfilled*, he returned to Carthage.

2. Referring to the subject or object of the principal sentence.

Nouns *ending* (which end) in *et* are generally Diminutives.

*Having* a little leisure, I write to you.

*Finding* that the enemy were giving way, he ordered a charge.

# LESSON XXXIX.

## TRANSPOSITION. ANALYSIS.

**§ 186.** The proper order of words in English has been already indicated, but a brief review is given.

The subject and its modifiers stand first in the sentence, the verb next, and the *complements* of the verb last. The indirect object without a preposition precedes the direct.

Descriptive, definitive, and numeral adjectives stand before the noun. Except when themselves modified by an adjunct which stands after them.

The adjunct generally stands after the word which it modifies.

The appositive stands after the noun which it modifies; the possessive before.

Adverbs modifying adjectives precede them.

Adjective clauses stand directly after the nouns which they modify.

Conditional, temporal, and concessive clauses stand before the principal sentence. Also adjuncts denoting time.

The modal adverb stands before the sentence, or between the verb and its infinitive complement; as, They dare *not* go. *Doubtless* he will succeed. *Certainly* it is there.

The order of subject and predicate is regularly

inverted in Interrogative and Imperative sentences.

The order of the sentence is changed for emphasis, for euphony, for variety, and in poetry, for rhyme and metre.

§ **187.** Before analyzing a sentence, it is desirable to arrange its parts in their logical order, or, to *transpose* words.

### EXAMPLES OF TRANSPOSITION.

"High with the last line scaled her voice, and this
All in a fiery dawning wild with wind
That shook her tower, the brothers heard."

*Transposed.*— Her voice scaled high with the last line, and her brothers heard this in a fiery dawning all wild with wind that shook her tower.

In the costly canopy o'er him set
Blazed the last diamond of the nameless king.

*Transposed.*— The last diamond of the nameless king blazed in the costly canopy set o'er him.

### MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

A *complete* analysis should embrace every word, and give its relations to other words and to the sentence. Written analyses of sentences should be required often. They serve as composition, punctuation and spelling exercises, and are too important to be omitted. Pupils should be taught to abbreviate their work, so as to save time in writing and correcting. Written analyses may be exchanged by the pupils in class; one pupil may read,

and the rest may criticise and correct errors. When the pupils are reasonably familiar with analysis, the simpler modifications may either be omitted or briefly indicated, and the attention directed to obscurer points.

§ 188. Society has almost always begun in inequality, and its tendency is towards equality.

The above is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two propositions, connected by the conjunction *and*. *Society* is the first subject; it is unmodified; *has begun* is the simple predicate; *has almost always begun in inequality* is the logical predicate. *Has begun* is modified by the temporal adverb *always*, and by the adjunct *in inequality*, denoting *place where*. *Always* is modified by the restrictive adverb *almost*. The second subject is *tendency; is towards equality* is the predicate. The subject is modified by the possessive *its*. *Is* is the simple predicate, it requires a complement, which is the adjunct *towards equality*. The present tense denotes a general truth. The adjunct forms a part of the predicate, and does not modify any thing.

§ 189. PARSING OR VERBAL ANALYSIS OF THE SAME.

*Society*, common noun, 3rd singular, subj. of the sentence.

*Has*, verb, present, 3rd singular, weak conj., drops *v* before the ending *s*, taken with its complement *begun* forms pres. perfect tense.

*Almost*, an adverb of degree, modifies *always*.

*Always*, an adverb of time repeated, modifies *begun*.

*Begun*, past part. of strong verb *begin*, adj. complement of *has*.

*In*, a preposition, base of the adjunct.

*Inequality*, abstract noun, subsequent of *in*, and with it modifies *begun*.

*Selfish*, desc. adj., from n. *self.*, mod. *politician.*

*Time-serving*, comp. desc. adj., made up of n. *time*, and verbal adj. *serving*, mod. *politician.*

*Politician*, comm. n., part of pred.

The sentence is compound and complex; each of the two members containing an abridged clause as an object.

**§ 191.** A *figured* verbal analysis, simply pointing out the parts of speech, is convenient for brief written exercises; as in the following example. The numbers above the words indicate the parts of speech as numbered in § 6.

