A

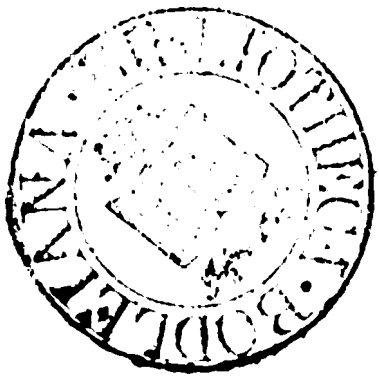
FIRST

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

ALEXANDER BAIN, LL.D.,

PROFESSOR OF LOGIC IN THE UNIVERSITY OF ABERDEEN.



LONDON: LONGMANS AND CO.

1872.

ABERDEEN:
PRINTED BY ARTHUR KING AND COMPANY, PRINTERS AND STEREOTYPERS
CLARK'S COURT, TOP OF BROAD STREET.

PREFACE.

THIS work is designed to be a First or Elementary English Grammar, preparing the way for the larger and complete works. While omitting entirely one division of Grammar—Derivation, in regard to the rest, it passes over such explanations and details as are deemed unsuitable for beginners.

There are, however, certain matters essential even to the most elementary Grammar. I refer not merely to the leading departments of Parts of Speech, Inflection, and Syntax, but also to the way of dealing with the several topics.

Grammar is a science, or nothing. It has the outward form of a science, and its difficulties spring out of its scientific character. There are Definitions to be framed, Principles to be stated, Rules to be prescribed; all which operations, if entered upon at all, should be carried out in a scientific spirit. A loose way of proceeding in

this respect fails to answer the ends of Grammar, and fails still more as a mental discipline.

The chief peculiarity in the plan of the present work lies in anticipating the unavoidable difficulties of the subject by a previous handling of certain elementary notions (belonging to all science), without which no one can hope to understand the scope or method of Grammar. This preparatory portion explains, by the help of familiar instances, first, the meanings of Individual, General, Abstract, Class, Genus, Species, Co-ordinate, Subordinate, and Definition; secondly, the constituents of a Preposition, and the kinds of Prepositions; and lastly, the Sentence, from which are evolved the Parts of Speech.

After such preliminary explanations, I make no scruple to introduce the strict mode of defining the PARTS OF SPEECH adopted in my former Grammar. I also exemplify the leading subdivisions or classes of each. Moreover, I bring forward at once the equivalent *phrases*, which, in the case of the Adverb in particular, are used more frequently than single words. On this method, the Grammatical parsing of a sentence directs attention forcibly to the meaning.

INFLECTION is treated, if not with the fulness, at least with the exactness, of the larger Grammar. The ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES, although in a great

measure anticipated by the extended view taken of the Parts of Speech, is explained and exemplified. The proper processes of SYNTAX—Concord, Government, and Order of Words—are succinctly stated; and examples given of the more usual errors.

The Key is framed to assist the teacher in comprehending the exact drift of the Exercises and the Questions appended to each head; but it is not confined to this. It exhausts the whole of the important grammatical bearings of each example, and varies the points raised in the Questions. It also includes a large selection of additional examples, which are commented on with a view to set forth still farther the methods of parsing, and to illustrate the constructions and idioms of the language.

ABERDEEN, *January*, 1872.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PREPARATORY EXPLANATIONS.

SPEECH, OR DISCOURSE.

FIRST STEP OF KNOWLEDGE.

SUBJECTS, OR THINGS SPOKEN OF.

SECOND STEP OF KNOWLEDGE.

WHAT IS SAID OF A SUBJECT—PREDICATION.

THE SENTENCE.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

THE PRONOUN.

THE ADJECTIVE.

THE VERB.

THE ADVERB.

THE PREPOSITION.

THE CONJUNCTION.

INFLECTION.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS—DECLENSION.

GENDER.

NUMBER.

SYNTAX.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

CONCORD.

GOVERNMENT.

ORDER OF WORDS.

PREPARATORY EXPLANATIONS.

SPEECH, OR DISCOURSE.

1. SPEECH, Language, or Discourse, is made up of separate words.

'Alfred drove the Danes from England; and he ruled the whole country justly.'

This is a portion of speech, language, or discourse; and is a string of thirteen words.

2. The words are of different sorts, or kinds, according to their uses.

By one kind of words we *name* and *point out* persons, things, actions, &c., without connecting these with any others.

The words 'Alfred,' 'Danes,' 'England,' 'country,' name the persons and things, and merely call them to mind without saying anything about them.

3. By another kind of words something is *said*, *told*, or *declared*, about persons or things.

The words 'drove,' 'ruled,' assist in telling something about the person 'Alfred,' who is the main subject of the

speech or discourse. If these two words were left out, the remaining eleven would not give sense; they would have no meaning.

4. All Speech contains at least these two sorts of words.

'The moon sets; the stars disappear; the sun rises, and lights the earth and sea.'

Of the first sort of words are—moon, stars, sun, earth, sea.

Of the second sort—sets, disappear, rises, lights.

There are other words, in the saying given, besides those mentioned:—the, from, and, he, whole, justly. These exemplify five other sorts of words, whose uses will be afterwards described. They are not the leading words of a speech, but *helping* words.

5. Whatever subjects we know, we give names to.

Our knowledge includes *persons*, *places*, *things*, *actions* and *results of actions*, *states* or *situations*, *feelings*.

Persons and the lower *animals*:—John, Luther, mother, queen, judge, angel. Lion, eagle, serpent, shark, bee.

Places:—England, York, Rome, Sahara, Paradise; street, valley, quarry, abyss, sea.

Things:—Star, cloud, rock, diamond, gold. Tree, shrub, rose, fruit. House, ship, machine, bridge.

Actions, active agents, and *results of actions*:—Motion, thunder, heat, fire, speech, thought, battle, victory, ruin, punishment, law.

States, situations, and *conditions*:—Freedom, childhood, apprenticeship, rest, royalty, prosperity, peace.

Feelings, and *states of the mind*:—Pleasure, love, anger, elation, excitement, belief, conscience, understanding.

6. The same kind of things may be known in different ways, as shown by the names.

Thus in regard to persons, the name 'Alfred' and the name 'man,' refer to human beings, but in distinct ways.

The name 'Rome' and the name 'city' express the same kind of subject, but very differently.

7. We have also names for the connecting part of Language, for saying or declaring something about some other thing.

Brings, makes, comes, is—are a few examples of the connecting, or declaring words, used in every complete meaning.

8. To understand Grammar, there are two steps in our Knowledge.

First, as to the subjects named and spoken of.

Second, as to the subjects, taken along with what is said of them.

FIRST STEP OF KNOWLEDGE.

SUBJECTS OR THINGS SPOKEN OF.

1. Knowledge proceeds by comparing things to learn how far they *differ*, and how far they *agree*.

We are first struck with **Differences**.

We feel the difference of night and day, sunshine and cloud, heat and cold, large and small, red and blue. Night is night, as being the opposite of day; day is the opposite of night. Heat is different from cold.

Sour is different from sweet.

A light weight affects us differently from a heavy weight.

Milk is different from water.

Ice is different from water.

A ball is different from a rod.

Being hungry is different from our state after eating.

Being asleep is different from being awake.

2. We feel Differences best when the things are placed together.

To distinguish two rods of different length, we lay them side by side.

To see which of two persons is taller, we make them stand close together.

Two shades of colour are distinguished by being looked at beside each other.

Two keys may be thought to be exactly alike, till we compare them closely.

A glass of water from a river may seem perfectly clear when viewed alone; by the side of a glass from a spring, it will probably look dim. Unless they were placed side by side, we should not discover the difference.

3. It is by their Differences that things or persons are separate and distinct, whereby each is thought of as an **Individual.**

The Sun impresses us differently from the Moon. Hence we call them separate and distinct objects. Each is an **Individual**; and neither is confounded with the other.

Both Sun and Moon are different from the Stars.

When we compare the Stars we find differences, although not so great. Some are brighter than others.

Two stars of the same brightness have still a difference; they are in different parts of the heavens. From this difference alone, we keep them distinct in our minds. Each is an Individual.

Our two hands differ very little; but from being placed on different sides of the body, we treat them as separate; they are two distinct individuals. They have separate names; 'right hand,' 'left hand.'

Two spoons on the table have to the eye no difference; we distinguish them for the moment by their place; *this*, and *that* spoon; the spoon *here*, the spoon *there;* John's spoon, Mary's spoon.

Two men differ, not only by their outward appearance, but by their time and place of birth, and all the circum-

stances of their history, and peculiarities of their character. When we know these differences we keep the persons distinct in our own mind. We do not confound Alexander the Great with Julius Cæsar, if we know respecting each the particulars wherein the two differed.

The Rhine is a separate, distinct, and Individual thing.

The actions called the founding of Rome and the discovery of America are different actions.

The Reformation in Germany, in England, and in Scotland, constituted three several actions or events.

The battle of Waterloo was an Individual action.

4. We are also struck with **Agreements** among things.

We discover that one day is like another, as passing through the stages of light and dark.

We see that one human being is very like another.

One tree has a great deal of likeness to another.

One fire is like another.

One ball is like another.

One chair is like another.

One draught of water affects us like another.

All these agreements are accompanied with *differences* which give the peculiarity, or the separate character, to the things compared. To-day is a little different from yesterday, while in many respects the same.

Any two human beings have their points of unlikeness.

One tree is taller, greener, leafier, than another.

One ball is made of wood, another of ivory.

One chair is heavier, or larger than another, besides there being many minute marks on each peculiar to itself.

One glass of water is cooler, and clearer, and fuller than another glass.

Placing things together is favourable to discovering Agreements, as well as Differences.

5. In some things we discover a very great amount of difference, and very little agreement; in others, the reverse.

In settled weather, any one day is very nearly the same as the one before. Comparing a fine midsummer day with a snowy day in winter, we discern many and marked differences.

Two twins may be so *alike* that we are at a loss to distinguish them. A fair-complexioned English child and an aged negro are very unlike. A human child is still more unlike an elephant, a serpent, a salmon, a robin-red-breast, a butterfly, an oyster. Yet these all *agree* in possessing animal life.

Two fir plants in a nursery garden may be almost identical. A grown pine is very different from a grown oak; still more from a holly bush; still more from a stalk of oats or barley. Yet greater is the difference between any of these and one of the animals just named.

6. Complete knowledge unites Differences and Agreements.

When we have two or more things before us, our knowledge is incomplete till we see both all that they differ in, and all that they agree in.

Water and milk are compared, and found to differ in colour and in taste; to agree in being liquid, and in being used as drink.

They both differ from ink, which is black, has a bad taste, is never drunk, and is used for writing; they agree with it in being liquid.

All these substances differ from soup, from vinegar, from wine; while agreeing in one fact, namely, that they are liquids.

Red and Blue are different to the eye. They agree in being colours.

Round and Oval are different: the one is of equal size across everywhere; the other is longer in one direction. They agree in being rounded or curved figures.

Ice differs from water, in being cold and in being solid. The two agree in being the same material, and in being transparent. Ice differs from Snow in being hard and transparent. Steam differs from Ice, Snow, and Water, in being a gas and invisible. All the four agree in being one material, although undergoing different changes.

A chair and a bed differ (1) in construction, and (2) in the manner of their use. They agree (1) in being articles of house furniture, and (2) in being used for resting on.

A flute and a violin differ in construction, and in the manner of playing them; they agree in being musical instruments. The human throat agrees with both.

Exercise 1.

Examples of Difference and Agreement.

1. A penny and a shilling.
2. A railway and a road.
3. Dwelling-house and church.
4. Square and triangle.
5. Food and drink.
6. Six and a hundred.

7. Arm, leg; eye, ear.
8. Dragoon and foot soldier; private, officer. Lords and Commons.
9. Englishman, Frenchman, German.
10. Printing, writing.
11. Child, man.
12. Catholic, Protestant, Jew, Mahometan.
13. Farmer, builder, merchant.
14. Sea, river, fountain; desert, field.

From this union of difference and agreement proceeds all our knowledge. We know the differences of things, and so distinguish them from one another, or give to them their character as *Individuals*. We know the agreements also, from which knowledge many consequences follow.

7. Owing to Agreements, we make Classes.

Human beings agree so much that, in spite of their differences, we regard them as making up a class; and give them a class name—Man, human being.

The animals that walk on all-fours are, when compared, found to be very different; an elephant is extremely unlike a mouse; yet they have numerous points of sameness; for which they are made into a class— Quadruped.

When the agreement is close, and the differences few, classes are formed with very numerous characters This is the case with human beings, with horses, dogs, fir trees, and metals.

When the agreement is slender, and the differences numerous, the class bond is small; the including of human beings and metals in a class gives very little class agreement. There are some marks in common; both are material and solid bodies.

8. The names of Classes are **General** Names. The meaning of 'General' is agreement among a number of Individuals.

The class name 'man' is a general name, because it supposes that all the Individual men resemble one another, or agree.

The class name 'conqueror' is a general name, given to the Individuals—Alexander the Great, Julius Cæsar, Attila—because they agreed in leading armies and in subduing countries.

The class name or general name, 'river,' is given to the individuals called the Thames, the Rhine, the Nile, the Ganges, because they all agree in what is meant by a river.

Examples of General Names or Class Names.

Apostle,	Preacher,	Workman,
Planet,	Poet,	Fisherman,
King,	Judge,	Seaman,
Soldier,	Reptile,	Spider,
Bird,	Insect,	Fly,
Tree,	Bush,	Rose,
Mineral,	Hedge,	Tulip,
Stone,	Street,	Diamond.

9. There may be **higher** and **lower** Classes, the higher containing the lower.

The class 'human beings' contains classes under it; as white men and negroes.

The class 'birds' contains the classes—birds of prey, climbing birds, swimming birds, wading birds, &c.

The class 'trees of the forest' contains the classes—oak, birch, beech, elm, willow, plane, yew, &c.

The class 'Animals' is higher than 'human beings;' it contains 'human beings,' and all the classes of the brutes or the lower animals—quadrupeds, birds, reptiles, fishes.

The class described by the general name 'building' contains a large number of objects with certain points of agreement. It may be divided into smaller classes—as private building and public building. The class Private building may be farther divided into dwelling houses, shops, stables, and various other classes. The class Public building may be divided into smaller classes—as Official buildings, Ecclesiastical buildings or churches, and fortresses for defence, as Gibraltar.

We may begin at the Individual and proceed upwards to the successively higher classes, thus:—

Individual. The fortress of Gibraltar.

Lowest Class. Fortresses.

Higher Class. Public Buildings.

Still Higher Class. Buildings.

Exercise 2.

Higher and Lower Classes.

1. Social Animals:—Beaver, Bee, Wasp, Ant.
2. Eatables:—Bread, Vegetables, Fish, Meat.
3. Property:—Money, Land, Houses, Ships.
4. Wines:—Sherry, Port, Claret, Hock.
5. Virtues:—Justice, Benevolence, Prudence.
6. Professions:—Clergymen, Lawyers, Physicians.
7. Heavenly Bodies:—Fixed Stars, Planets, Satellites, Comets.

(*Take some of the lower classes, and subdivide them into still lower, so as to end at an individual.*)

10. The higher class contains more members than the lower, but has fewer class marks.

There are more Animals than human beings, more human beings than white men.

There are more Birds than there are birds of prey.

There are more Trees than pines, more pines than Norwegian pines.

There are more Buildings than there are public buildings, more public buildings than churches.

The class Animal has fewer marks or peculiarities than the class human being. A human being has all the characters that the animals have, and characters of its own besides.

The bird of prey has all the characters of Birds in general, together with the special characters named by the words, 'bird *of prey*.'

A church has all the peculiarities belonging to buildings generally; it has also all the marks belonging to public buildings; it has, in addition, the peculiarity of its own class —namely, being used for worship.

There is more agreement among the objects named 'poets' than among the objects named men; there are correspondingly fewer poets than men. For every additional point of agreement, there is a less number of the agreeing objects. Add 'blind' to the name poet, and say 'blind poet,' and fewer persons are to be found suiting the designation; it applies to Homer and to Milton, but not to Shakspeare, to Pope, nor to many other poets.

'Capital' contains more meaning than 'city;' and accordingly there are fewer capitals than there are cities. The class 'capital' is a subdivision, or select portion of the

class 'city;' the class 'city' is a large class containing the class 'capital,' and other cities besides that are not capitals.

The designation 'large and populous capitals' expresses more than 'capitals;' it applies to a smaller number of cities. It applies to London, Paris, Vienna, Berlin, but not to Washington.

Medicine and Law agree in being occupations; in this they resemble fishing, shoemaking, cottonspinning, and many others. They agree more closely and specially in being *learned* occupations, which these others are not. The greater amount of agreement among occupations, expressed by prefixing the name *learned*, makes the number fewer and more select. There are many occupations; there are only a few learned occupations.

In enlarging classes, we drop agreements; in passing from the class 'animal' to the class 'living being,' we drop the agreements peculiar to animals, and the agreements peculiar to plants, and retain what both animals and plants agree in.

11. The words **genus** and **species** mean respectively higher class and lower class—as *genus* 'city,' *species* 'capital.'

The genus contains more individuals and has fewer characters than the species.

The class name is sometimes called the *generic* name; the name for the additional meaning of the species is called the *specific* name, or the specific distinction.

12. The additional meaning that makes a class smaller and more select is often given by a distinct word—'*white* thorn,' '*beautiful* scene.'

In some of the instances named, the increase of meaning

is conveyed by a separate name; as man, poet; city, capital. More usual is the employment of a second word to the name—*blind* poet. 'Thorn' means a certain class of trees; 'white thorn' is a more select class, possessing, in addition to all the peculiarities of thorns generally, the peculiarity of white flowers. 'Scene' is a class; 'beautiful scene' is a smaller contained class, to which we may apply the specific or peculiar character of beauty.

'Mountain' contains the select division '*wooded* mountain.'

We may have 'wine' simply, or the specifying and select classes '*sweet* wine,' '*effervescing* wine.'

'Lion;' '*male* lion,' '*female* lion.'

This word is called the **Adjective.**

13. The inferior classes are termed **subordinate** with reference to the superior.

Classes that have the same rank, as divisions of a higher class, are **co-ordinate.**

The very high class named Living Beings, is divided into two great classes—Plants and Animals; which are therefore **subordinate** classes, as respects Living Beings. They are **co-ordinate** as respects each other.

The class Bird has the lower or subordinate classes—birds of prey, climbing bird, swimming bird, &c.; these are co-ordinate classes.

If Public Buildings be divided into official buildings, churches, fortresses, &c., these are co-ordinate classes: they are all in subordination to the class—Public Buildings.

14. To explain or **Define** a thing is to give its differences and agreements when compared with other things.

The Agreements are given by stating the *superior class* that it belongs to.

Alexander the Great is in part explained or defined when we give his agreements with Cæsar, Attila, and Napoleon; which is to put him in the superior class—conqueror.

Iron is partly explained by its agreements with gold, silver, lead, in the class—metal.

15. The Differences are given by stating the peculiarities *distinguishing* the object from other members of the class.

The account of Alexander is completed by his own personal history, wherein he differed from Cæsar and the rest.

The definition of Iron is completed by mentioning the properties distinguishing it from other metals.

Examples of Definition.

A Shilling agrees with a penny, a sixpence, a florin, a sovereign, or belongs to the class Coined Money. It differs from all other coins in its value, which is twelve pence; but not from all, in being made of silver.

A Church. Class—Public Building; Distinguishing or specifying mark—used for religious worship.

A Street. Class—Congregation of Houses; Difference or distinguishing marks—the houses arranged in one or two rows, on a public pathway.

An Army is 'a collection of men' (Class); 'trained, equipped, and arrayed for fighting' (Difference).

A River is 'a body of running water' (Class); 'rising in the high grounds or hills, contained in many channels leading into one, and flowing to the sea' (Difference).

A poker is a machine of the class 'lever;' used for stirring the fire.

Exercise 3.

Define the following things :—

1. Plough, spade, clock, watch, cart, carriage.
2. Mountain, sea, lake.
3. Star, planet, moon.
4. Builder, sailor, painter, general, king, martyr.
5. Book, paper.
6. Prudence, benevolence.

16. In a definition the distinction or difference may be one point, or more than one.

After stating the class, we state the difference. The difference may be one particular, or it may be two or more.

A fire-place is 'a part of a room' (Class) for 'containing a fire' (Difference). Here there is *one* difference.

Coal is a mineral (Class) formed from ancient trees (1) and extracted for burning (2). Here there are *two* differences.

A planet is a heavenly body (Class); it revolves round a a central sun (1) in a nearly circular path (2). Here both differences are needed; the first distinguishes it from satellites; the second from comets.

The Part of Speech called the Noun needs for its definition *three* differences.

17. Agreement is sometimes expressed in the **Abstract**; as by the words—roundness, whiteness, greatness, wisdom, fire.

The name 'circle,' or the name 'round,' applies to a great number of things having the same shape—a wheel, a ring, a penny, and many besides. When we wish to mention the shape by itself, without considering the size, colour, weight, or material of the things, we speak of the round shape in the abstract; and for this we use the word 'roundness.'

'Wisdom' is one or more 'wise persons' looked at only as wise, and without reference to their being tall or short, young or old, or otherwise different. A wise man must have all that belongs to a man, but we may speak of him solely as being wise, or as belonging to the class named wise.

In opposition to Abstract, the words 'round' and 'circle,' and the word 'wise,' are called **Concrete** names.

SECOND STEP OF KNOWLEDGE.

WHAT IS SAID OF A SUBJECT—PREDICATION.

1. When we speak we do more than name, or point to, some person or thing; we **say something about** that person or thing:—John is here; the clock has struck two.

The saying—John is here—names or mentions John, and says or tells about him that 'he is here.'

The saying—the clock has struck two—names or mentions the clock, and says or tells about it that it 'has struck two.'

2. The thing mentioned and spoken about is called the SUBJECT; what is said about it is called the PREDICATE.

'John is here.'

Subject—John.

Predicate—is here.

'Rain has fallen.'

Subject—Rain.

Predicate—has fallen.

'The stars are distant.'

Subject—The stars.

Predicate—are distant.

Exercise 4.

Examples of sayings about Subjects:—
Predications or Propositions.
(To be divided into Subject and Predicate.)

1. The kettle boils. 2. The canary sings. 3. Oscar followed me. 4. The fire is hot. 5. John will get a watch. 6. Our

neighbour's cat has taken a rat. 7. Jane waters the flowers. 8. The doctor passes this way every morning. 9. Whoever wishes to be well spoken of should think what will please other people. 10. The early bird catches the worm. 11. A rose by any other name would smell as sweet. 12. War is a dire calamity. 13. The death of Alexander III., of Scotland, by a fall from his horse, was the beginning of great evils to the country. 14. A sick room should be well aired. 15. Within the last century there have been great improvements in all kinds of knowledge, and in all the arts.

3. A Proposition may be **Singular**, or it may be **General**.

It is a singular proposition to say—'Rome has many narrow streets.' The saying refers to the individual city, Rome. It is a general proposition to say—'Old cities have narrow streets.' The saying in this case refers to the whole class, old or ancient cities.

Cæsar was brave; great generals are brave.

Mars shines by the light of the sun; all the planets shine by the light of the sun.

Iron corrodes; the metals corrode.

4. A Proposition may be **true universally**, or it may have **Exceptions**.

Some general propositions are true in every instance:—Men will die; all matter is indestructible.

Some propositions fail in certain cases, which are said to be exceptions:—All metals rust in the air, *except* gold, silver, and a few others.

5. Propositions are sometimes given as directions, or **rules** for practice.

'Eat that you may live' is a rule or practical direction. It is the practical form of the proposition—'Eating, or food, supports life.'

'Obey the law' is a rule of practice. It is the same as—'the law must be obeyed;' 'every one is compelled to obey the law.'

'Learn while you are young.'

'Speak distinctly.'

These are different from the ordinary forms of speech, and are called **Imperative** forms. The separation into subject and predicate is made by finding out who is addressed.

'Shut the door;' *subject*, 'you' (unexpressed); *predicate* 'shut the door.'

'Poachers, beware;' *subject*, '(you) poachers;' *predicate*, 'beware.'

6. Rules may be universal, or they may have exceptions.

'Do all the good you can' is a universal rule.

'Take food when you are hungry,' is a general rule, but not without exceptions. Sometimes people should abstain from eating.

The rule 'swear not at all' is considered by the Society of Friends to have no exceptions. The greater number of persons think that taking an oath before a court of justice is an exception.

Grammar contains a great many rules, but many of them have exceptions. Hence, after stating a rule, there is frequently given a list of exceptions.

THE SENTENCE.

1. SPEECH is made up of separate sayings, each complete in itself. These are **Sentences.**

A person may utter one single meaning, as 'the sky is clear;' but a speech generally contains several meanings, or distinct propositions. 'The sky was lately clouded. It is now clear. There is no fear of rain.' Three distinct meanings are here given in succession; each is complete in sense, having a distinct subject and a distinct predicate.

2. Every saying, declaration, or proposition, is a Sentence.

All the examples given of sayings or propositions are examples of Sentences (p. 18); and there will be many more afterwards.

The Sentence, being in every respect what is meant by a saying, or proposition, or assertion, has the same two parts—namely, Subject and Predicate. These parts have now to be viewed more particularly, as bearing on Grammar.

Examples of Short Sentences.

We can have a distinct and full meaning in two words; one being the Subject, the other the Predicate.

Sirius twinkles.

Jupiter thunders.

Victoria reigns.

Peter repented.

Nero fiddled.

Bucephalus neighed.

Carthage fell.

Rome remains.

Snowdon appears.

Men laugh, dogs fight, horses gallop.

Mountains tower.

Matter resists, gold glitters.

Steel tarnishes.

Fire burns.

Industry enriches, art refines.

Misery crushes, hope cheers.

Punishment deters, wisdom guides.

Music soothes.

In every one of these the first word is the Subject, the second the Predicate.

The following examples have three words, the two first being the Subject, the third the Predicate :—

The moon rises.

A horseman came.

This man answers.

No one survives.

Great poets arise.

The subjects are 'the moon,' 'a horseman,' &c.

The following examples have three words, the first Subject, the two last Predicate :—

Moses led Israel.

Titus destroyed Jerusalem.

Government makes laws.

Animals serve man.

Misfortune brings despair.

It will be seen that these sentences give a *more complete account* than the others. They name some one that does something; they state what is the kind of the action, and, finally, what is the thing acted on.

3. The examples containing only two words are examples of a **naked sentence.** They give the words essential to a meaning, and all other words are *additions* or *Adjuncts* to these.

These two words are the two chief Parts of Speech; the first is called the **Noun**, the second the **Verb.**

In the sentence 'gold glitters,' the *Subject* 'gold' is called a **Noun**, the *Predicate* 'glitters' is called a **Verb.**

Jupiter (noun) thunders (verb).

Men (noun) laugh (verb).

Rocks (noun) press (verb).

Carthage (noun) fell (verb).

The words naming the Subjects are Nouns; the words giving the Predicates are Verbs.

It will be observed that the subject is sometimes one person or thing (Jupiter, Carthage), and sometimes a whole class (men, rocks).

It may be remarked, also, that the Predicate word—the Verb—gives the **time** of the action or fact predicated. 'Thun-

ders,' 'laugh,' 'press,'—signify present time; 'fell' is past time. It is a character of Verbs to state whether the action is present, past, or future.

If all meanings could be expressed in two words, like these examples, there would be, in Grammar, only two kinds of words, or two Parts of Speech—Noun and Verb.

4. In sentences with more than two words, there are still two *chief* words, and the others are looked upon as *helps* or Adjuncts.

'Great poets arise:' Subject, 'great poets;' chief word, the noun 'poets;' additional word, or Adjunct, 'great. The word 'poet' has a meaning in itself; the word 'great' has no meaning in itself; it has a meaning when used along with any noun, as poet, man, river. It is purely an Adjunct word.

'His blood boiled.'—Subject, 'his blood;' principal word, the noun 'blood;' additional word, or adjunct, 'his.'

'Those men departed.'—Subject, 'those men;' principal word, the noun 'men;' additional word, or adjunct, 'those.'

'The stars rise.'—Subject, 'the stars;' principal word, the noun 'stars;' additional word, or adjunct, 'the.'

'His,' 'this,' and 'the' are adjectives.

5. The words joined to the Noun, in these instances, are called **Adjectives.**

It is very common to have the Subject made up of a Noun and Adjective:—*old* walls, *white* sugar, *rare* jewels, *good* will.

As already explained (pp. 12, 14), the Adjective limits the number of things expressed by a general noun, and increases the points of agreement. Examples:—round table, straight road, bright eye.

It is a peculiarity of most Adjectives to express a meaning that may be more or less in degree. 'Great' may be made 'greater' or 'greatest.'

6. When the **Predicate** consists of several words, there is usually one chief word, a verb; the others being Adjuncts.

In the form, 'Animals serve men,' the Predicate is 'serve men;' the chief word is the Verb 'serve;' the word 'men,' is an Adjunct. It is a Noun, and is called the **Object** of the verb serve; the act of serving is performed towards 'men.' This is one mode of **completing** the Predicate, or **enlarging** the Predicate verb. The verbs that may take this Adjunct are called **Transitive** verbs. The verbs that do not take such an Adjunct, as in 'he *runs*,' are **Intransitive.**

7. The Predicate may be enlarged in another way; as—Animals serve men *faithfully;* he runs *swiftly.*

The words 'faithfully' and 'swiftly' resemble Adjectives in this that they have no meaning when standing by themselves. Their meaning is seen along with a verb, and they modify or qualify the action expressed by the verb. It is one thing to *serve;* it is something additional to serve *faithfully:* it is one thing to *run,* it is something more to run *swiftly.* These words are, in Grammar, **Adverbs.**

Examples of Adverbs.

The fire *soon* consumed the town.

The fact is *certainly* true.

He *deftly* plied the oar.

Solomon judged *wisely.*

Wait *patiently.*

Some do nothing *well.*

Another form of the Adverb is seen in the sentence—'she learns music *at home.*' The adverb is here made up of two words, 'at' and 'home.' The second word 'home' is a Noun; it might be the subject or object of a sentence. The other word 'at' is called a **Preposition.** The combination of a Noun and a Preposition in this way is called an *Adverbial Phrase.*

8. Sometimes a word is used to *connect* two different sentences; as 'Alexander died at Babylon, *and* his empire was divided among his generals.' The word 'and' is called a **Conjunction.**

9. The Subject of a Sentence may be given by a word of *reference*:—The Vatican is in Rome; *it* is the palace of the Pope.

In the first of these two sentences, the subject is 'The Vatican,' which is a noun, and names the building intended to be spoken of. In the second sentence, the subject is given by the word 'it,' which refers back to the subject of the sentence, and but for that reference could have no meaning. 'It' is called a **Pronoun.**

The Queen is coming; *she* is gaily attired.

The Peers have assembled; *they* have taken their seats.

'*I* am a man more sinned against than sinning.' *I* means the person speaking at the time. *Thou* and *you* are the persons addressed.

10. The Seven Classes of words, now enumerated—Noun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Pronoun—are called the **Parts of Speech.**

They are taken in order as follows:—

Noun.

Pronoun.

Adjective.

Verb.

Adverb.

Preposition.

Conjunction.

The Noun, the Pronoun, and the Adjective, appear chiefly in the *Subject* of the Sentence. The Verb and the Adverb appear in the *Predicate.* The Noun and the Adjective appear in the Predicate occasionally.

The three Parts of Speech named Pronoun, Preposition, and Conjunction, are entirely without meaning when they stand alone: as I, it, for, and.

The Adjective and Adverb, standing alone, are imperfect or incomplete in meaning.

The Noun and the Verb have a meaning in themselves; which the other Parts of Speech extend and vary.

Questions.

1. What is speech made up of?
2. What are the two different uses of words?
3. Give the leading words in the saying, 'All men grieve when they lose friends.'
4. Give the helping words in the same saying.
5. What subjects are included in our knowledge?
6. In which list of subjects should each of the following names be placed:—horse, Turkey, flint, joy, Isaac, infancy, oratory?
7. What part of language do the words—rouses, had, became—belong to?

8. What are the facts that all knowledge begins from?
9. What enables us to recognise 'up and down,' 'long and short,' 'strong and weak?'
10. In what way do we best discover Differences?
11. What makes an Individual? Examples:—The German Ocean, Jerusalem, George III.
12. What is the effect upon us when two different things are like each other?
13. In which of the two following couples is there most agreement:—a table and a chair; a house and a tree?
14. What union makes knowledge complete?
15. What are *Classes* founded on? for example, the classes —stars, seas, clouds, ships?
16. What is meant by a *General* name? Are class names general?
17. When is one class higher than another?
18. Which class—higher or lower—contains most individuals? Show this in the classes—men, Englishmen.
19. What is the meaning of *genus* and *species*?
20. What is the additional word that expresses a smaller class with mere marks?
21. Give the meaning of Subordinate and Coordinate.
22. What is the method of Defining a thing?
23. How are Agreements given shortly?
24. How are the Differences given?
25. What is the difference in meaning between white and whiteness? Which of the two words is Abstract?
26. What is necessary, more than a Subject, to make a saying complete?
27. What is the difference between—'London has a Mayor,' and—'all the English towns have mayors?'

28. When a proposition is not true in every case, what should be stated along with it?

29. What is the difference between a proposition and a rule? Are all rules universal?

30. What is a Sentence?

31. What is the fewest number of words in a Sentence?

32. When a Sentence has but two words, what are these words?

33. Which word includes, in its meaning, the *time* of an action?

34. What is the word that is usually joined to the Subject?

35. How may the Predicate be enlarged?

36. What Part of Speech arises from the enlargement of the Predicate?

37. What is the Adverbial Phrase? What new Part of Speech appears in it?

38. What is the Part of Speech used to connect Sentences?

39. What Part of Speech names Subjects and Objects of Sentences, by means of a *reference?*

40. What Parts of Speech have a full meaning in themselves?

41. What Parts have no meaning in themselves?

42. What kind of meaning has the Adjective or the Adverb standing alone?

PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

DEFINITION.