4 1 6 4 1 1 2 5 6 4 1
The tower of old Saint Nicholas soared upward to the skies,
4 4 4 1 6 1 1 4 1 6 1
Like some huge piece of Nature's make, the growth of centuries.

Relations of words may also be figured to the eye by any method which the teacher may choose to adopt. The best way of fixing the different relations of nouns, different offices of the infinitive, etc., is to require the pupils to compose, or select examples of whatever is to be illustrated, and to present them in writing for the criticism of the teacher and the class. Thus the teacher may require as the lesson of the day, that each of the ten constructions of the noun and pronoun (§ 176) shall be illustrated by two examples, either composed by the pupils, or selected from some author.

It is not recommended, at this stage, to require of the pupil the reason of every assertion. Time is really frittered away when a pupil who possesses ordinary intelligence, and has been studying language for years, is required to tell the reason why he calls the most familiar name a noun. This minute common-place analysis belongs to the elementary work, and is then in place, and important. The teacher should now aim to present to the pupil the points which involve most difficulty.

§ **192.** A few passages are given with questions developing the most important points.

I sometimes hold it half a sin
To put in words the grief I feel.

For what does *it* stand? Of what part of speech is *half?* What verb corresponds to *half*, and how is it formed? (§ 121). Construction of *half* and of *sin?* Construction of *to put?* Does *to* have a subsequent, or is it used without meaning? Would *in* or *into* be used in prose in this passage? Illustrate their use by examples and determine when *in* should be used, and when *into*. What is omitted after *grief?* Verb corresponding to *grief?* Is *feel* transitive, or intransitive?

Go! leave me, priest; my soul would be
Alone with the consoler, Death:
Far sadder eyes than thine will see
This crumbling clay yield up its breath.

How many sentences in the above? How many *imperative* sentences? Principal parts of *go?* of *leave?* Construction of *priest?* Why is *would* used in the past tense when the speaker is contemplating something in the future? (§ 109). Does *alone* ever stand before a noun? Construction of *Death?* Why commenced with a capital? When is *thine* used instead of *thy?* Why is *thine* employed instead of *yours?* What does *thine* limit? Object of *will?* Object of *see?* Is *see* an assertive, or an infinitive form? Construction of *clay?* Of *yield?* Of what part of speech is *up?* What verb corresponds to *breath?*

# LESSON XL.

## FIGURES OF SPEECH.

§ **193.** A **Figure of Speech** is an intentional departure from the ordinary form, order, construction, or meaning of words. Figures of Speech are intended to give emphasis, clearness, variety, or beauty.

They are divided into Figures of Orthography, of Etymology, of Syntax, and of Rhetoric.

§ **194.** A figure of Orthography is an intentional mis-spelling of a word.

**Archaism** is the spelling of a word after the old form, or the use of an obsolete form instead of the modern: as, *kynge* for king; *kauphé* for coffee; *spake* for spoke; *strook* for struck. For many examples in a modern poem, see Jean Ingelow's "High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire."

**Mimesis** is the mimicking of an incorrect pronunciation by false spelling; as,

Hans Schnitzer *hat* a *vloshipede*,
*Von* of *de* newest *kint*.

§ **195.** Figures of Etymology are changes in the ordinary forms of words by additions, omissions, and by separation of parts.

**Aphæresis** is the omission of one or more letters at the beginning of a word; as, *'gainst* for *against*; *'gan* for *began*; *'tis* for *it is*.

**Ellipsis** is the omission of words essential to the structure of the sentence. It is more common in speech than in writing, as the looks and gestures of the speaker supply the place of omitted words. Words omitted are said to be *understood.* Any member of the sentence may be omitted, even the verb; as, I'll (go) hence to London. My father is wiser than I (am.)

The ellipsis of the infinitive and participle of *be* is frequent; as, This (being) done, they returned. I consider him (to be) an honest man.

It is inelegant to end a sentence with the preposition *to*, requiring an infinitive subsequent; as, He did not escape, but he tried *to.* Either express the infinitive, or change the order.

**Pleonasm** is the use of superfluous words; as, John *he* said that he would go. I know *thee* who thou art. The emphatic repetition of a word is a kind of pleonasm. An apposition may be a pleonasm. A series of nouns in the same connection are often summed up in one word; as, Father, mother, children, servants, *all* were swept to ruin in a moment.

**Syllepsis** is the use of a word according to the *sense*, and not according to the *form* of some word to which it refers.

Philip went down to Samaria and preached Christ unto *them.*

*Them* would be *it*, were it not for the figurative use of *Samaria* for the people of Samaria. The pronoun is used according to the sense, not the form. The use of a plural form of the verb with a collective noun in the singular is a kind of syllepsis.

**Enallage** is the use of one part of speech for another, or of one form for another. The use of the plural *you* for the singular *thou* is a common example; also of *we*

for *I*. In poetry, the Adjective and the Adverb are often interchanged. The use of a pronoun for a verb is under the same figure; as,

Whom *thouest* thou, Scot?
If thou *thouest* him some thrice, it shall not be amiss.

**Hyperbaton**, or **Transposition**, is a change in the usual order of words.

"Do they call virtue there forgetfulness?" for, Do they there call forgetfulness virtue?

"Wander the wide world over," for, wander over the wide world.

§ **197.** Figures of Rhetoric, also called **Tropes**, are deviations from the ordinary meaning of words.

A **Simile** is a direct comparison of two objects, by way of explanation, or of embellishment. It is generally introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so*, with a correlative in the second member of the comparison. The introductory word is often omitted.

Like as a father pitieth his children, so the LORD pitieth them that fear Him.

The sun is dying like a cloven king
In his own blood.
Sunset is burning like the seal of God
Upon the close of day.

A **Metaphor** is a comparison implied, but not expressed; as, God is a *rock*. His name is a *tower* of strength.

A great city lying in its smoke,
A *monster* sleeping in its own thick breath.

An **Allegory** is a story designed to illustrate some moral truth, containing a continued metaphor.

Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress is the best example of an allegory carried through an entire work. Many of the Scripture parables are metaphors. Some fables are metaphors.

**Metonymy** is a substitution of one name for another related name; as the name of an author for his works; an effect for a cause; the container for the thing contained; the sign for the thing signified; a place for its inhabitants; the material for the thing made of it; as,

We are reading *Shakespeare*. *Gray hairs* deserve respect. He drank the *cup* to its dregs. He carried away the *palm*. Hear me, *Rome*. He drew his *steel*.

**Synecdoche** is the putting of a part for a whole, or a whole for a part; as, a *sail* for a ship; a *roof* for a house; a *winter* for a year; *bread* for food.

**Hyperbole** is extravagant metaphor or a comparison beyond all reasonable limits. *Cold as Greenland* for a severe winter day; *light as day*, for a clear moonlight night; waves *mountain high*; *awful*, for very; *splendid*, for good or excellent, are common examples of hyperbole.

**Apostrophe** is a turning aside from the order of narration to address some real or imaginary character; as in the "Fall of Warsaw" the author turns away from his narrative with this apostrophe,

"O righteous Heaven! ere Freedom found a grave
Where slept the sword, omnipotent to save?"

**Personification** is the representing an inanimate object, or a brute, as endowed with human attributes; as, "Lazy wire!" exclaimed the *dial-plate*, holding up its hands. "If you are satisfied," replied the *monkey*, "Justice is not."

**Irony** is a playful or sarcastic statement of something intended to be taken in a sense exactly opposite; as one

transitive; gives emphasis to transitive verbs; and is sometimes expletive.

Ex. 1. Becloud, bedim. 2. Bethink, belie. 3. Bedeck, bepraise. 4. Begird, beloved.

**Mis** signifies *wrong*, *ill*, or is simply negative. Mistaken, mis-shapen, mistrust.

**Un** denotes negation. It is used with many adjectives and verbs, and always before participles which admit a negative form. *Unkind*, *unman*, *unknowing*, *unwept*.

**With** (German wider) denotes *against*, *from*; as, *withstand*, *withhold*, *withdraw*. It has no connection with the preposition of the same spelling.

## LATIN PREFIXES.

§ **199. A, ab,** or **abs** means *from*, *away*; as *avert*, turn away; *abduct*, lead away; *abstract*, draw away.