1. THE Noun is the Subject or the Object of a Sentence :—as 'Cæsar conquered Gaul;' 'famine raises prices.'

Cæsar and Gaul are nouns; Cæsar is the subject and Gaul the object.

The Noun is not the only word that may be the subject or the object of a sentence; the same purpose may be served by a Pronoun, and by a particular part of the Verb called the Infinitive. In—'I choose to remain,' and 'I prefer remaining,' the subject 'I' is a pronoun, the objects 'to remain' and 'remaining' are Infinitives. Hence, in defining the noun, we must assign some other marks to distinguish it from these other words.

The Noun is distinguished from the Pronoun by the following mark:—

2. The Noun is the name of an actual thing, while the Pronoun names by means of a reference.

'Cæsar usurped the government of Rome; but *he* was speedily slain.' 'Cæsar' and 'he' are subjects; 'Cæsar' is

a noun, and is the name of the actual person; 'he' is a word that names by referring to the former sentence, where 'Cæsar' is the subject.

The Noun is distinguished from all parts of the Verb, as follows:—

3. The Noun is changed, or inflected, for number, case, and gender. The Infinitives of the Verb are not inflected at all.

When the meaning allows of it, a noun has *singular* and *plural* forms—'city,' 'cities;' *case* forms—'Cæsar,' 'Cæsar's; *gender* forms—'baron,' 'baroness.' The infinitive of the verb is unchangeable. The verb has many changes; the chief is to give difference of *time*.

The full Definition of the Noun, according to the rules of defining (p. 15), is this:—The Noun is a Part of Speech (Higher Class); it may be the subject or the object of a sentence (1), it names an actual thing (2), it may be changed or inflected for number, case, and gender (3) (Differences).

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

4. 1. Proper, Singular, Meaningless Nouns:—Snowdon, Greece, Jupiter, William Tell.

These are called *proper*, because they are the property of some individual person or thing. They are called *singular* for the same reason. 'Snowdon' is the peculiar and exclusive name of a certain mountain.

They are called *meaningless*, in opposition to the next class, because they are mere marks to designate a person or thing, and do not convey any information about the person or thing.

Examples of Proper Names.

Persons—Solomon, Homer, Cato, Constantine, Joan of Arc, Oliver Cromwell.

Places—Asia, Tartary, Pekin, Sahara, Constantinople, Jordan, Horeb.

Branches of Knowledge—Geometry, Chemistry, Surgery, Agriculture, Navigation.

Days, Months, Festivals—Saturday, March, Christmas.

Diseases—Fever, Palsy, Gout, Plague, Hooping-cough, Consumption. There are more than one thousand diseases.

Some meaningless nouns may never have been used but for one object; as 'Rome,' for the city of that name; 'Jehovah,' for the Deity. These are Proper and Singular names in the strictest sense: they are exclusively possessed by an individual.

But, as we have many objects to name, we often use the same name for a variety of objects, *without any resemblance* to one another. Thus, 'Jupiter,' the name of a god, is used to name one of the planets.

'Wellington' and 'Victoria' are applied to persons, to animals, to towns, to streets, to forts, to harbours, to machines, &c.

Persons were at first named by a single word, as Abraham, Samuel, Socrates. To avoid confusion from the same name being applied to many persons, the Romans employed double and even triple names—Titus Livius, Marcus Tullius Cicero. We do likewise: John Hampden, Charles James Fox, signify each one person.

Family surnames are used in the plural, as designating a plurality of persons:—the Gracchi, the Howards, the Macleods. So, speaking of any *one*, we may say—a Howard, a Macleod, a Brown. Such names are so far *class* names; the point of resemblance of the subjects being common descent, or family relationship, real or supposed.

When the same name is given to several places, rivers, or buildings, &c., a second designation is used: Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Newcastle-under-Lyne; North Esk, South Esk; St. Paul's in London.

5. II. Common, General, Significant Nouns: —mountain, kingdom, man.

These nouns are called *common* and *general* because they are common to a great many things, by reason of the agreement of those things.

Snowdon, Skiddaw, St. Bernard, Lebanon—are in some respects different from each other, yet they all agree in a very important point. They are masses of high ground. On account of their likeness, they receive the name 'mountain.' This name is *significant;* it signifies the fact common to all mountains. The name 'Snowdon' is not significant—it is meaningless; it might have been given to a river, or a country, or a horse.

All names of Classes, being also general, are significant: the classes—mineral, plant, animal, bird, man—are each made up of individuals resembling one another.

There may be *higher* and *lower* classes; as the class Animal, which contains the classes—men, quadrupeds, birds, reptiles, fishes. Every such class name is a significant name.

6. Some Singular objects have names that are Significant:—as Providence, Omnipotence, for the Deity.

These are rare and peculiar. Fate, Nature, Destiny, are of the same kind.

Usually when a Singular person or thing has a significant designation, it is by uniting several significant names, which separately may apply to many individuals, but collectively apply to only one. 'The present Pope' is an individual, expressed by three significant words; but when these are

all joined, they restrict the meaning to one individual. There are many Popes; but there is only one *present* Pope.

Many Singular names have a *mixed* character; they are partly meaningless and partly significant. Thus 'Exeter Hall' has a certain meaning through the significant name 'hall'—a place of meeting; the word 'Exeter' is an accidental addition, and serves for distinguishing Exeter Hall from other public places, as 'Westminster Hall,' 'St. James's Hall,' which are mixed names also.

'Paradise' is a purely proper and meaningless name; the 'Garden of Eden' is a mixed singular name.

It will be afterwards explained that the word 'the,' called the Definite Article, prefixed to a *general noun*, is often sufficient to point out an individual; *the* queen, spoken in this country, means a single person; *the* river, spoken in London, means the river Thames: *the* Bank, is the Bank of England.

Proper names of rivers have usually the article:—the Rhine, the Nile, the Severn.

As the significant general name designates many individuals, it must be modified according as we speak of one or of a number of these. Sometimes we name a single member of the class; for which the form is 'a mountain,' 'an animal,' 'a ship;' sometimes we speak of several individuals, and then we say 'mountains,' animals,' 'ships.'

The following Exercise embraces the two foregoing classes of Nouns.

Exercise 5.

1. Columbus discovered America.
2. George Fox, the first of the Quakers, was a shoemaker.
3. Joan of Arc perished at the stake.
4. Washington is the capital of the United States.

5. The ark of the covenant was brought up to Mount Zion.

6. Roman Catholics worship the Blessed Virgin, and eat no flesh during Lent.

7. A shout that frighted the reign of Chaos and old Night.

8. Earth felt the wound.

9. Laud was flung into the Tower.

10. Christmas comes but once a year.

11. Measles, Scarletina, and Small-pox, are just now very prevalent.

12. James is learning Arithmetic; Mary begins music in January.

7. III. Collective Nouns; as flock, crowd, tribe, congregation. A great many individuals are collected together, and are spoken of as one body.

'The flock is brought home;' 'the crowd is large;' 'the tribe of Judah was scattered.'

Farther examples: — Company, party, family, troop, legion, cluster, galaxy, swarm, assembly, meeting, court, jury, parliament, club, multitude, mob, herd, array, brotherhood, tenantry, number, host, gathering, Armada, navy, army, fleet, regiment, clan.

As there may be more than one collection of the same things, collective names may be either Singular or Plural; 'an army,' 'armies;' 'a host,' 'hosts.' Such names are significant as well as collective.

The collective nouns 'firmament,' 'starry sphere,' are so all-comprehending that there cannot be more than one.

8. IV. **Material** Nouns:—silver, coal, chalk, sandstone, ivory. 'Silver' is a name for the entire collection of the metal of that name existing everywhere.

'Chalk' means all chalk, not any piece or portion of it.

'Wood' is wood generally and collectively.

Farther examples:—Brass, iron, stone, clay, sugar, salt, tobacco, cotton, flax, beet-root, mustard, rice, grass, cloth, wood, jute, paper, water, snow, wine.

These names are necessarily singular; they designate the material as one whole.

When such names are used in the plural, as they often are —irons, coppers, marbles, coals, sands, cottons, sugars, wines—their meaning is changed. They no longer state the material as a whole, but either *things made of it*, or *portions of it*, or *kinds of it*. Coppers are things made of copper; marbles things made of marble. Coals are pieces of coal; sands are grains of sand. Woods, cottons, sugars, wines, are different kinds of wood, cotton, sugar, wine. Such nouns are common, or significant nouns. They are class nouns.

Whatever noun is used in the plural, as irons, coppers, may also be used in the singular with *a* or *an* before it; an iron, a copper, a sugar. This also shows that the noun is not used as a noun of material, but as a common, general, or class noun.

9. V. **Abstract** Nouns:—darkness, squareness, righteousness, purity (Int. p. 16).

These are formed from Adjectives:—darkness, from dark; righteousness, from righteous; purity (also pureness) from pure.

The Adjective (see p. 14) expresses a meaning along with a noun:—'dark *places*,' 'righteous *men*.' The Abstract noun expresses the same meaning as if it were separate; it mentions the agreement apart from the things agreeing:—*darkness, righteousness.*

It is impossible to separate darkness from something that is dark, or righteousness from some persons that are righteous; but it is convenient to *suppose* the separation, or to consider only that property of the things mentioned called 'dark,' 'righteous.'

10. Other Abstract Nouns are formed from verbs:—Contradiction, belief, doubt.

'Contradiction' is from the verb 'contradict,' and expresses the action of the verb.

'Belief' is from the verb 'believe.'

'Doubt' is either noun or verb. NOUN—'*doubt* is a distressing condition.' VERB—'no one *doubts* the rumour.'

When Abstract Nouns are used with 'a' before them, or in the plural, they are converted into common or general nouns, and have a different meaning. 'Truth' is an abstract noun; '*a* truth,' and 'truths,' mean particular examples of truth.

'Charity' is abstract; 'charities' are particular acts or modes of charity.

'Glory'—abstract; 'glories'—a general noun—kinds or examples of glory.

'Time' and 'Space' may be parsed either as collective nouns, or as abstract nouns. 'Time' means the whole duration of past and future; 'a time' and 'times' mean parts or portions of time.

Besides being Subject or Object of a Sentence, the Noun may be found in the following places :—

(1). Nouns are extensively used along *with prepositions*, as *phrases;* which phrases most usually act the part of Adverbs. 'He stood by *John*,' 'we were under *canvas*.'

These phrases may have adjectives prefixed to the noun; 'I stood on *the highest* ground.'

Excepting in one of the infinitive forms of the verb—as 'to ride,' 'to see'—the word that follows a preposition is either a Noun or a Pronoun.

(2). Nouns occur *in the Predicate* of a Sentence, with certain verbs of incomplete meaning; the verb 'be' (is, was, were, &c.) is the chief example. 'He is a *lawyer*.'

The verb 'is' has not a complete meaning till we add a word to say *what he is*.

The words that complete the meaning of these incomplete verbs are usually either Nouns or Adjectives.

(3). Nouns are used extensively as *Adjectives* :—*ship* stores, *table* drawer. These will be explained afterwards.

[With these explanations the pupil will be able to point out *every noun* in the examples. A beginning should be made, however, by parsing only the nouns that are either subjects or objects of sentences.]

Exercise 6.

Nouns generally.

1. Frederick the Great wrested Silesia from the Empire, and brought on the Seven Years' War.

2. Kindness to animals is no unworthy exercise of benevolence.

3. The produce of previous labour makes the wealth of a country.

4. Security of property is essential to capital, to power, to skill, to combination and division of labour, and also to self-preservation.

5. The throne of the Cæsars gave little certainty of possession to the occupier.

6. Dirt is matter in the wrong place.

7. Round the agent's house they threw up with great speed a wall of turf fourteen feet in height and

twelve in thickness. The space enclosed was about half-an-acre. Within this rampart all the arms, the ammunition, and the provisions of the settlement were collected, and several huts of thin plank were built.

8. In a short time two hundred foot and a hundred and fifty horse had assembled.
9. Lowliness is young Ambition's ladder.
10. The grape is a richer fruit than the gooseberry.
11. Affectation in any part of our behaviour is lighting up a candle to our defects.
12. The beauties of a great poem cannot be enjoyed at first sight.
13. Life is precious; yet men have laid down their lives to preserve the liberties of their country.
14. There is no royal road to geometry; practice is the way to perfection in all sciences and arts.
15. James has a complete set of the ferns of his own district.
16. Laws securing to every man a property in the produce of his labour are universal in well-ordered societies.
17. Loam contains more sand than potter's clay.
18. Hundreds of different grasses are named in works on Botany.
19. Halloween, Shrove Tuesday, and other old festivals, are now less observed than in former times.
20. Morris, turning in his saddle, called out to his people, "remember what I have told you, men." Then he put his spurs into 'Old Treasurer,' and, followed by the fraction of the regiment that ranged clear of the battery, drove full at the squadron confronting him.
21. Humanity then lodged in the hearts of men,
And thankful masters carefully provided
For creatures wanting reason.

22. Cholera makes great ravages in low-lying and ill-drained towns.

23. Lime is an essential ingredient in all fertile soils.

24. In the direct front of the ranks thus awaiting the charge of our horsemen, there was sitting in his saddle a Russian who seemed to be the squadron-leader.

25. When the Arminian controversy arose in Holland, the English Government and the English Church lent strong support to the Calvinistic party.

26. From March, 1629, to April, 1640, the Houses of Parliament were not convoked.

27. Carbon is the most abundant element in plants.

28. Wheat is a finer grain than oats.

29. In a time of frost, the appearance of the northern lights may be counted on with certainty.

30. The Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, appointed in 1833 to enquire into the state of the education of the people in England and Wales, gives an amount of information showing the increase of decency of deportment in the present age.

Questions.

1. Mention all the Parts of Speech that may be the Subject or the Object of a Sentence.

2. Distinguish the Noun from the Pronoun.

3. Distinguish the Noun and the Pronoun from the Verb.

4. Why are the words—Adam, tree, winter—called Nouns? Show that they correspond with the Definition.

5. Why are the words—he, great, loving—said not to be Nouns?

6. Why are the nouns—India, Charles—called Proper? why Singular? why Meaningless?

7. How is it that singular nouns may be names for many subjects? Take the examples—Venus, Washington, Smith.

8. What is done to prevent confusion when one name is given to many persons, or to several places or buildings?

9. Why are the nouns—star, kingdom, table—called Common? why General? why Significant?

10. Why are class names General and Significant?

11. What Singular objects have names that are not Meaningless, but Significant?

12. How can Significant names be joined to express a Singular Object? Take as examples—the head of our family; the father of all mankind; the last of the Stuarts; the great pyramid.

13. Some Singular Names are compounds of meaningless and significant words. Show this in the names—Mount Horeb, the Falls of Niagara, St. Paul's Cathedral.

14. What is a Collective Noun? Are the nouns—people, family, fleet—significant as well as collective?

15. Of what class are the Nouns—ivory, spice, grass?

16. Of what class are—wines, spices, grasses?

17. To what class belong the nouns—brightness, scarcity? What is the meaning of these words, as compared with the adjectives—bright, scarce?

18. To what class belong—education, success, life?

19. When Abstract Nouns are used with 'a' before them, or in the plural, what are they?

20. To what class belong the words—Time and Space?

21. Give all the places, in a sentence, where Nouns may be found.

THE PRONOUN.

DEFINITION.

1. The Pronoun differs from the Noun in expressing a thing not by its own name, but by a reference or relation to something else. '*I*' (the person speaking) 'say;' '*he*' (some person already mentioned) 'remained.'

We know what 'John Smith' or 'man' stands for, as soon as we hear or see the name; we do not know what 'I' stands for until we find out who is addressing us. When we ask—Who is there? and get the answer—'I,' we do not know from the pronoun who is the person speaking: we remain in ignorance until the person gives his real name, or until we recognise him by his voice or by some other circumstance. The writer of a letter uses the pronoun 'I' to designate himself; but unless he signs his name or unless we know the handwriting, we do not know who it is that 'I' designates.

In a legal document, the writer tells who he is—'I, James Brown, of Duke Street, St. James's, do hereby declare.'

In the following sentence, 'we' is used with a similar explanation:—'We, English, occupy a middle ground between the French and the Germans.'

Merely to say 'I saw *him*,' without having spoken before, conveys no sense; but if after speaking of some person we add 'I saw him yesterday,' we know that 'him' refers to

the person spoken about. In like manner, 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'this,' 'that,' have no sense unless we know, in some other way, who or what they refer to.

2. The Pronoun, like the Noun, may be the Subject or the Object of a sentence, and may be changed for number, case, and gender.

'We saw them;' 'I met her.' 'We' and 'them' are plural; 'them' and 'her' are changes for case (from 'they' and 'she).' 'She' and 'her' are feminine; 'he,' 'him,' being masculine.

In regard to *case*, the Pronoun has more changes than the Noun.

The Pronoun farther agrees with the Noun, in occupying the following places in the sentence, besides being Subject or Object.

1. In Phrases, with a Preposition:—He spoke comfort *to me;* they left the book *with us;* all retired *except them;* John, *from whom* I heard.

2. In the Predicate of a Sentence, with incomplete verbs, especially the verbs 'is,' 'was,' &c.:—It is *I;* if I were *he.*

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

3. I. Personal Pronouns:—I, we, thou, ye, you. 'I' and 'we' are pronouns of the first person; the others—thou, ye, you—are pronouns of the second person.