**Ad** (changing *d* into *c*, f, l, n, p, and s before those consonants respectively) means *to* or *at*; as, *adduce*, bring to; *accede*, yield to; *affix*, fasten to; *ally*, bind to; *annex*, tie to; *apposition*, putting to; *assume*, take to; *attract*, draw to.

**Ante** means before; as, *antediluvian*, before the deluge.

**Circum** means *around* or *about*; as, *circumjacent*, lying about.

**Com** (**co, col, con, cor**) means *with* or *together*; as, *commingle*; *co-partner*; *colloquy*, talking together; *conjoin*; *correlative*.

**Contra, contro** (French **counter**) means *against*; as, *counteract*.

**De** means *from* or *down*; as, *depart*, *descend*.

**Dis** or **di** implies separation; as, *disjoin*, *divert*, turn aside.

**E** or **ex (ef)** means *out;* as, *eject*, cast out; *expel* drive out; *efface*, rub out.

**Extra** means *over*, *beyond;* as, extraordinary.

**In (il, im, ir)** with verbs, means *in*, *into*, or *upon;* with nouns or adjectives it is usually negative; as *incident*, *illumine*, *immerse*, *irradiate;* *injustice*, *immoral*, *illegal.*

**Inter** means *between* or *among;* as, *intermix*, *intermeddle.*

**Ob (oc, of, op)** means *against* or *to;* as, *obtrude*, push against; *occur*, run against; *offer*, bring to; *oppose* put against.

**Per** means *through* or *by;* as, *permeate*, flow through; *perchance*, *perhaps.*

**Post** means *after;* as, *postpone*, put after.

**Pre** means before; *premeditate*, *prefix.*

**Pro** means *for*, *forth*, *forward;* as, *proconsul;* *propose*, put forth; *propel*, to push forward.

**Re** means *back* or *again;* as, *recall*, *re-establish.*

**Se** means *away* or *aside;* as, *seduce*, lead away; *secede*, withdraw.

**Semi** (Greek **hemi**, French **demi**) means *half;* as, *semi-circle.*

**Sub (suc, suf, sug, sup, sus)** means *under;* as, *subterranean;* *succor*, literally *running under;* *suffer*, labor under; *suggest*, put under; *supposition*, placing under; *suspect*, look under.

**Super** is the opposite of *sub;* as, *superhuman*, *supernatural.*

**Trans** means *over*, *across*, *beyond*, or *through;* as, *transfer*, carry over; *transport*, carry across; *transgress*, go beyond; *translucent*, shining through.

## GREEK PREFIXES.

§ **200.** Words which contain *ch* hard, *ph*, or *y* except at the beginning or end, are usually of Greek origin; as, *monarch*, *physic*, *synonym*.

**A** or **an** has a negative force; as, *acephalous*, headless; *anarchy*, without rule.

**Anti** means against; as, anti-slavery.

**Apo** or **aph** (Latin ab) means *from*, or *away;* as, *apostrophe*, turning away; *aphæresis*, taking away.

**Dia** means *through;* as, *diameter*, measure through.

**Epi** or **eph** means *upon;* as, *epitaph*, upon a tomb.

**Hyper** (Latin super) means *above, over;* as, *hypercritical*, over-critical; *hyperbole*, overshooting.

**Hypo** (Latin sub) means *under;* as, *hypothesis*, putting under.

**Meta** means *over, beyond;* as, *metamorphose*, change over.

**Peri** means *around;* as, *perimeter*, measure around.

**Syn, syl, sym** (Latin com) means *with*, or *together;* as, *syllable*, taking together; *symphony*, sounding together; *syntax*, putting together.

## FRENCH PREFIXES.

**A** means *to;* as, *adieu*, to God; *alarm* (a l'arme), to call to arms.

**De** or **d'** means *of* or *from;* as, *deliver*, free from; *D'etroit*, of the strait.

**En** or **em** is the Latin *in;* **sur** is the Latin *super*.

## ENGLISH SUFFIXES.

§ **201. Dom**, in a noun, indicates the *quality*, *state*, *condition*, or *jurisdiction* of the primitive; as *freedom*, *martyrdom*, *wisdom*, *dukedom*, *Christendom*.