I denotes the speaker by himself: 'I give you leave to do it.'

We denotes the speaker and others with him. A schoolboy says for himself and his schoolfellows—'We played cricket,' 'We do not meet on Saturday:' a member of a church says—'We have a good minister.'

Thou is addressed to one person. It is used not in

ordinary address, but when we speak under strong feeling: 'O thou that rulest over all!' 'O thou fair orb, that silent shines!' 'thou viper!'

You is the ordinary pronoun of the second person, whether we address one or a number.

Ye, like 'thou,' is employed chiefly in strong feeling: 'Ye gates, lift up your heads.'

'O night,
And storm, and darkness, *ye* are wondrous strong.'

4. II. Demonstrative Pronouns:—he, she, it, they, this, that.

The Personal pronouns refer only to persons speaking and persons spoken to: the Demonstrative pronouns refer to, point out (as with the finger) whatever is *spoken about.*

5. He is the pronoun of the masculine gender in man and in the higher animals:—'the horse mocketh at fear, neither turneth *he* back from the sword.'

6. She is the pronoun of the feminine gender in man and in the higher animals:—'Her young ones also suck up blood, and where the slain are, there is *she.*'

When inanimate things are spoken of as persons, they are pointed out by pronouns of distinct gender. We speak of the Sun as 'he,' of the Moon as 'she.'

We say also—'Take fast hold of *Instruction*, for *she* is thy life:' and of *Wisdom*—'*she* guides the young.'

7. It is the pronoun of the *neuter gender*, and

is applied to things without life: 'Here is the well; let us drink from *it*.'

'It' refers also to living beings not sufficiently important to have their sex distinguished. 'Look at the child; what a pretty thing *it* is!' '*It* is a fine dog.'

'It' refers not only to single names, but to phrases and to whole clauses. 'The man is honest; who can deny *it*?' '*It* may be that the accused is guilty, but can you prove *it*?'

There are greater varieties in the use of 'it' than in the use of 'he' and 'she.'

1. 'It' with a backward reference—
(1.) to a single word.

The *story* is not true, whoever told *it*.

The *book* was brought, but *it* was not the right one.

The *fire* was lighted, but *it* went out.

The *moon* was up; *it* was nearly full.

I tried the *door*, but *it* was locked.

I found a beautiful *pebble*, and brought *it* home.

I saw a *canary bird*, and wished to have *it*.

I am seized with *melancholy*, and fain would have *it* beaten away.

'The *wind* blew down the *wall; it* was very strong.' Here there are two nouns, and 'it' may equally apply to either 'wind' or 'wall.' Such cases are ambiguous.

'*Adversity* gives *wisdom*, although *it* is painful.' The two nouns 'adversity' and 'wisdom' both precede the pronoun 'it;' we know by the sense that the reference is to 'adversity.'

'It' with a backward reference—

(2.) to a clause.

'Surely the Lord is in this place, and I knew *it* not.' 'It' does not refer to 'place,' but to the fact expressed in the whole clause.

Earnest men will obtain converts; and no one is surprised at *it* (that earnest men obtain converts).

I say that Angelo is a villain. Is *it* not strange? (That he should be a villain).

2. 'It' with a forward reference to a phrase, or a clause.

It is foolish *to attempt the impossible* (phrase).

It is requisite to defer judgment.

It is vain to shift the scene.

It is peculiar to human beings to have a history.

It may be asserted *that unbroken happiness is not to be hoped for* (clause).

It is doubtful whether the story be true.

If *it* be asked, what has science done for us, *it* might be retorted, What was our condition a century ago?

3. 'It' with indefinite reference.

The reference of 'it' is indefinite in such phrases as 'Who is *it?*' 'what is *it?*' This is shown by the answers made to such questions: 'it is an old woman;' 'it is a child;' 'it is a baker's cart;' 'it is a horse;' 'it is a man selling fruit.'

In such phrases as—'lord *it*,' 'foot *it*,' 'brave *it* out,' the reference is so vague that 'it' may be considered a mere expletive.

8. They is the plural of 'He,' 'She,' and 'It.' 'Your fathers, where are *they?*' 'There are lionesses in the menagerie; I saw *them* to-day.' 'Many things have to be considered, but we cannot consider *them* all.'

'They' has sometimes a forward reference.

(1.) With the relative of restriction:—*They that* seek shall find.

(2.) With a phrase of restriction:—*They* of Arcadia.*

And *they* will best succeed, *that* best can pay.

9. This and that may in certain cases be classified as Pronouns.

'This' and 'that' usually take a noun with them, and must then be parsed as Adjectives. When they stand alone as words of reference, they must be taken as Pronouns: 'I would rather be in his place, than in *that* of his accuser;' 'as for meeting you to-morrow, *that* I can't promise;' '*this* is a strange doctrine;' 'who would endure *this?*'

10. In such phrases as '*one* cannot tell,' '*they say* that the war will not last long,'—**one** and **they** are called **Indefinite Demonstrative** Pronouns.

It is more polite to say—'Suppose *one* were accused of being dishonest,' than—'Suppose *I* were accused of being dishonest;' and much more than—'Suppose *you* were accused of being dishonest.'

'One' in this sense is derived not from the numeral 'one,' but from the French *on*, a corruption of *homme*—man. 'One

* See this usage kept up in Lord Derby's Translation of Homer.

is surprised to hear,' means, according to derivation, 'A man is surprised to hear.'

'One' should be followed by 'one' and not by 'he.' 'What *one* undertakes, *one* must endeavour to perform.'

11. The numeral **one** appears in such constructions as the following:—'I want a knife; give me a good *one*.' 'The little *ones* (children) are gone out.'

12. **Other** is used in the same way:—'One remains, the *others* have left.'

13. **Both** is likewise a word of reference:—'Will you take your coat or your cloak?' 'I will take *both*.'

14. Compounds formed by adding the word 'self' to Personal or Demonstrative Pronouns, are called **Reflective** Pronouns:—myself, thyself, ourselves, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves, one's self.

15. III. Relative Pronouns: who, which, that, what. These are the proper Relatives.

A Relative Pronoun unites sentences or clauses like a conjunction.

Who and its compounds—whoso, whoever, whosoever—apply to persons; **which** and its compounds—whichever, whichsoever—relate generally to things; **that**, and **what**, with its compound whatsoever, are used with both persons and things; 'whatever' relates to things.

16. Who is the **Co-ordinating** Relative of **Persons.**

'I called on Henry, *who* told me what happened.' This is the same as—*and he* told me what happened. It is a pronoun and a conjunction (*and*) together.

The Duke of Wellington, *who* commanded the English armies in the Peninsula, never lost a battle.

Our Father, *who* art in heaven.

And Mitford, *who* was gradually displacing Gillies, was himself displaced by later historians, *who* excelled both.

17. Which is the **Co-ordinating** Relative of **Things**:—In the wood I cut a stout stick, *which* (and it) helped me on the road wonderfully.

The word of God, *which* is contained in the Scriptures, is the only rule.

'They gave a loud shout, *which* was heard across the river.' This is the same as—*and it* was heard.

The English nation, *which* never ceased to desire liberty, is an example to other nations.

'Which' may refer back to a whole clause, like the Demonstrative Pronoun 'it':—'I turned off to the right hand, *which* led me astray.' The reference of 'which' is not 'hand,' but the fact expressed by the whole clause.

He then dissolved the Parliament; *which* was his favourite plan for meeting their demands.

18. That is the relative of **Restriction**, for both Persons and Things:—'The man *that* I called on;' 'the spring *that* I passed on the way.'

The saying—that I called on—restricts or points out the man intended. The spring that I passed on the way, is pointed out or restricted by this circumstance, namely, I passed it on the way.

'Kean was the best actor that I ever saw.' The class 'actor' is here under a two-fold restriction; the phrase 'that I ever saw' is the equivalent of an adjective (called an adjective clause) and limits actors to those seen by me. The second limitation is the adjective 'best,' which singles out one individual actor.

'One of the wisest men *who* ever lived,' is not correct; say, '*that* ever lived.'

Man is the only animal *that* can be both sociable and solitary.

It was a peace *that* everybody was glad of, and *that* nobody was proud of.

I love everything *that's* old.

The Post-office intimation beginning—Letters *which* contain coin—would be better thus—Letters *that* contain coin. The intention is to restrict the class 'Letters,' to those letters containing coin.

In such a night
Medea gathered the enchanted herbs
That did renew old Æson.

Uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown.

Man seems the only growth *that* dwindles here.

The only kind of nobility *that* becomes a philosopher, is the rank *that* he holds in the esteem of his fellows, *who* are the best judges of his merits.' The two first relatives are properly restrictive *(that)*; the last is co-ordinating *(who)*.

In modern style, 'Who' and 'Which' are often used for restriction instead of 'That'—the relative preferred by the old

writers. In conversation, the restrictive meaning is more frequently expressed by 'that.' 'You are welcome to any book *that* I have.' 'The boy *that* you see there will show you the way.'

19. **What** often stands for 'that which,' 'the—that:'—*That which* you propose, *the* thing *that* you propose, *what* you propose—is reasonable.

Man sometimes loathes *what* (the thing that) he imitates.

We become fond of *what* we have often benefitted.

We may understand *what* we could not have found out.

20. **As,** preceded by **Such,** has the force of the restrictive relative, applying to both persons and things.

It is a pleasing show to *such as* care for these things; I can always find there *such* articles *as* I want.

This is a contracted form. The full expression is—such articles as *the articles that* I want.

21. The word **But** serves as a relative in certain constructions:—'there was not a man of them *but* shook for dread,' for 'there was not a man of them *that* did *not* shake for dread.'

22. The adverb **When** answers the purpose of the restrictive relative, especially with a noun of *time* as the antecedent:—'It is the hour *when* from the boughs the nightingale's high note is heard.'

'When' is not always restrictive; sometimes it is co-ordinating. 'The day of trial will come, *when* all will be different.' When is here equivalent to 'and then.'

23. Where is used as a relative when the antecedent denotes *place*:—'This is the very spot *where* we stood two years ago.'

'Where' is sometimes co-ordinating, though oftener restrictive. 'On my way back, I called at the inn, *where* I found a pack of rough fellows drinking beer.' 'Where' is here equivalent to 'and there.'

24. Whence is occasionally used as a relative of place:—'he returned to the place *whence* he came,' instead of '*from which* he came,' or '*that* he came *from*.'

25. Whither is used in like manner in the sense of 'to a place;' as 'They went out not knowing whither.'

26. The compound forms — whoever, whoso, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever, whenever, whensoever, wherever, wheresoever, whithersoever, whencesoever—have a certain **Indefinite** meaning, and have their antecedents often left unexpressed: thus, '*whoever* said it,' means '*any person* that said it;' '*whoso* is prudent;' '*whatever* you say to the contrary;' '*wherever*, *whithersoever* you go, I will follow.'

27. IV. Interrogative Pronouns: who, which, what.

Who applies to *persons* and is entirely indefinite:—'*Who* goes there?' supposes complete ignorance of the person referred to.

28. Which, unlike its use as a Relative, applies to *persons* as well as to *things*.

Its peculiar force is selective. It supposes a known class or group, and inquires the particular individual or individuals: '*Which* of you will go with me?' '*Which* am I to take?'

29. What and Whatever refer exclusively to *things*:—'*What* say you?' '*Whatever* is the matter with the boy?'

When 'what' refers to persons, it is followed by a noun: '*what* man, *what* Roman, would be dragged in triumph thus?' 'Whatever' has the same usage.

The words 'when,' 'where,' 'whence,' 'whither,' may be used for asking questions; they are the Adverbial Interrogatives.

Exercise 7.

Examples containing Pronouns.

1. Even the wisest cannot, while a revolution is still recent, weigh quite fairly the evils that it has caused against the evils that it has removed.
2. How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! How is she become as a widow!
3. They say that the Prince leaves this to-morrow: would you have believed it?
4. The Emperor Nicholas, in 1854, ordered his troops to cross the Pruth, which was to invade Turkey.
5. This is what might be expected.
6. Romans, countrymen, and lovers! hear me for my cause; and be silent that you may hear. As Cæsar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honour him.

7. Where did you first see him? That is the point.

8. Boy, what sign is it, when a man of great spirit grows melancholy?

9. This is not such a prize as I expected, but it is the best that ever I heard of.

10. It inevitably follows that much that was useful to them is useless to us.

11. The authority of Aristotle was at one time almost paramount to that of the Scriptures themselves.

12. The willow, which bends to the tempest, often escapes better than the oak, which resists it.

13. One cannot always be studying one's own works.

14. He looks upon the whole world, as it were, in another light, and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind.

15. When this man has looked about him as far as he can, he concludes there is no more to be seen; when he has shot his best, he is sure none ever did, or ever can, shoot beyond it.

16. It is only when the attention to what is said relaxes, that one begins to consider who is behind and who is before.

17. No species of superstition was ever more terrible than that of the Druids.

18. There was nothing in the whole collection but was in keeping with himself.

19. Although man has great variety of thoughts, useful to himself and to others, yet they are all within his own breast.

20. It is my wish, while I yet live, that you, my boy, should visit the places where I myself have been.

21. In looking over a vast morass, unmarked by tower, or citadel, or town, which the horizon descends upon but does not bound, the shaping mind may discover more to think of than in the landscape that laughs with every variety of scenic beauty.

22. Though it is confessed that great and splendid actions are not the ordinary employment of life, yet any system is defective that leaves no room for them. They often save, and always illustrate, the age and nation where they appear.

23. What art does for men, nature has done for animals, which are themselves incapable of art.

24. There is no writer but must sometimes fail in genuine wit.

25. To bow and sue for grace
With suppliant knee, and deify his power,
. . . . . that were low indeed;
That were an ignominy and shame beneath
This downfall.

26. No cliff so bare but on its steep
Thy favours may be found.

27. There breathes not clansman of thy line
But would have given his life for thine.

28. Who is't that can inform me?
That can I.

29. The raven himself is hoarse
That croaks the fatal entrance of Duncan
Under my battlements.

30. He 's here in double trust:
First, as I am his kinsman and his subject,
Strong both against the deed; then, as his host,
Who should against his murderer shut the door,
Not bear the knife myself.

31. I have a strange infirmity, which is nothing
To those that know me.

Questions.

1. In what points does the Pronoun *agree* with the Noun? In what do they *differ?*

2. When we meet with the word 'he,' where must we look to see whom it denotes?

3. Give the Personal Pronouns. Apply the definition to them. How do they differ from Nouns?

4. In the saying—*we* owe you nothing—who are denoted by 'we?'

5. When is 'thou' used? What is 'you' applied to?

6. To what class of Pronouns belong 'he' and 'she?'

7. How many Modes of Reference has the pronoun 'it?' What is the First? When is this reference uncertain?

8. What is the Second Reference?

9. What is the Third Reference?

10. What is the mode of Reference in such expressions as 'lord *it*,' 'brave *it* out?'

11. What is the usual mode of Reference of 'they?' What other reference has it sometimes?

12. In what cases are the words 'this' and 'that' used as Pronouns? What other Part of Speech are they? What makes them Pronouns?

13. What are the Indefinite Demonstrative Pronouns?

14. Distinguish the two uses of the word 'one.'

15. Give an expression containing 'other' as a Pronoun. Would it be a Pronoun in the saying—He has *other* property?

16. What are the Reflective Pronouns?

17. What is a Relative Pronoun more than a Personal or Demonstrative Pronoun?

18. Which of the Relatives apply to Persons, which to Things?

19. What are the co-ordinating Relatives? Give the use of 'who.'

20. What are the purposes of 'which?' What uses are common to 'which' and 'it?'

21. What is the chief relative of Restriction? Give sentences showing the difference between Co-ordination and Restriction.

22. In the saying—we pursue *what* pleases us—give the use of 'what.'

23. Mention various substitutes for the Relatives, and mention which are co-ordinating, and which restrictive. Give illustrative sentences.

24. Give the Interrogative Pronouns. How do these answer to the Definition of the Pronoun?

THE ADJECTIVE.

DEFINITION.

1. *Definition.* An Adjective is a word joined to a noun, to increase its meaning and limit its extent:—as '*round* towers,' '*tall* men,' '*clear* water.'

'Towers' is a significant or general noun, comprehending a class of things. The word 'round' selects from the class 'towers' such as are round; accordingly 'round towers' means all that 'tower' means, and 'round' besides. The class 'round towers' is at the same time a smaller class than the class 'towers.'

'Tall men' has more meaning than 'men;' it adds tallness to the other distinctions of human beings. At the same time it makes a class of smaller extent.

'Clear water' means more than 'water'; and restricts the application, by leaving out all water that is not clear.

Adjectives express meanings that usually vary in *degree;* some tall men are taller than others; some water is clearer than other water; all things called 'round' are not equally round.

This shows the difference between an Adjective and a Noun used as an Adjective. If we say 'clear water,' we can say 'clearer, clearest;' but if we say 'rose water,' or 'ditch water,' we cannot say 'roser, rosest;' 'ditcher, ditchest.'

The greater number of adjectives are called Adjectives of **Quality.** A certain number express not Quality but **Quantity,**

or amount. A few words, having the effect of Adjectives, are derived from Pronouns, and are called **Pronominal**; these are the fewest of all; they may be taken first. Under Adjectives are placed the words *a* or *an*, and *the*, called the **Articles.**

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

2. I. **Pronominal.** These are of two kinds, *Demonstrative* and *Possessive.*

Pronouns stand by themselves in place of nouns: pronominal adjectives go along with nouns.

In the expression—'I don't like *that*'—'that' is a pronoun: in 'I don't like *that* man,' 'that' is a pronominal adjective.

3. 1. *Pronominal* **Demonstratives**:—this, that, the, you, yonder.

This applies to persons and to things, and means some object near at hand, or nearer than some other compared object:—'*this* man,' namely, some one close by; '*this* fellow was one of them.'

That applies also to persons and to things, and means something at a distance. '*That* man' is some one not close by.

'This' and 'that' are correlative or contrasting words; the one excludes or opposes the other; 'I mean *this* man, not *that* one.'

The, derived from 'that,' is commonly called the Definite Article.' It is usually explained along with 'a' or 'an,' called the Indefinite Article.

Yon and **yonder** are in use for the same meaning as 'that:' '*yon* castle wall;' '*yonder* city.'

4. 2. *Pronominal* **Possessives**:—my, mine, our, ours, thy, thine, your, yours, his, her, hers, its,

their, theirs. These are the possessives of the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns.

The forms **my, our, thy, your, their,** are used with nouns like any other adjectives; '*my* horse,' '*our* table,' '*your* desk,' '*their* house:' the corresponding forms **mine, ours, thine, yours, theirs,** are used in the predicate; 'the horse is *mine*,' 'the table is *ours*,' 'the desk is *yours*,' 'the house is *theirs*.'

Exercise 8.

Pronominal Adjectives.

1. Come one, come all, this rock shall fly
   From its firm base as soon as I.
2. That spear wound hath our master sped.
3. Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade.
4. There are only two courses open to us, to fight or to retreat; this is disgrace, that is madness.
5. Yon cottager who weaves at her own door.
6. In yonder grave a Druid lies.
7. Some sins do bear their privilege on earth,
   And so doth yours; your fault was not your folly.
8. Besides, this Duncan
   Hath borne his faculties so meek.

5. II. ADJECTIVES of **Quantity.**

1. Quantity in **mass** or **bulk**:—much, little, great, small, some, any: *much* food, *little* fire, *great* houses, *some* water.

6. 2. Quantity in **Number.** Under this head we have various kinds.

(1) **Definite** Numeral Adjectives :—as *eight* days (*cardinal* number); the *eighth* day (*ordinal* number); *single, double, triple (multipliers).*

A or **an**, the Indefinite Article, is the numeral adjective 'one,' with a somewhat altered signification.

Another is an ordinal adjective, meaning *the second* of *two.*

Both means two taken together, and is opposed to the distributives 'either' (one of two), and 'neither' (none of two).

(2) **Indefinite** Numeral Adjectives; as '*many* houses,' '*any* towns,' '*all* streets.' These express number, but not in the definite form of numeration.

Some denotes an uncertain portion of an entire collection: '*some* trees are more than two feet in diameter,' '*some* men have black hair.'

Certain is a small select number: 'there are *certain* points that I object to.' Applied in the singular, it means a particular and known individual:—'hard by lived a *certain* nobleman.'

Several is used to mean a small number. 'He went *several* miles, before he saw his mistake.'

Few is opposed to **many**:—'*Few, few* shall part where *many* meet.' 'A few' is *some—not many*:—'Thou hast *a few* names even in Sardis.' 'Not a few' is a more emphatic *many*:—'and of honourable women *not a few.*'

Most means the largest number:—'*most* people admit that.'

All is opposed to 'none,' and to 'some:'—'not one or two, but *all* acknowledged his power.'

Whole, or total, is opposed to 'part,' and hence to 'some:'—'the *whole* performance was admirable.'

No and None, the absence, negation, or privation of any-

thing:—'*no* sound broke the stillness,' '*no* mourners attended his funeral.'

(3) **Distributive** Numeral Adjectives; as '*each* man,' '*neither* way.' These are—each, either, neither, several, every, other.

Each means *two* or more things taken separately: **either** means *one* of two things. It is correct to say—'there are houses on *each* side of the road,' when we mean *both* sides: but we must say—'you may build a house on *either* side,' when we mean *one* and not both.

Every means *all*, of a number of things taken separately: '*every* art' means '*all* arts' when spoken of one by one.

Exercise 9.

Adjectives of Quantity

1. A small leak may sink a great ship.
2. The planets traverse enormous orbits.
3. Every little thing helps.
4. I will do your worship as much service for forty shillings as another shall for three pounds
5. The Feast of Tabernacles, which lasted seven days, began on the fifteenth day of the seventh month.
6. All join the chase, but few the triumph share.
7. They performed their several duties admirably, each striving to do his best.
8. Either of the two large rods, and any one of the small, will serve my purpose.
9. Each of the five rooms on the second floor is smaller than any of the three on the first floor
10. All thine adversaries, every one of them, shall go into captivity.
11. Several stars go to the making of one constellation.

12. Certain fishes have a swimming bladder.

13. Two men went up into the temple to pray: the one a Pharisee, the other a publican.

14. You must take both the horses or neither.

15. Love all, trust a few, do wrong to none.

16. The abilities of man must fall short on one side or other, like too scanty a blanket when you are abed.

17. A dungeon horrible, on all sides round
As one great furnace flamed.

18. He doth bestride the narrow world
Like a Colossus; and we petty men
Walk under his huge legs.

19. Then none was for a party,
Then all were for the state.

20. Two of a house few ages can afford,
One to perform, another to record.

21. Some he will lead to courts, and some to camps.

7. III. ADJECTIVES of **Quality**:—a *rich* man, a *beautiful* garden, *mighty* kings, *good* will, *holy* places, *old* walls, *high* mountains, *wild* beasts, *ancient* tunes, *natural* affection, *lowly* minds, *false* doctrines, the *African* lion.

To know whether a word is an Adjective of Quality, consider, *first*, whether it be an Adjective. Consider, *second*, whether it be a Pronominal Adjective, or an Adjective of Quantity. If, being an Adjective, it is neither of these two kinds, it is an Adjective of Quality.

Thus, 'spacious' is an Adjective: it complies with the Definition, as may be seen in using it with a noun, '*spacious* rooms,' '*spacious* grounds.' But it is not one of the Pronominal Adjectives, and it is not one of the Adjectives of

Quantity; accordingly we set it down as an Adjective of Quality.

Try on the same plan—oval, hard, cold, red, sweet.

8. Adjectives of Quality are as extensive as our knowledge.

The following are some leading classes of Adjectives of Quality:—

Time:—Enduring, permanent, frequent, transient, brief, hasty, momentary, unceasing, eternal, preceding, former, following, late, present, future, contemporary, approaching, bygone, ancient, modern, young, old, mature, early, punctual, ready, late, tardy, seasonable, incessant, recurrent.

Space:—Extensive, roomy, capacious, local, large, bulky, voluminous, minute, expanded, contracted, distant, near, long, short, broad, narrow, high, low, deep, upright, straight, slanting, level, flat, plane, hanging, parallel, inclined, inverted, crossed, external, internal, outer, inner, superficial, covered, bare, intervening, circumscribed, foremost, hindermost, lateral.

Form:—Regular, uniform, shaped, irregular, distorted; angular, bent, crooked, curved, round, oval, winding, spiral, conical, columnar, bulging, concave, hollow, open.

Motion:—Moving, still, stationary, restless, wandering, calm, quiet, steady, sailing; fast, speedy, swift, rapid, quick, fleet, nimble, brisk, slow, tardy, easy, lazy, sluggish; impulsive, recoiling; advancing, receding, undeviating, attracting, repelling, converging, diverging, admitting, excluding, rising, falling, turning, vibrating, tremulous.

Solidity:—Material, heavy, light, dense, rare, compact, thin, hard, soft, stiff, supple, tough, brittle, powdery, gritty, polished, frozen.

Fluidity :—Liquid, fluid, aerial, airy, molten, volatile, watery, wet, windy, moist, dry, flowing, bubbling, purling, frothy.

Colour :—Luminous, shining, bright, lustrous, dim, dull, dark, faint, dingy, misty, shady, transparent, glassy, turbid, coloured, white, black, red, crimson, pink, yellow, golden, purple, violet, blue.

Good and *Evil* :—Moral, right, good, upright, honest, just, fair, equable, worthy, lovable, proper, becoming, dutiful, noble, generous, liberal; wrong, unjust, immoral, bad, wicked, hateful, disagreeable, faithless, false, base, selfish, sinful, guilty, depraved, intemperate.

9. The class of Adjectives derived from proper names, and called **Proper** Adjectives, are principally Adjectives of Quality; as—the *Newtonian* telescope, a peculiar form of telescope invented by Newton.

THE ARTICLES.

10. **A** or **An** is called the **Indefinite** Article.

'*A* horse' means '*any* horse;' *one* horse, but *no one in particular;* any object of the kind or class horse.

These are not *two* articles, but different forms of the same article.

'A' is used before a consonant, and before 'h' (sounded as *h*), 'y,' or 'w;' '*a* meal,' '*a* house,' '*a* year,' '*a* world.' 'An' is used before a vowel, and before silent 'h;' '*an* ounce,' '*an* hour.'

Several words beginning with a vowel are pronounced as if they began with a consonant:—Ewe, eunuch, eulogy,

European, useful. Before such words some writers use 'an,' but most writers use 'a,' which is preferable—'*a* ewe-lamb,' '*a* eulogy,' '*a* European fame,' '*a* useful article.'

11. The is called the **Definite** Article.

'*The* horse' means some one horse in particular.

It is the unemphatic form of the demonstrative 'that,' and has itself a weaker demonstrative force than 'that.'

By this article, combined with significant nouns, we may single out an individual.

'*The* town' means the particular town that we live in or near.

'*The* window' means the window of the room that we live in.

'*The* Saviour,' '*the* tempter,' '*the* church'—are individual names.

The significant noun may be qualified by an adjective:—the *Catholic* church; the *south* wind; the *succeeding* generation; the *late* king.

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE SIMPLE ADJECTIVE.

12. 1. The **Adjective Clause** is a sentence serving to limit a Noun in the same manner as the Adjective:—the house *that Jack built;* subjects *that are hard to understand;* metals *that do not tarnish;* men *that have suffered reverses.*

'Subjects that are hard to understand'—is nearly the same as '*unintelligible* subjects.' For—'metals that do not tarnish,' we may substitute '*incorrodible* metals:'—'men that have suffered reverses'—'*unfortunate* men.'

We cannot always obtain an Adjective to make the restriction that is needed. There is no adjective for 'the

house that Jack built.' 'Kings that have succeeded while young,' cannot be expressed by a simple adjective united to 'kings.'

13. 2. The Adjective Clause may be reduced to a **Participial Phrase**;—the house *built by Jack;* Kings *succeeding while young;* men (that are) *predisposed* to crime; furnaces *consuming* (that consume) *their own smoke.*

These participial phrases either are or resemble shortened clauses.

14. 3. The place of the Adjective is often taken by a **Noun**:—a *diamond* necklace; the *opium* trade; the *London* mail; *Guernsey* granite.

These are still farther abbreviations. 'A diamond necklace' is a necklace *that is made of diamonds* (adjective clause); this may be shortened to the participial phrase—a necklace *made of diamonds.* By leaving out the verb entirely, it becomes 'diamond necklace,' which is the final substitute for a clause.

'The opium trade' is contracted from 'the trade that is carried on in opium.'

'London mail'—is the mail that proceeds to and from London, or the mail proceeding to and from London.

'Guernsey granite'—granite that is brought from Guernsey.

'Cod-liver oil' is a double contraction. 'Cod liver' is liver belonging to the cod; 'cod-liver oil' is oil that is extracted from the liver that belongs to, or is found in, the cod.

15. 4. A frequent substitute for the Adjective is a **phrase**:—a man *in armour;* castles *in the air;* the river *of the tree of life.*

These also are shortened forms of clauses. 'A man in armour,' is a man that is clad in armour. 'Castles in the air'—castles built, or that are built, or that are imagined in the air. 'The river of the tree of life'—'the river that runs by or near the tree that imparts life.'

Such phrases are mostly Adverbial phrases; the verbs that they belong to being left out.

16. 5. In signifying *possession*, a **possessive case** may serve the purpose of an Adjective:—*Harold's* grave; *the moon's* orbit; *virtue's* reward; *Heaven's* decree.

These possessives, like prepositional phrases, are shortened clauses:—The grave where Harold is buried; the orbit that the moon revolves in; the reward that follows on the practice of virtue; the decree that has been issued from Heaven.

17. 6. Occasionally, Adjectives have their place supplied by Adverbs:—*daily* bread; the *above* remarks; a *cross* section.

The same process of abbreviation is traceable here. 'Daily bread,' is bread that is supplied daily, or day by day; 'the above remarks'—the remarks that have been made above.

The adverb is to be understood as qualifying an omitted verb.

These substitutes for the Adjective are also explained in THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

ADJECTIVES IN THE PREDICATE.

18. The Predicate of a Sentence is often made up of an Incomplete Verb and an Adjective:—the fixed stars are *remote*; the sun rose *red*.

The verb 'be' is the chief of the incomplete verbs. Many sentences have as predicate some part of this verb along with an adjective: I *am strong;* the new gate *is secure;* the day *has been fine;* the bravest *are not* always *fortunate;* the golden eagle *is scarce.*

19. Adjectives in the Predicate are not restrictive, but co-ordinating. They do not narrow a class, but add some new meaning to it.

In the designation—'fixed stars,' the adjective 'fixed' narrows the class 'stars,' and increases its signification, so that the subject denotes not all 'stars,' but such stars as are fixed: this is the usual purpose of an adjective joined to a noun. In the saying—'the fixed stars are *remote*'—the adjective 'remote' does not farther narrow the class 'fixed stars,' but predicates, or says, of them that they are 'remote;' that they belong to the class—'remote or distant things.'

'Golden eagles are now rare.' The adjective 'golden' restricts the class 'eagles' and increases its meaning; the predicate adjective, 'rare,' does not restrict the class, but connects it, or co-ordinates it, with another class, the class 'rare animals.' It is the same as—'golden eagles are rare animals,' or are included in the wider class 'rare animals.'

'The new gate is secure,' is a shorter way of saying—'the new gate is a secure gate.' The predicate adjective does not restrict the noun in the subject—new gate; it restricts a noun in the predicate, which noun is not expressed.

'The bravest are not always fortunate.' There is here a double omission of the noun 'men.' 'The bravest *men* are not always fortunate *men.*' In this form the use of the adjectives—bravest, fortunate—is regular. By the one, 'men' is restricted to the bravest men; by the other, to fortunate men. The sentence denies that the two are always the same.

'Brutus is honourable,' is the same as 'Brutus is an honourable man.' 'Honourable' does not restrict Brutus; it restricts the class 'man,' and predicates of Brutus that he is to be found in the restricted class—'honourable men.'

With other Incomplete Verbs:—Britain has become *great;* studious men grow *wise;* the young horses were allowed to run *wild;* the moon shines *bright.*

'Britain has become great,' is the same as—Britain has become a great *nation.* So—studious men grow wise *men.* The young horses were allowed to run wild *horses*—to become wild horses. The moon shines bright—shines a bright *object.*

20. Many adjectives *prefixed to Nouns* are not restrictive, but co-ordinating, or predicate Adjectives.

This can be known only from the sense.

When an adjective is prefixed to a proper or singular name, it cannot be restrictive. '*Brave* soldiers' expresses a select class of soldiers, possessing, in addition to the qualities of all other soldiers, the quality of being brave. But 'brave Curtius' cannot restrict Curtius; an individual cannot be restricted. The meaning is—Curtius, *who was brave;* it is a short way of mentioning Curtius, and of saying also that Curtius was a brave man.

'Glorious Apollo' is Apollo, *who is glorious.* It names Apollo, and *implies* that he is glorious.

'Thou Great First Cause, least understood.' 'First' has a restrictive meaning; it selects from the class 'causes' the one that is first, or the foundation of all the rest. The adjective 'great' does not farther restrict 'First Cause;' but adds to it the designation Great; 'Thou First Cause, thou art great.' The phrase 'least understood' is an additional circumstance of co-ordination. The full expression of the

passage is—Thou art the First Cause; thou art Great; thou art least understood.

'The sea, the *open* sea'—the sea, *which is open*, which is an open thing. 'The wide world'—the world, which is wide, which is a wide object or thing. 'The glorious universe'—the universe, which is glorious. These adjectives are all co-ordinating : they have the same effect as a clause introduced by the co-ordinating relative—which.

'The human face divine.' The class noun 'face' is restricted by the adjective human—'human faces' are selected from the wider class 'faces.' The adjective 'divine' does not make a farther selection from human faces, or constitute a narrower class 'divine human faces,' leaving out certain human faces that are not divine; it adds to the class 'human faces,' in all its extent, the meaning 'divine'—the human face, which is divine, which is a divine face.