# PROSODY.

## LESSON XLII.

§ **203. Prosody** treats of **Accent, Versification** and **Punctuation.**

**Accent** is a stress of voice laid upon certain syllables for euphony, for pointing out the emphatic idea, and to distinguish different uses of the same word.

If all syllables were pronounced with the same force, the monotony would be intolerable. The regular succession of accents distinguishes verse from prose; as,

"And the sheen′ of their spears′ was like stars′ on the sea′."

In compound words the accent is on the first part, because the emphatic *distinction* is in the first; as steam′boat, row′boat. The verb is distinguished from the noun by throwing the accent forward (page 123.) Accent for euphony is common in prose, even when a sentence is made up of monosyllables; as, Give′ me the book′.

Every word of more than one syllable has an accent. Polysyllables may have two or more accents; as, ex′-po-si′-tion, un′-in-tel′-li-gi-bil′-i-ty.

§ **204. Emphasis** is that variation of tone, of form, or of position in the sentence, by which *special attention* is called to any word.

It is generally expressed by **contrast**; a louder tone is contrasted with the ordinary level of the voice; in loud passages, it is often expressed by *dropping* the voice; and generally an emphatic word is followed by a pause, to contrast a sound with silence.

**Rhythm** is a regular succession of accents.

**Verse** is made up of sentences rhythmically arranged.

**Rhyme** is a correspondence of two words in final sound with a difference in initial sounds; as pl*ain*, m*ain*; Atl*antic*, gig*antic*; unf*ortunate*, imp*ortunate*. It usually occurs at the end of verses.

§ **205.** A **Verse** is a single line in rhythmic order.

**Poetry** is the language of strong imagination. It is a nobler term than *verse*. The multiplication table can be put into verse, but not into poetry. Poetry does not necessarily imply rhyme or rhythm, but generally includes rhythm.

Unrhymed poetry is called **blank verse.**

A **Canto** is a principal division of a long poem.

A **Stanza** is a regular division of a poem, made up of a uniform number of verses, repeated in regular order. It is often erroneously called a *verse*.

§ **205.** A **Foot** is a combination of an ac-

cented syllable with one or more unaccented syllables. The following are the four feet most used in English verse:

1. The **Trochee**; an accented syllable following an unaccented; as,

"Sail′ of sat′in, mast′ of ce′dar."

2. The **Iambus**; an accented syllable following an accented; as,

"Thy shores′ are em′pires changed′ in all′ save thee′."

The iambus is the most common foot in English verse. Most of the longer poems of Milton, Pope, Young, Campbell, and Byron are in ten-syllabled iambic lines. Scott used mostly the eight-syllabled iambic line.

3. The **Dactyl** is a foot composed of an accented syllable followed by two unaccented; as,

"In′ the Aca′dian land′, on the shores′ of the ba′sin of Mi′nas." (The last foot is a trochee.)

4. The **Anapest** is the dactyl reversed; two unaccented syllables followed by an accented; as,

"And his co′horts were gleam′ing in pur′plė and gold′."

The following lines may help to fix the feet in memory. The *Spondee*, which accents every syllable, is rarely found in English verse. For *long* and *short*, understand *accented* and *unaccented*.

"Tro′chee trips′ from long′ to short′;
From long to long, in solemn sort,
Slow′ Spon′dee′ stalks′, strong′ foot′, yet ill able
Ev′er to come′ up with Dac′tyl trisyl′lable;
Iam′bics march′ from short to long′;
With a leap′ and a bound′ the swift An′apests throng′."

It is sometimes used after the address of a letter (p. 73) instead of the semi-colon.

It is also used when a sentence is added to a previous sentence as an illustration, without a connecting word; as, No writer can expect always to write his best: good Homer sometimes drowses.

The **Semi-colon** (;) is used between sentences which are independent in meaning, and yet stand connected; which are in similar relation to some other sentence, or have the same form, particularly when the sentences are divided by the comma; as,

We must not take this for the invention of fancy; the fact is confirmed by a dozen eye-witnesses.

I have often wished that I could concentrate my mind upon one purpose; that I could direct the energy of my life to one pursuit; that I could conquer my habit of dreaming about the future; and could work in the present time as my only certain opportunity.