Pronominal Adjectives, Numeral Adjectives, and the Articles, comply with the definition of the Adjective; they limit a class word to a select portion, often to an individual. From their nature, they do not admit of degrees; they are not compared.

Exercise 10.

Adjectives generally.

1. It is better that ten guilty persons should escape than that one innocent should suffer.
2. King Arthur is said to have lived a blameless life in the good old times.
3. Cæsar is styled the foremost man of all this world.
4. Holy and heavenly thoughts shall counsel her.
5. The Sloane Collection was the first foundation of the British Museum.
6. O the roast beef of Old England,
   And O for Old England's roast beef.

7. Dryden the poet was one of the choice and master spirits of his age.

8. But anxious cares the pensive nymph oppressed,
And secret passions laboured in her breast.

9. People living in the country get town made articles from the retail traders of their neighbourhood.

10. Two boys whose birth beyond all question springs
From great and glorious, though forgotten kings.

11. Nimrod was a mighty hunter.

12. Country cousins are sometimes unwelcome visitors to their town friends.

13. These little things are great to little men.

14. Some pious drops the closing eye requires.

15. Hath sorrow struck
So many blows upon this face of mine,
And made no deeper wounds?

16. To every man upon this earth
Death cometh, soon or late.

17. He that tells a lie, is not sensible how great a task he undertakes; for to maintain that one, he must invent twenty more.

18. The battled towers, the donjon keep,
The loophole grates, where captives weep,
The flanking walls that round it sweep
In yellow lustre shone.

19. Soon will the high midsummer pomps come on.

20. Mine be the heart that can itself defend.

21. The loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind.

22. With every exertion the best of men can do but a moderate amount of good.

23. But oh! how few of all that try
This mighty march, do aught but die?

24. There are ninety good years of fair and foul weather
Between them, and both go a stealing together.

25. By this the northern waggoner had set
His sevenfold team behind the steadfast star.

26. Deep in the shady sadness of a vale,
Far sunken from the healthy breath of morn,
Far from the fiery noon and eve's one star,
Sat gray-haired Saturn, quiet as a stone.

27. And thy hair,
Thou other gold-bound brow, is like the first.

28. Jerusalem has derived additional reputation from the number and importance of her memorable sieges.

29. I am sorry for thee, thou art come to answer
A stony adversary, an inhuman wretch
Incapable of pity, void and empty
From any dram of mercy.

30. In the task of securing their armies against attacks in flank and rear, the Allies were much favoured by the conformation of the ground; for the besieging forces were all upon the Chersonese, which was so bounded by the sea on the one hand and the Sapounè Heights on the other, as to offer good means of defence.

31. From toil he wins his spirits light,
From busy day the peaceful night;
Rich from the very want of wealth,
In heaven's best treasures, peace and health.

32. When one of the unphilosophical artists of the circus gallops his round, standing or dancing upon his horse's back, and tosses up an orange, which he is afterwards to receive on the sharpened point of a sword, he presents to us an exemplification of some physical truths, connected with the most refined conclusions of science.

Questions.

1. Define the Adjective; apply the definition to the Adjectives—bright, square, good,—supplying a noun to each.

2. How can the Adjective be distinguished from the Noun?

3. Give the classes of Adjectives. Which class is *most* numerous?

4. What are the Pronominal Adjectives? Show how they come under the definition of the Adjective.

5. What is the difference of meaning between 'this' and 'that?' Why are they called *correlative* words?

6. What are the words—your, his, its, their—called? and why?

7. What are the words—much, great, some, any? Show how they comply with the definition of the Adjective. Show also that they cannot be Nouns. Can any of them be Pronouns?

8. What are the words—five, third, triple? How do they answer to the definition of the Adjective?

9. What are—all, any, most, several, few?

10. What are—either, each, every?

11. What is the difference of meaning between 'either' and 'each?'

12. What is the difference between 'all' and 'every?'

13. Give some Adjectives of Quality from the classes—Time, Space, Form, Motion, Colour. Apply to some of them the definition of the Adjective.

14. How do we know an Adjective of Quality? Take as examples—old, rapid, smooth, pleasant.

15. Give a reason for regarding Proper Adjectives as Adjectives of Quality.

16. What is the use of 'a,' called the Indefinite Article? Take the examples—*a* man, *a* table, *a* church.

17. What is the use of 'the,' called the Definite Article? Give the meaning of—*the* man, *the* table, *the* church.

18. What are the substitutes for the Adjective?

19. Restrict the noun 'man' by the signification 'rich,' expressed as an Adjective Clause.

20. What is a participial phrase? How may it be derived from an Adjective Clause?

21. In the designation—London Weekly Express—what are the words 'London' and 'Weekly?' State the meaning by clauses in full.

22. When a prepositional phrase takes the place of an Adjective, what Part of Speech does it answer to? and what does it qualify?

23. Fill up the omitted words in—Jacob's ladder, Time's revenge.

24. Give an example of an Adverb occupying the place of an Adjective. Give some omitted verb, which the Adverb qualifies.

25. Give a sentence containing an Adjective in the Predicate. What is the character of the Verb in such a Sentence?

26. Show that the Adjective in the Predicate is not restrictive, but co-ordinating. Examples—marine animals are cold; old wine is costly. What are the names that the predicate adjective restricts?

27. When an Adjective goes along with a Proper or Singular name, show that it cannot be restrictive.

THE VERB.

DEFINITION.

1. The **Verb** is the chief word used in predication.

There can be no Sentence without a Verb:—William *speaks;* rivers *deposit* mud; gold *is* heavy.

When we predicate, or affirm, of William that he speaks, we use a verb. The predication respecting rivers—'deposit mud'—contains the verb 'deposit,' and the object 'mud.' The predicate of gold—'is heavy'—contains the verb 'is' and the adjective 'heavy.'

2. The Verb takes on different forms to express the circumstances of Predication; the chief circumstance being TIME.

'William speaks' means that William is performing the act of speaking *now*, or at the *present* time. 'Pitt spoke'—would mean that the act took place in *past* time.

No part of Speech, except the Verb, undergoes changes for time. In other parts of speech there are words that express time—as the adverbs 'now,' 'formerly;' but that is their only purpose.

The other circumstances expressed by the Verb, besides Time, are given under INFLECTION.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

3. I. **Transitive** Verbs ; where the predicate is completed by an Object :—shepherds *watched* their flocks.

'Watch' is a transitive verb ; its meaning is completed by naming what the shepherds watched—'their flocks.'

The following are Transitive Verbs :—give, make, create, touch, train, break, kill, vanquish, lead, follow, rule, raise, add, dig, persuade, save, cherish.

Sentences containing a Transitive verb are those that give the fullest account of an action. When anything is done, we usually wish to know, first, who does it *(Subject)*, second, what is the nature of the action *(Verb)*, third, what person or thing the action is performed upon *(Object)*. 'Hannibal crossed the Alps, and defeated the Romans.' This contains two actions, each completely stated in a sentence with Subject, Verb, and Object.

Transitive Verbs can be turned into the form called the PASSIVE VOICE, the object then becoming the subject :—the flocks *were watched* by the shepherds ; the Romans *were defeated* by Hannibal.

4. II. **Intransitive** Verbs ; where the predicate is complete *without* an Object :—the sea *roars ;* the stars *twinkle.*

'The sea roars'—contains as subject 'the sea,' and as predicate the verb 'roars,' which possesses a meaning complete in itself.

The sun shines ; the clouds drift ; time passes ; nations rise and fall ; the wound healed ; we sat, the others stood ; some rode, some walked ; a few spoke, none read, many listened.

Transitive Verbs may become intransitive by expressing the action *generally*, or without reference to any particular Object. 'He digs a field,' is Transitive; 'he digs' is Intransitive, and means that his general occupation is digging. 'Virgil wrote the Æneid;' 'he writes,' as a profession. 'I see a ship;' 'the puppy sees' or has attained its sight.

Intransitive Verbs may be qualified both by an Adverb, and by an Adverbial phrase:—run quickly; follow in haste; we laughed at Joseph. Very often the preposition can be taken with the verb, making it a compound *transitive* verb:—laugh at, contend for, run against. These compound verbs can be used in the passive voice, which is the surest mark of a transitive verb:—Joseph was laughed at; the office was contended for; the carriage was run against; the proposal was not to be sneered at; everything was seen to.

The process of forming compound verbs by prepositions is not confined to Intransitive verbs. We use it in all verbs; build up, take down, drive along, pass by, strike for, &c. It is one of the regular processes of the language, for increasing the number of useful words.

Some Transitive verbs appear to have a *second* Object:—make *me a coat;* pay *the tailor his bill;* he taught *us music.* The proper objects in these sentences are—make *a coat*, pay *his bill*, taught *music.* The others, sometimes called *Indirect* Objects, are considered as adverbial adjuncts in the several sentences:—make a coat *for me;* pay his bill *to the tailor;* he taught music *to us.*

5. III. Verbs of Incomplete Predication:— be, seem, become, appear, call, grow, live, &c.

These verbs do not take an Object after them, as Transitive verbs do, and they do not of themselves give a meaning, like Intransitive Verbs. They are completed by

a noun or an adjective, in *co-ordination*, or apposition, with the subject.

In—'he was general,' the verb 'was' is completed by the noun 'general;' which noun predicates a circumstance respecting the subject.

'She will be handsome.' The compound verb 'will be' is completed by the co-ordinating adjective 'handsome.'

He *seemed* a god; the rumour *seems* true.

Wolsey became minister; he became great.

The object appeared a ship; John appeared mistaken.

Mercury is called a metal; all nations shall call him blessed.

The child will grow a man; he grows big.

He lived an example to his flock; he lived noble.

Some are born orators; some are born great.

Exercise 11.

The Verb.

1. The expedition failed.
2. The glass broke.
3. The mind developes.
4. Do I see this and live?
5. He left his home poor and returned rich.
6. New brooms sweep clean.
7. Winds o'er us whispered, flocks by us did bleat.
8. He said he would conquer or die.
9. Our sight is the greatest of our senses. We see objects at vast distances. We hear only when sounds are loud and close.
10. Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die.

11. The statesman that endeavours to substitute education for coercion deserves well of his country.

12. Happy those times
When lords were styled fathers of families.

13. The basaltic pillars of the Cave of Staffa are as high as the roof of a cathedral. The sea sweeps roaring into the cave, and beats against the pillars. The floor seems paved with ruddy marble. Boats can come in when the sea is placid.

14. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind.

15. Surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision. I saw her just above the horizon, decorating and cheering the elevated sphere she just began to move in.

16. Is it for thee the lark ascends and sings?
Joy tunes her voice, joy elevates her wings.
Is it for thee the linnet pours his throat?
Loves of his own and raptures swell the note.

Questions.

1. What is the verb? Why are the following words called verbs—shines, break, hear?

2. What circumstance is stated by a verb, besides mere predication?

3. Are the following words ever verbs—water, thunder, house, chair? What are the tests?

4. What is a Transitive Verb?

5. Supply subjects and objects to the following transitive verbs:—create, lift, drive, touch, encourage.

6. Why is it said that sentences with Transitive Verbs give the fullest meaning?

7. Exemplify the passive construction of Transitive Verbs.

8. What is an Intransitive verb? Give sentences with Intransitive verbs.

9. Point out in what way Transitive verbs become Intransitive.

10. When a Transitive verb has two objects, what is the second regarded as?

11. To what class belongs the verb 'be.' Mention others of the same class. What words have to be added to these Verbs to form Predicates?

THE ADVERB.

DEFINITION.

1. The **Adverb** is the part of speech that modifies the meaning of the Verb:—He spoke *slowly;* they judged *wisely;* Hercules cleansed the stables *thoroughly;* we were *well* advised.

Most actions can be performed in various ways. The action 'speaking' may be slow, rapid, distinct, confused; and for expressing these modes, we join to the verb the words—slowly, rapidly, distinctly, confusedly.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

2. I. Adverbs of **Place**: as—here, hence, near, together.

We will remain *here;* they entered the city *together.*

(1.) **Rest in a place**: — here (in this place), there (in that place), where (in what place), at, by, near, yonder, above, below.

There is used by a peculiar idiom to introduce a verb before its subject:—*there* was a great tumult in the city; *there* appeared unto them Moses and Elias; *there* existed a custom.

Near, by, are the adverbs of *nearness* or *proximity*:—there was no one *near;* stand *by;* a lady passed *by.*

Separation in place is expressed by **apart, separately, asunder**:—six miles *apart;* wide as the poles *asunder.*

Conjunction is expressed by **together**:—while they stood talking *together*.

Place, in a variety of relative positions, is indicated by —above, aloft, below, under, down, beyond, yonder, away, through, in, out, without, inwards, inside, around, fro, forth.

Under place we may class the adverbs of numerical order:—firstly, or first, secondly, lastly, &c.

(2.) **Motion to** a place:—hither (to this place), thither (to that place), whither (to what place).

Bring your son *hither*; he proceeded *thither* in January; *whither* bound?

(3.) **Motion from** a place:—hence (from this place), thence (from that place), whence (from what place).

Depart *hence*; *thence* he proceeded to York; *whence* come you?

The **pronominal** adverbs form three regular groups corresponding to these divisions:—

Place where	*Motion to*	*Motion from*
Here	Hither	Hence
There	Thither	Thence
Where	Whither	Whence

Where, used as an Interrogative, is a simple adverb, the equivalent of the interrogative adverbial phrase—'in what place?' But in such expressions as—'Know ye the land *where* the citron-trees blow,' 'where' serves more the function of a pronoun; it is equivalent to 'in which'—a pronominal adverbial phrase.

3. **II.** Adverbs of **Time**: ever, seldom, now, monthly, to-morrow, &c. Time may be present, past, or future.

(1.) Time **present**. **Now** is the main or typical

adverb of present time; others are—to-day, instantly, presently, still, forthwith, henceforth.

(2.) Time **past**:—before, heretofore, hitherto, already, lately, once, yesterday.

(3.) Time **future**:—hereafter, afterwards, soon, henceforth, presently, immediately, to-morrow, no more.

(4.) Adverbs also express **Duration** of time and **Repetition**:—ever, never, always, aye, often, seldom, rarely, occasionally, frequently, continually, continuously, incessantly, perpetually, again, once, twice, daily, monthly, annually, periodically.

Then and **when** may be described as **Relative** adverbs of time. They express time not absolutely but with reference to some time otherwise given. They are equivalent to the pronominal phrases—'at that time,' 'at what time?'

4. III. Adverbs of **Degree**, or **Measure**:—much, little, very, far, exceedingly.

The adverbs **so**, **as**, and **too**, are used to express degree or measure *by comparison* with something else. These adverbs are peculiarly important.

The prize-ox was *so* fat that he could hardly walk.

The ship was *as* big *as* a first-rate man-of-war.

Too good to be true.

5. Adverbs of Degree may be used to qualify Adjectives and other Adverbs:—*very* rich; *exceedingly* moderate; *thoroughly* well.

'Rich' and 'moderate' are adjectives; 'well' is an adverb.

Both Adjectives and Adverbs of Quality may be varied for Degree. This variation is made in one way by their

comparison; in another way by adverbs of degree or measure.

Adverbs qualifying Adjectives :—*Slightly* red; *scarcely* hot; *tremendously* bad.

Adverbs qualifying Adverbs :—*very* patiently; *far more* resolutely; *so* kindly; *much less* warily.

6. IV. Adverbs of **Belief** and **Disbelief**, or Certainty and Uncertainty: as—truly, surely, certainly, nay, not, not so.

7. V. Adverbs of **Cause** and **Effect**: as—therefore, wherefore, why.

8. VI. Adverbs of **Manner** or **Quality**: as—well, ill, gently, boldly, disagreeably, rapidly.

As with adjectives, this is the class that includes the great body of adverbs.

9. **Adverbial Phrases.** Phrases, made up of a preposition and a noun, are used as Adverbs:—the enemy set the town *on fire;* speak *in point, to the point.*

The phrases may be compound. The noun may be qualified by an Adjective:—they came in *great haste;* we worked to *no purpose;* the trial ended on *the third day.*

There may be a succession of prepositional phrases:—in point of fact; according to this rate of speed; by means of a summary proceeding at law; to all intents and purposes.

Examples of Adverbial Phrases.

To express *Place*:—in the house; behind the door; towards the river; from the South.

To express *Time*:—in the twinkling of an eye; at the close of the day; after twenty years.

To express *Degree*:—in a great measure; by little and little; to a small extent; in a high degree.

To express *Belief* and *Disbelief*:—by all manner of means; without a doubt; on no account; not a jot.

To express *Cause* and *Effect*:—by means of his wealth, through the medium of a lawyer, by dint of perseverance, to their own disadvantage, with the happiest effect.

To express *Manner* or *Quality*:—in the top of his glory; in sickness or in sorrow; with fondness; with fire and fury, &c. &c. The Adverbial Phrases of manner and quality are innumerable.

The following are select classes of Adverbs of Quality (words and phrases.)

Life and *Death*:—In life, above ground, at death's door, at the point of death.

Pleasure and *Pain*:—Acutely, sharply, pungently, sensibly, feelingly, pleasurably, joyfully, delightfully, daintily, sweetly, tenderly, painfully, miserably, disastrously, agonizingly, frigidly, horribly, bitterly, sourly. In rapture, in love, in joy, in misery, in pain, in a glow, in a fever, in a horrible plight, in danger, in distress, in an agony of grief, in a transport of joy, in a frenzy of despair, with indifference, with an air of melancholy, in a merry fit.

Sound:—Sonorously, loudly, vociferously, quietly, silently, stilly, noiselessly, inaudibly, obstreperously, boisterously, clamorously, harmoniously, tunefully, melodiously, discordantly, jarringly, gratingly. At the top of one's voice, with a loud shout, in full cry, with jarring sound, in rough accents, with loud acclaim, with a wild whoop, in a stage whisper, in winning tones, with a soft cadence, in tune, out of tune, in a high key, at a different pitch.

Speech:—Explicitly, distinctly, intelligibly, literally, lucidly, plainly, learnedly, expressively, simply, legibly, obviously, truly, openly, publicly, graphically, metaphorically, figuratively, drily, infallibly, pointedly, obscurely, vaguely, ambiguously, abstrusely, falsely, inexplicably, dogmatically, diplomatically, evasively, deceptively, hypocritically. In plain terms, in honest truth, in dark hints, in mysterious oracles, with learned phrase, with effective elocution, in affected language, in sportive vein, 'in King Cambyses' vein,' with artless eloquence, with great tact.

The above list shows that adverbs are nearly all derived from Adjectives, by adding the syllable ly;—plain, plainly. Hence these examples also furnish corresponding Adjectives.

On the other hand, the classes of *Adjectives of Quality* (p. 64) furnish corresponding Adverbs. Although all Adjectives cannot be changed into Adverbs, a good many can.

10. The Adverbial phrase sometimes appears with the preposition dropt:—they rode *home;* he was out *all day.*

These are abbreviated expressions for—towards home, during all the day.

It is in such cases that **Nouns** are said to be used as Adverbs.

11. Adverbial Clauses are extensively used in place of adverbs:—tarry *till I come;* he was *as* fresh *as is the month of May.*

These are fully exemplified in the ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

12. Sometimes Adjectives appear to be used as Adverbs.

(1.) Certain words are both Adjectives and Ad-

verbs; as—ill, much, more, most, little, first, soft, fast, clean.

(2.) The Adjectives that accompany Incomplete Verbs are apt to be regarded as Adverbs:—stand *firm*; he sits *silent*; the broken sheds looked *sad* and *strange*; the moon shines *bright*. These are properly Adjectives.

Errors in using the Adjective for the Adverb. Unless in special instances, the use of an Adjective to qualify a verb, another adjective, or an adverb, is an error:—*remarkable* strong, for—remarkably strong.

Two adjectives of quality may go together, as—'a tall, handsome man,' which means a man both tall and handsome.

Exercise 12.

The Adverb.

1. America was discovered by Columbus in the year 1492.
2. By studying economy I live like a lord.
3. He sang as merrily as a lark on a spring morning.
4. Mrs. St. John came down to breakfast every morning in that summer visit of the year 1638.
5. Only the noble lift willingly with their whole strength at the general burden.
6. He performed his business cheerfully and with despatch.
7. Half-a-league onward.
8. Cannon to right of them, cannon to left of them.
9. Somewhere, I knew not where—somehow, I knew not how—by some beings, I knew not by whom.
10. They tug, they strain, down, down they go,
    The Gael above, Fitz-James below.

11. And I awoke in struggles, and cried aloud:—I will sleep no more.

12. On the morrow he will leave me, as my hopes have flown before.

13. Presently my soul grew stronger: hesitating then no longer,—Sir, said I, or Madam, truly your forgiveness I implore.

14. This mounting wave will roll us shoreward soon.

15. Slowly and sadly we laid him down
From the field of his fame fresh and gory.

16. Many a time and oft
In the Rialto you have rated me.

17. Some, as often happens, gave up the pursuit half-way.

18. In the first place, Natural History is almost exclusively a science of observation.

19. Man is necessarily, and from the very mode and nature of his existence, to all intents a speculative being.

20. There's nothing half so sweet in life
As Love's young dream.

21. Some day I shall be cold, I know—
But ah, not yet, not yet!

22. He lay still until I was within a hundred yards of him; then slowly rising on his fin-like legs, he lumbered towards the river, looking askance at me.

23. But we steadfastly gazed on the face that was dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

24. At the close of the day, when the hamlet is still.

25. In the garb of old Gaul, with the fire of old Rome.

26. Idle after dinner in his chair
Sat a farmer, ruddy, fat, and fair.

27. 'Tis years since last we met,
And we may not meet again.

28. Oh! darkly, deeply, beautifully blue,
As some one somewhere sings about the sky.

29. A little of that goes a very long way.

30. I am ten times undone.

31. Nature formed me of her softest mould,
Enfeebled all my soul with tender passions,
And sunk me even below my weak sex.

32. Where shall I drive to? Home.

33. With death doomed to grapple
Beneath this cold slab, he
Who lied in the chapel
Now lies in the Abbey.

34. I slept very soundly, and waked much better composed than I had ever been before; and now I began to think sedately; and upon the utmost debate with myself, I concluded that this island, which was so exceeding pleasant, fruitful, and no farther from the mainland than as I had seen, was not so entirely abandoned as I might imagine.

35. But first as he flew, I forgot to say,
That he hovered a moment upon his way.
If his eyes were good, he saw by night
What we see every day.

36. A murky storm deep lowering o'er our heads
Hung imminent, that with impervious gloom
Opposed itself to Cynthia's silver ray.

37. With such a companion to tend a few sheep,
To rise up and play, or to lie down and sleep;
I was so good-humoured, so cheerful and gay,
My heart was as light as a feather all day.
But now I so cross and so peevish am grown,
So strangely uneasy as never was known.

Questions.

1. In what respect do the Adjective and the Adverb agree? In what respect do they differ?

2. How does the Adverb vary the statement of actions? Examples—walking, looking, working, sailing.

3. What are the different modes of Place? Give the uses of—there, near, where, whence, whither.

4. What are the Pronominal Adverbs? Why are they called Pronominal?

5. What are the chief Adverbs of Duration and Repetition?

6. Besides verbs, what parts of speech are qualified by Adverbs of Degree and Measure?

7. Give the Comparative Adverbs. Why are they so called?

8. What are the Adverbs of Belief and Disbelief?

9. Which class of Adverbs is most numerous?

10. How are Adverbial Phrases made up?

11. Refer to the lists of Adjectives (p. 64), and make Adverbs out of as many of them as possible.

12. When the Preposition is dropt, what form does the Phrase assume?

13. What is an Adverbial Clause?

14. In what cases do Adjectives seem to be used as Adverbs?

15. When may two Adjectives come together with the same noun? In what cases is this an error?

THE PREPOSITION.

DEFINITION.

1. A preposition is a word of relation placed before a Noun, to make up a qualifying phrase:—he died *at Calcutta; in truth* they do not know.

The Preposition is called a word of *relation*, because in itself it *is unmeaning*; it relates or connects other words—chiefly nouns or verbs. Its most usual position is before a noun and after a verb:—the sun shines *on* the water. It has been termed a *link*-word.

The phrase made up of preposition and noun is mostly adverbial. From qualifying verbs, it comes, by abbreviation, to qualify nouns in the manner of the Adjective.

The equivalents of the Noun in the Sentence,—the Pronoun and the Infinitive, may be conjoined with a preposition, and make up phrases:—Speak *to* me; go *with* them; *on* hearing this they settled the matter *by* writing.

In such expressions as—'in all,' 'in none,' 'for good,' 'for better,' 'for worse,' prepositions are combined with adjectives instead of nouns. These, however, are exceptions and irregularities, brought about by the desire of being short.

In relative constructions, the preposition, in English, may follow its word at a distance:—John, *whom* I did not speak *to*, was present; *what* he is accused *of*, we shall hear.

'The two greatest mathamaticians *that* I have ever had the honour to be known *to*.'

'The *man* (that) you were so anxious to discover, I have at length got information *of*.'

When a Preposition is followed by a Noun Clause, it is no

longer regarded as a Preposition, but as a Conjunction :—'*since* yesterday' (Preposition) ; '*since* (that) I left home' (Conjunction). Several other prepositions appear in this double capacity :—till, before, after.

2. The Prepositions are a small class of words, some of them being primitive words of the language, while others are compound and derived.

Primitive prepositions :—Of, to, from, for, by, with, in, on, at, over, up, down, through.

Compounds : — Into, unto, upon, along, below, before, beyond, between, until, since, among, against, but *(by out)*, besides *(by side of)*, near *(nigher)*, under, after, within, without.

Participles of Verbs :—Save (saving), except (excepting), during, pending, touching, concerning.

3. There are numerous *phrases* serving the purpose of Prepositions :—*in spite of* fate ; *on account of* the reward ; *by the help of* the Lord.

These phrases are most commonly made up of a preposition and a noun followed by another preposition. Several simple phrases may be strung together :—*in consequence of the loss of* the ship.

The first preposition may be dropt, or fused with its noun :—*apart from* the result ; *this side* the river, for—*on* this side (of) the river.

4. The chief of the primary Prepositions signified *Direction*, and, when joined to verbs of action, or movement, gave the direction of the movement.

Of, to, from, by, in, with, over, under, up, down, after—all appear to express, in the first instance, the direction of

movement. Some of them also signify place, or local position *at rest;* which position may be viewed as the termination of the movement.

The river runs—*from* the mountains, *by* the fields, *near* the church, *round* the town, *through* the common, *over* the rocks, *to* the sea.

Hence several prepositions are also adverbs of direction and place. (See THE ADVERB, *Place*).

The Preposition has thus two faces, one to the Noun, another to the Verb. As signifying Direction of Movement, it supposes, first, a word expressing movement—commonly a *verb:* and, next, a point to move towards, or away from, which is usually given by some *noun:*—we walked *from* town, *to* the seashore.

The preposition is not necessarily accompanied by a noun. The direction of the movement may be stated without naming a specific point or object:—rise *up*; come *near*; go *before*, work *under*. In such cases the preposition combines with the verb, making a class of compound verbs with new and special meanings:—'rise,' and 'rise up,' are distinct verbs. So—break, break off; get, get on.

CASE—PREPOSITIONS.

5. The prepositions—of, to, for, from, by, with—express meanings that were given in the classical languages by case-endings.

These are the oldest and most widely used of our Prepositions.

6. Of corresponds to the possessive case in English, and the genitive case in other languages.

'Of' expresses a variety of relations, which may be traced up to a common source. The original import of the root

was 'proceeding from,' which easily led to the meaning now most generally signified, namely, 'belonging to.' For example, 'the strength of the arm' means a property proceeding from the arm; and therefore inhering in it, or belonging to it.

1. The **Partitive** meaning. 'Of' is used to relate the part of anything to the whole:—the trunk *of* the elephant; the leg *of* the table; the leaves *of* the book.

In such phrases as—The Mayor *of* London, London is viewed as a whole—houses, streets, people, institutions—and the Mayor is part of that whole.

2. The **Attributive** meaning. 'Of' is used to connect an abstract property, or quality, with the concrete:—the breadth *of* the road; the clearness *of* the sky; the meekness *of* the dove.

'Breadth,' 'clearness,' 'meekness,' are not actual parts of the road, the sky, the dove; but abstract qualities, named by abstract nouns.

3. The **Reference** meaning: — A book *of* Music: the love *of* mankind; the cause *of* temperance; the end *of* life.

'A book of music,' is a book referring to music, or having for its subject music.

'The love of mankind,' is love having reference to mankind; 'the love of sport,' is love referring to, or directed to, sport.

'The cause of temperance,' is the cause referring to, or relating to, temperance.

'The end of life,' is the end referring to, or bearing upon, the act of living, or life.

This meaning is often opposed to the partitive meaning. 'The love of God'—may mean (1) the love displayed by God towards man—God's love (*partitive* meaning); or (2) the love put forth by man towards God (*reference* meaning). 'The chief end of man'—is either (1) the end pursued by man—man's own end (*partitive*); or (2) God's end towards man—God's end in the creation of man (*reference*). 'The reform of the Government'—might be either a reform made by the Government upon something else, or a reform made upon the Government itself.

7. To. The primary meaning of 'to' is **motion towards**:—bring that *to* me; *to* your tents, O Israel; wheel *to* the right.

As 'of' expresses *reference from*, so 'to' expresses *reference towards*:—the love *of* David *to* Absalom; the hatred *of* the Jews *to* the Gentiles; with love *to* man this cup is fraught.

8. For. The primary meaning of 'for' is **fore, in front of.**

'For' is used to express various relations, more or less connected with its primary meaning:—

(1.) *Direction*, purpose, benefit:—he sets out *for* town; he toiled *for* fame; a subscription *for* the poor.

(2.) *Notwithstanding*, in spite of:—*for* all his learning, he did little good in the world; *for* all their precautions, the enterprise failed.

(3.) In opposition to *against*:—he that is not *against* us is *for* us; he spoke *against* his party, and voted *for* it.

9. From signifies **forth, forwards,** *beginning from, proceeding from*:—he came *from* London; *from* Land's End to John o'Groat's House.

It is widely used to express 'direction from' among things that succeed each other:—*from* day to day; *from* being a

shepherd he became a king; *from* love to hatred; *from* one degree of indulgence to another; he acted *from* a sense of justice.

10. By. The primary meaning of 'by' is **alongside of, near to**:—*by* Babel's streams; *by* the fire.

The following applications accord with the original meaning:—they stood *by* their chief; aided *by* his friends; done *by* fairy hands; *by* the light of the moon; they came *by* night.

11. With. The primary meaning of 'with' is *joining* or *uniting*.

It is used to express the following connected relations:—

(1.) *Companionship*:—abide *with* me; go *with* them.

(2.) *Possession*:—the lady *with* the silk dress; he came to town *with* a few shillings in his pocket; *with* all my gifts I come.

(3.) *Opposition* (like 'for'):—*with* all his eloquence, he failed to persuade them.

(4.) *Cause, manner*, or *instrument*:—pale *with* fear; clothed *with* majesty; he felled the tree *with* his axe.

CLASSES OF PREPOSITIONS GENERALLY.

12. The entire body of Prepositions may be classified as follows:—

13. I. Place.

1. *Rest in* (the where):—in, on, at, near, by.

In a cottage *near* a wood; arrayed *in* festive guise; *in* what concerns thy interest; blending *in* accord; skilled *in* his profession; *in* fact; *on* Sunium's marble steep; *at* home; *at* the cannon's mouth; *at* any rate; *at* liberty; *at* rest; *near* the hills.

2. *Motion with direction* (the whence and the whither) :—to, into, unto, towards (up, down), from.

Death cometh *to* all; they disappeared *into* the wood; he went *into* business; fall *into* their hands; vanish *into* thin air; come *into* being; *unto* that place the tribes go up; *unto* us a child is given; they marched *towards* the city; *up* a steep mountain; come *down* the street.

3. *Place and Direction* : — on, over, under, through, behind, between, among, upon, near, off, across, beyond, abaft, above, round, against, without.

On dry land; *on* eagle's wings; *on* hand; *over* the sea; a shadow *o'er* his halls crept year by year; *under* the earth; *under* fostering care; he had soldiers *under* him; *through* the pine wood; *through* his energy; *behind* the door; *between* the tree and the brook; *among* his companions; *off* the mainland; *across* the stream; *beyond* seas; *beyond* his conceptions; *above* the hamlet; *against* the Tiber's mouth; go *round* the world; *without* the city; *abaft* the mast.

14. II. Time :—Since, till, until, during, pending, after, ere.

Since Whitsunday; *till* daybreak; *until* mid-day; *during* the siege; *pending* the trial; *after* sunset; *ere* this time.

15. Many Prepositions of place may be applied to time by governing a noun of time: as—in, on, at, before, between, by, within, about, above, near.

In the month of December; *on* Christmas eve; *at* midnight; *before* the break of day; *between* three and four o'clock; *by* next month; *within* six days: *about* forty years; *above* a century; *near* the end of the week.

16. III. **Agency.** The *agent*, instrument, or means of an action is indicated by the Prepositions—by, through, with; and by the *phrases*—by means of, by virtue of, through the instrumentality of, by help of, by means of, &c.

Wrested *by* violence; melted *by* heat; he succeeded *through* sheer impudence; dug up *with* a mattock; *by means of* minute investigation; *by virtue of* its healing qualities; *through the instrumentality of* powerful friends; *by help of* his advice; *by force of* steadfast attention.

17. IV. **End,** purpose, motive, or reason:—for, from. *Phrases:*—out of, on account of, by way of, for the sake of, for the ends of, in consideration of, on the score of, from a regard to, with a view to, with an eye to, &c.

A struggle *for* life; And hearts that once beat high *for* praise; he was silent *from* bashfulness; he did it *out of* pure goodwill; he was pardoned *on account of* his youth; this was said *by way of* introduction; we will yield *for the sake of* peace; a knowledge of men is necessary *for the ends of* the orator; he was presented with a purse *in consideration of* his services; he was preferred *on the score of* his greater experience; the work was suppressed *from a regard to* the author's reputation; the house was furnished *with a view to* comfort; *with an eye to* the main chance.