A professed Catholic, he imprisoned the pope; the orphan of St. Louis, he became the adopted child of the Republic; in the name of Brutus, he grasped without shame, and wore without remorse, the diadem of the Cæsars.

§ **210.** The **Comma** (,) is used to separate words, phrases, sentences and clauses which stand closely connected, and are in the same relation; as, in this sentence, *Words*, *phrases*, *sentences* and *clauses* are all in the object relation to *separate*, and are separated by the comma.

When only two terms are used, and a co-ordinate conjunction is expressed between them, or between the last two of a series, no comma is needed, as in the above, or as, He is wise and brave. They laughed and shouted.

If one of two similar terms has a modifier which stands after it which does not modify the other, a comma must be used between; as, He came in great haste, and was greatly frightened. He works hard, and earns good wages. If an ordinary connective is omitted, a comma takes its place; as, His life is dark, desolate. When words are joined in pairs by conjunctions, a comma separates the pairs; as, He may be prince or peasant, fool or philosopher, rich or poor, but he shall have a shelter.

Nouns absolute by address are set off by commas; as, "Romans, friends, countrymen, lend me your ears."

An appositive standing after its noun, with any modifier except the *article*, is generally set off by the comma; as, Franklin, the American philosopher. Rome, the mistress of the world.

An abridged participial clause is set off by the comma; as, Having found our friend, we set out for home. Alexander, having conquered the world, wept for more worlds to conquer.

A long subject containing a clause as modifier is generally separated from the predicate by a comma; as, Wellington, who defeated Napoleon at Waterloo, was born in 1769.

Adjuncts modifying the predicate are set off by the comma when they precede the subject. A short adjunct of time is sometimes excepted.

Ex.—In 1853, in the village of Barton, a singular phenomenon was observed. In winter we slide and skate.

When a word is repeated for emphasis, a comma separates the repeated word from the preceding; as, Now, now is the time. Yes, yes.

A modal adverb, adjunct, or clause, is generally sepa-

rated by the comma; as, Certainly, I will do it with pleasure. Of course, this made trouble. If you wish, it can be moved.

A careful study of the punctuation employed by good writers is recommended as the best guide for common use. Authorities differ widely, particularly in the rules for the use of the comma. Close connection in sense forbids any point. A long sentence does not require a point within it simply because it is long. Reading pauses are no sure guide. The sense alone determines.

§ **211.** The **Interrogation Point** (? ; *the semi-colon inverted*) is placed after every direct question. A direct question means one which requires an answer. If the question is quoted with the form of the verb changed, it is indirect, and does not require the interrogation point.

Ex. He said, "Will you venture?" (Direct.)

He asked me if I would venture. (Indirect.)

The **Exclamation Point** (!) stands after the exclamatory sentence, and after most exclamations; as, Alas! what folly! Pshaw! how absurd!

The **Apostrophe** (') denotes the omission of a letter; as, e'er for ever.

**Quotation Points** (" ") are used to inclose a passage taken from another author or speaker; as, Solomon hath well said, "He that hateth suretyship is sure."

**Single** quotation points are used when a quotation stands in a quotation; as,

"What haste hast thou? Ride softly! take thy breath! What bringst thou here? He answered, 'War and death.'"

The **Hyphen** (-) is used between the parts of a compound word; as, ant-hill, red-hot, will-o'-the-wisp.

It is used at the end of the line when a part of the word is carried over to the following line; as, parenthesis. The syllable should never be divided.

# APPENDIX.

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## USE OF CAPITALS.

**§ 212.** 1. Capital letters should be used at the beginning of each independent sentence.

2. At the beginning of each proper noun and adjective. Common nouns personified are included, and all appellations of the Deity, whether noun or adjective.

3. At the beginning of each noun, adjective or verb in a title; as of a book, or of a society.

4. Every line in poetry should commence with a capital.

5. The pronoun *I* and the exclamation *O* are always in capitals.

6. A direct quotation commences with a capital.

7. Personal pronouns of the second and third persons referring to the Almighty are sometimes commenced with a capital. This usage is gaining favor, but is not universal.

8. Capitals are sometimes used at the beginning of an emphatic word, instead of putting the whole word into italics.

9. Headings of chapters, running titles of books, and the principal divisions of books are printed wholly in capitals. In advertisements, posters and other matter designed to attract special attention, capitals are freely used.

## RULES FOR SPELLING.

§ **213.** I. Final **f**, **l**, and **s** are doubled in monosyllables when preceded by a vowel; as, *stiff*, *ball*, *pass*. Except if, clef, of, as, gas, has, his, is, pus, this, thus, us, was, yes, and the third singular of verbs which end in silent e.

II. Other final consonants remain single. Except ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, burr, butt, buzz, fuzz.

III. **A**, **h**, **i**, **j**, **k**, **q**, **u**, **v**, **w**, **x** and **y** are never doubled. **Q** is always followed by **u**.

IV. Monosyllables and words accented on the final syllable, which end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, **double the final consonant** on receiving an ending which commences with a vowel; as, budding, rubbed, written, committee.

The doubled consonant indicates the short sound of the preceding vowel. Thus *hŏpping* is distinguished from *hōping* by the doubled consonant.

Usage varies in regard to words ending in *el*, and a few others. Webster follows the above rule. Worcester doubles the l; as in *traveller*.

V. Final **e mute** is dropped before an ending which commences with a vowel; as, forc(e)ible. Except after **c** and **g** to preserve the soft sound, *singeing* and *dyeing* to distinguish them from *singing* and *dying*, and words ending in **ee** and **oe**; as, *agreeable*, *shoeing*.

VI. E mute final is retained before an ending which begins with a consonant; as, *careful*. Except duly, truly, awful, wholly, judgment, abridgment, acknowledgment.

VII. Final **y** preceded by a consonant becomes **i** on receiving an ending which commences with any letter except **i**; as, *merriment*, *pitiless*, *pitying*.

1. **Patronymics;** or names derived from the name of a father, or ancestor. English patronymics end in *son*, and every familiar first name or nick-name has its corresponding patronymic.

Ex.—Adamson, Davidson, Johnson, Peterson, Jackson, Wilson = Williamson, Dickson or Dixon = Richardson, Anderson = Andrew's son.

*Fitz*, a corruption of the French *fils*=son, is used as a *prefix* in patronymics; as, Fitz James, Fitz Maurice.

Scotch patronymics have the prefix *Mac* or *Mc;* as, McClellan, Macgregor. The Irish prefix is O, said to mean *grandson.* The Welsh prefix the preposition *ap*, meaning *of*, to the name of the father, and ap, contracting with the following name, gives us several patronymics commencing with P; as, Powell, for *ap Howell;* Price, for *ap Rice.*

2. **Surnames of Occupation.** Many of these are derived from verbs, and end in *er.*

Ex.—Baker, Brewer, Cooper, Fowler, Crocker or Potter, Miller, Jenner (~~that is, Joiner~~), Mason, Smith (~~from smite~~) and its compounds.

Some names of this class end in *man;* as, Seaman, Waterman.

Feminine surnames of occupation were formed in *ster;* as, Baxter=Bakester, Brewster, Spinster, and Webster, the feminine of Webber=Weaver.

Obsolete professions give us such names as Arrowsmith=Fletcher, Bowyer, Lorimer (bridle-maker), Latimer (Latiner, that is, *interpreter;* one who can talk Latin.)

3. **Official Titles.** Duke, Earl, Knight, Squires, Bishop, Dean, Parsons, Clark=Clerk, Sexton=Saxton, Priest, Bailey=Bailiff, Pope. Some of these names, such as King and Pope, may have been given as nicknames.

4. **Surnames of Locality,** derived from place of residence. Hardly a village in England or Normandy which has not originated some surname. Besides these, there are names of localities of every kind. Two men of the same occupation and first name, would readily be distinguished as James from the hill, and James from the dale, naturally becoming James Hill and James Dale.

Ex.—Meadows, Ford, Park, Bridge=Briggs, Banks, Field and Wood, with their numerous compounds; Towner, Weller, Wellman.

5. **Names derived from Personal Qualities, or Peculiarities.** Ex. Black, Brown, White, Little, Long, Snell (quick), Armstrong, Hardy, Doolittle, Toogood, Roy, Reed and Ross=Red.

6. **National Names.** English, England, French, Irish, Ireland, Scott, Dane or Denis, Switzer, German, Dutcher, Wales = Wallis = Walsh = Welch, Flanders, Gael or Gale.

7. **Names of Emblems,** derived from coats of arms. Most of the animals familiar to our ancestors have given us surnames; as, of quadrupeds, we have Buck, Doe, Hind, Hart, Stagg, Lyon, Lamb, Kidd, Hogg, Wolfe. Of birds, Heron, Hawk, Robin, Jay, Pigeon, Nightingale, Wren. Of fishes, Parr, Salmon, Chubb, Herring.

From other familiar objects likely to be used as emblems, we have Sun, Moon, Starr, Rock, Rose, Oakes, Swords, Spear.

There are other sources, but the above are the principal. When the pupils are of different nationalities, it is often interesting to trace the corresponding names through different languages. Thus, Schneider=Taylor, Müller=Miller, Ziegler=Tyler, McGowan=Carpenter.

## SYNONYMS.

**§ 215. A synonym** is a word equivalent in meaning to some other word.

Words precisely equivalent are called *exact* synonyms. These are uncommon in any language. When a word is once agreed upon as the sign of an idea, another word is not needed to express the same idea. Still, in taking into our language words from different sources, we have a few exact synonyms. *Hypothesis* from the Greek, and *supposition* from the Latin language are examples. But in poetry for rhyme and for meter, and in all writing for variety of expression, it is convenient to have terms of different sound, different accent, and of different length. Thus, *falchion*, *brand*, *blade*, *glaive*, *saber*, *scimetar*, are synonyms of *sword;* yet these names are not exactly equivalent.

A falchion is a crooked sword (falx=sickle), a saber is a horseman's sword, curved at the point, a *blade* is a part put for the whole, etc.

Much of the ease and grace of composition depends upon the writer's ability to express an idea in terms which are exact, and yet not too common-place. Even a familiar truth may seem fresh and interesting when expressed in better words than usual. It is excellent practice to attempt to reproduce the ideas of a good writer in our own words.

The most familiar ideas have usually the greatest forms of expression. Thus the verb *see* has the following approximate synonyms:

Look, view, survey, eye, behold, descry, espy, gaze, stare, watch, scan, scrutinize. There are others which the pupil will do well to search out and compare.

The above might be separated first into transitive and

assert, express, discourse, harangue. Give the precise meaning of each, add as many synonyms as possible, and write sentences which contain the several verbs used correctly. Also select sentences from standard authors, illustrating the proper use. Newspaper authority is often of no value.

The exact meaning of words must generally be sought for in *Unabridged* Dictionaries, which should be in every school room.

Many words find their synonyms in phrases, or in clauses, and these admit of endless variety. Thus *a historian* may be *a writer of history, a historical writer, one who writes history, the author of a history.*

Pupils may with profit practice the changing of words as they read, to secure a ready use of synonyms. It is not to be supposed that their changes will always improve upon the author's words, but they may improve their own style by the exercise.

A passage from Cicero is given below, and the same passage changed by the substitution of synonyms.

"Had I not, by deeply pondering the precepts of philosophy, and the lessons of the historian and the poet, imbued my mind with an early and an intimate conviction that nothing in life is worthy of strenuous pursuit but honor and renown," etc.

"Had I not, by careful meditation upon the teachings of philosophers, and the instructions of authors of history and poetry, early persuaded my reason to the full belief that no object in existence is deserving of vigorous endeavor, unless it be glory or fame," etc.

Similar exercises carefully prepared and sharply criticized by the class, and by the teacher, are very useful.

## EXERCISE IN SYNONYMS.

Difference between *love* and *like?* Between *idle* and *lazy?* Between *plunge* and *dive?* Between *generous* and *liberal?* Between *education* and *learning?* Between *spot* and *blemish?* Between *bring* and *fetch?* *Bear* and *carry?* *Understand* and *comprehend?* *Tomb* and *grave?* *Choose* and *prefer?* *Calamity* and *catastrophe?* *Civil* and *polite?* *Womanly* and *womanish?* *Conscientious* and *scrupulous?* *Frugal* and *economical?* *Hope* and *expect?* *Courage, bravery, fortitude, heroism?* *Hinder* and *deter?*

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