18. V. **Reference:**—on, of, about, touching, concerning, with reference to, as for, as to, as regards, on the subject of, on the matter of, on the point of, in respect of, in the event of, in case of.

Burke wrote *on* the Sublime; I love the tales *of* other days; *about* this matter there can be no doubt; silence should be kept *touching* these matters; a law was passed *con-*

cerning Trades-Unions; *with reference to* your letter of yesterday; *as for* me and my house; there was no question *as to* his ability; he is happy *as regards* his friends; a lecture was delivered *on the subject of* heat; *in respect of* age he was a suitable candidate; *in the event of* the enemy landing upon our shores; *in case of* his struggling, they had instructions to force him.

19. VI. **Separation** and Exclusion:—without, save, except, besides, setting aside, apart from, far from, but.

Without either money or credit; all *save* only Hermann; they all mutinied *except* the first mate; *besides* wealth, he had contentment; *setting aside* the consideration of means; *apart from* his good looks, he had little to recommend him; *far from* the madding crowd's ignoble strife; nothing remains on earth *but* fame.

20. VII. **Inclination** and Conformity:—for, according to, in accordance with, conformably to, in pursuance of.

For better or *for* worse; *according to* the practice of civilized nations; *in accordance with* the wishes of his father; *conformably to* the custom of the town; *in pursuance of* the new act.

21. VIII. **Aversion,** Opposition:—against, in spite of, in defiance of.

A speech *against* the repeal of the Union; he failed *in spite of* all his endeavours; *in defiance of* popular opinion.

22. IX. **Substitution**:—for, instead of, in room of, in place of, as a substitute for.

An eye *for* an eye; blessing *instead of* cursing; *in room*

of his father; *in place of* the late incumbent; they used peat *as a substitute for* coals.

As an **Exercise** point out the prepositions occurring in previous Exercises.

Questions.

1. What is meant by calling the Preposition a word of *relation?* What classes of words are related, or connected, by the preposition?
2. What are the other Parts of Speech that are words of relation?
3. What words, besides the noun, may be followed by a preposition?
4. When a preposition is followed by a Clause, how is it regarded?
5. Give the most simple and primitive prepositions.
6. What are the compound prepositions?
7. What prepositions are derived from Verbs?
8. Give some phrases used as Prepositions. How are these phrases usually made up?
9. What meaning attaches to the simple or primary prepositions? How does this meaning connect them with Verbs? How does it connect them with Nouns?
10. What are the prepositions that give the meanings of the case-endings in the classical languages?
11. What case, in the English noun, does 'of' answer to?
12. What different meanings has 'of'? Which of them is found in the following examples:—the heat of the fire, the wing of the butterfly, the love of the child?
13. Give the meaning of 'to,' with examples.
14. Distinguish the meanings of 'for.'

15. What is the primary meaning of 'from'? How is this extended?

16. What is the meaning of 'by'?

17. Give the primary and the derived meanings of 'with.'

18. Enumerate the Prepositions of PLACE, under the several heads. Show that *direction* of movement pervades them all.

19. What are the prepositions of TIME? Which of them are also prepositions of Place?

20. What prepositions express AGENCY? Which of them are borrowed from other meanings?

21. What are the primary prepositions suited to express END or purpose? Give phrases signifying End.

22. Give prepositions and phrases of REFERENCE.

23. What is the chief preposition of SEPARATION? Give phrases.

24. How is INCLINATION expressed? How AVERSION? How SUBSTITUTION?

THE CONJUNCTION.

DEFINITION.

1. Conjunctions are words of relation, joining sentences together.

Like Prepositions, Conjunctions are unmeaning when they stand alone. They connect different sentences or affirmations, so as to show the mutual bearing of the sentences conjoined.

'We should not be too confident, *for* we are all fallible.' The two distinct sentences—'we should not be too confident,' 'we are all fallible'—are united by the conjunction 'for;' which also gives the mutual bearing of the two sentences,—namely, that the second is a *reason* for the first.

While the Preposition unites verbs to nouns, or nouns to nouns and adjectives, in the same sentence, the Conjunction unites different sentences:—bring the letter *to* me, *and* (conj.) I will answer it; he would have eaten husks, *but* (conj.) no one gave them *to* him.

Owing to abbreviations, conjunctions sometimes appear to join words in the same sentence:—John *and* I will see to it. This, however, is a contraction of two sentences—John will see to it, *and* I will see to it. 'I wish to see you *but* not him' is—I wish to see you, *but* I do not wish to see him. 'This has been done once *and* again'—this has been done once, *and* it has been done again. 'I would thou wert *either* cold *or* hot'—I would *either* that thou wert cold, *or* that thou wert hot.

2. The Conjunctions are a small number of single words (some used also as Adverbs or as Prepositions), together with Phrases.

The pure and proper conjunctions are—and, if, though, or, nor, either, neither, lest—all very extensively used. 'And,' 'but,' 'if,' and 'or' are amongst the most familiar words of the language.

The conjunctions that have an Adverbial character are—as, so, also, likewise, otherwise, now, yet, then, when, while, lest, therefore, wherefore, nevertheless. Most of these are still used as Adverbs; and many, if not all of them, may have been adverbs first.

'He has not come *yet*.' 'Yet' is here an adverb of Time. I am hungry, *yet* I cannot eat;' 'yet' is here a conjunction.

The Conjunctions that are also Prepositions are—for, before, after, since, until, ere, except, but. These words may have passed from prepositions to conjunctions by taking after them the demonstrative *that*, followed by a clause:—'*for* I repented,' for *that* I repented; '*after* he came,' after *that* he came. In Old English constructions, the demonstrative is often retained:—'Fain would I climb *but that* I fear to fall.'

The word 'that' is itself a conjunction of End.

There are a few conjunctive phrases, or compounds of simple conjunctions:—so as, so then, as if, in order that, seeing that, supposing that, inasmuch as, forasmuch as, for that reason, because (by means of), nevertheless, as well as, not only.

3. For understanding the Conjunctions, attention must be paid to the difference between co-ordinate and dependent (called subordinate) Clauses.

'I will go, *if* you will come.' These are two distinct sentences, but the one is made conditional or dependent on the other:—I will go, only on the condition that you come; if you do not come, I will not go. Other forms of dependence are—I will go, *though* you come; I will not go, *unless* you come; I will go, *when* you come; I will go, *because* you have come.

'I will go, *and* you will come,' expresses connection without dependence:—I will go, whether you come or not; still you are to come also. Such a union of sentences or clauses is said to be, not dependent, or subordinating, but co-ordinating; 'and' is a co-ordinating conjunction.

'I will go, *but* you will remain.' There is still an absence of condition, qualification, or dependence:—I am to go irrespectively of your movements; at the same time, you are to remain. Hence 'but' is also a co-ordinating conjunction.

'*Either* I will go, *or* you will go.' These two clauses, although connected by alternation, are yet not considered dependent clauses; 'either' and 'or' are a division of co-ordinating conjunctions.

Correctly speaking, there is a certain amount of dependence shown whenever two sentences or clauses are joined by a conjunction. This dependence is smallest with 'and;' it is somewhat greater with 'but,' and with 'or;' but it is greatest of all with 'if,' and the subordinating conjunctions. It is at 'if' that the line is drawn in dividing the conjunctions into two classes—the one signifying comparative independence, or co-ordination, the other dependence or subordination.

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

4. I. Co-ordinating Conjunctions. These are of three classes. The first class signify the smallest amount of connexion. The chief of the class is 'and,' which merely *adds* something to what has

been already said. This class is called CUMULATIVE.

A second class are those that place one sentence or clause in some kind of *opposition* to another. The strongest word of the class is 'but.' There are, however, several kinds of opposition. The name of the class is ADVERSATIVE.

A third class make one clause the effect or *consequence* of another. Adverbs of cause and effect are used for the purpose. The chief word is 'therefore.' The name of the class is ILLATIVE.

5. 1. Co-ordinating **Cumulative** Conjunctions. These are—

AND	first—then
also	secondly
likewise	further
as well as	moreover
not only—but	now
partly—partly	well

'Death opens the gate of fame, *and* shuts the gate of envy after it.' The circumstance expressed in the second clause is merely *added* to what is said in the first.

6. 2. Co-ordinating **Adversative** Conjunctions. There are three modes or degrees of opposition.

(1.) The strong form of opposition given in the word 'But.' This class may be called the conjunctions of arrest, or *Arrestive;* because they arrest, or stop, the full carrying out of an assertion. The following are of this class—

BUT	only
But then	nevertheless
Still	however
Yet	

Phrases—For all that, at the same time.

'Be generous, *but* first of all be just.' This saying contains a general rule or precept—be generous: we are not, however, to be generous at all costs; a stop must be made when being generous would lead to being unjust. The stop is expressed by one of the conjunctions of arrest.

(2.) A somewhat different opposition is expressed by the conjunctions—else, otherwise. They are called *Exclusive.*

'Be generous, *otherwise* you will not be much respected.' This means that by not being generous, you will not be respected:—Be generous, *and* you will be respected; be ungenerous, *and* you will not be respected.

(3.) The conjunctions called *Alternative* are well marked:—'either—or,' 'whether—or,' 'neither—nor.'

'*Either* Rome must destroy Carthage, *or* Carthage will be a perpetual threat to Rome.'

7. 3. Co-ordinating **Illative** conjunctions; that is, conjunctions of effect or consequence. They are:—

THEREFORE	thus
wherefore	so
hence	so that
whence	then
consequently	so then
accordingly	

'I have believed, *therefore* have I spoken.' There are here two distinct sayings; and the second is given as an effect or consequence of the first.

Exercise 13.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

1. Fools build houses, and wise men live in them.
2. I have no tears, else would I weep for thee.
3. It is, doubtless, a hard case; still, there is no help for it.
4. Energy is a good thing: only, it must be guided by discretion.
5. Unhappily, however, this is rarely the case.
6. Praise is the reflection of virtue, but it takes the colour of the glass or body that giveth the reflection.
7. A man's nature runs either to herbs or to weeds.
8. Fierce are Albania's children, yet they lack
   Not virtues, were those virtues more mature.
9. I got me servants and maidens, and had servants born in my house; also I had great possessions and small cattle. This also is vanity.
10. He was often warned of the danger, but, for all that, he persisted in his mad attempts.
11. This agreeth not well with me; wherefore, I will not continue it.
12. Thus her innocence was not only cleared, but crowned.
13. Virtuous and wise he was, yet not severe.
14. He was so enraged that he never spoke to me again.
15. He was called away by business of importance, otherwise, he would have stayed a few days longer.
16. They are idle, and, consequently, discontented.
17. Not animation, however, but dignity, is the ruling characteristic.

18. Another came; nor yet beside the rill,
Nor up the lawn, nor at the wood was he.

19. True, he served the state in his youth; but then he betrayed it in his old age.

20. He was kind not only to me, but to others. He was not only just, but also generous.

21. There still remain for him cares and duties, and, therefore, hopes.

22. Whether he stays or goes, is to me a matter of indifference.

23. The date as well as the nature of this book have been mistaken.

24. Partly because they blend me with his line,
And partly that I did his sire some wrong.

25. I know that I have not much to recommend me; nevertheless, I wish to be loved.

26. He told me to go, and accordingly I went.

27. It is well first to watch and then to speed.

28. They left the town abruptly, so that I had no opportunity of seeing them again.

29. I admit that the thing is very pretty: at the same time I fail to see what purpose it serves in such a place.

8. II. **Subordinating** Conjunctions. These apply to cases where one sentence is entirely subordinate to, or dependent on, another. They are headed by IF. There are different modes of subordination, or dependence.

9. 1. **Condition.** These are—

IF	without
though	provided that
if not	whether
unless	notwithstanding
as if	supposing that
except	albeit.

10. 2. Conjunctions of **End** or **Purpose**:—that, in order that, so—as, as—as, lest.

11. 3. Conjunctions of **Reason** and **Cause**:—because, for, since, as, whereas, inasmuch as, for that reason.

12. 4. The relative Adverbs introducing clauses of time may be called Subordinating Conjunctions of **Time**:—when, while, as, until, ere, before, after, since.

Exercise 14.

Conjunctions generally.

1. Long and curious speeches are as fit for despatch, as a robe or a mantle, with a long train, is for a race.
2. If this be good-nature, let me always be a clown; if this be good-fellowship, let me always be a churl.
3. It is turning out a fine day, notwithstanding the morning was wet.
4. Unless you study, you will not become learned.
5. He husbanded his energies so as to have something to spare for a great occasion.
6. We often dispute about fictitious characters as if they were real.

7. Well, then, since you insist upon it, I consent.

8. Expect nothing, lest you be disappointed.

9. Supposing that the story were true, what then?

10. If not a rogue, he was a fool.

11. If you prick us, do we not bleed? If you tickle us, do we not laugh? If you poison us, do we not die? And if you wrong us, shall we not revenge?

12. Stay a little, that we may make an end the sooner.

13. It is better to meet dangers half-way, than to keep too long a watch upon their approaches; for if a man watch too long, it is odds he will fall asleep.

14. 'Twas Milton struck the deep-toned shell,
And, as the choral warblings round him swell,
Meek Newton's self bends from his state sublime,
And nods his hoary head, and listens to the rhyme.

15. If all be well, we shall leave home in a week.

16. Luther said, 'I will go to Worms, though it should rain Duke Georges for nine days.'

17. It is good discretion not to make too much of any man at the first; because one cannot hold out that proportion.

18. How often have I blessed the coming day,
When toil remitting lent its turn to play,
And all the village train, from labour free,
Led up their sports beneath the spreading tree,
While many a pastime circled in the shade,
The young contending as the old surveyed.

19. There is no trusting to the force of nature, except it be corroborate by custom.

20. Who did for me what none beside have done,
Nor shrank from one albeit unworthy thee.

21. 'Tis said nobly;
For princes never more make known their virtues,
Than when they cherish goodness where they find it:
They being men, and not gods, Contarino,
They can give wealth and titles, but not virtues.

Questions.

1. In what respects do Conjunctions and Prepositions agree? In what respects do they differ?
2. Give the words that are most exclusively Conjunctions.
3. Mention words that are both Conjunctions and Adverbs. How can it be known, in each case, whether a word is an Adverb or a Conjunction?
4. What Adverbs are also Prepositions? How may Prepositions be supposed to become Conjunctions?
5. What Demonstrative Adjective is employed as a Conjunction?
6. Mention any phrases serving as Conjunctions?
7. Give examples of dependent sentences.
8. Give examples of co-ordinating sentences.
9. Show that there are *degrees* of dependence between connected sentences. Give examples of the two extremes.
10. What are the classes of Co-ordinating Conjunctions?
11. Mention the chief of the Cumulative Conjunctions.
12. Mention the chief of the Adversative Conjunctions.
13. What are the conjunctions of *consequence?* What are they called?
14. Pick out of the list of cumulative conjunctions some that have the meaning of comparison as well as of cumulation or addition.
15. Give the modes or degrees of opposition, in the Co-ordinating Adversative Conjunctions.
16. What are the Alternative Conjunctions?
17. What is the chief of the Subordinating Conjunctions?
18. Give the Conjunctions of Condition.
19. Refer to separate heads the Subordinating Conjunctions—when, for, that, since, though, while, whereas, lest, after.

Interjections.—Certain words, such as—hark! hush! ah! oh! alas!—are not Parts of Speech in the sense of being parts of a sentence. They are simply cries uttered in strong feeling, and stand by themselves: hence they are called *Interjections*, that is, words thrown in among the ordinary forms of sentence. They are suited to different emotions: *joy* is expressed by—Hey! Huzza! Hurrah! *grief*—Ah! Alas! Hoo! *wonder*—Hah? Eh? *contempt*—Fudge! Tut! Pshaw! Tush! and many other emotions by many other words.

INFLECTION.

INFLECTION means the changes made upon words to suit various relations.

The Noun and the Pronoun are inflected for *Gender* and for *Number*. They are also varied for *Case*. These changes are called DECLENSION.

The inflection of the Adjective and the Adverb to express differences in Degree, is called COMPARISON.

The inflection of the Verb to express differences in Person, Number, Time, &c., is called CONJUGATION.

The Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection, are not inflected.

INFLECTION OF NOUNS—DECLENSION.

GENDER.

1. The Gender of Nouns corresponds to the distinctions of sex.

The gender of names for the male sex, as—prince, brother, is called the *Masculine* gender.

The gender of names for the female sex, as—princess, sister, is called the *Feminine* gender.

Names for things without sex, as—chair, table, desk, are said to be of the *Neuter* gender, that is, of *neither* or *no* gender.

Many words are applied to both sexes alike; as friend, child, relative. These are said to be of the *Common* gender.

The names of most of the inferior animals, as cat, partridge, sparrow, are of the common gender. It is only in the most important and best known animals that we are at the pains to note the sex.

2. There are three ways of distinguishing the gender of Nouns.

I. By employing **different words.**

The following are the chief examples:—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Boy	Girl	Father	Mother	Man	Woman
Brother	Sister	Gander	Goose	Monk	Nun
Bull	Cow	Gentleman	Lady	Nephew	Niece
Cock	Hen	Husband	Wife	Son	Daughter
Drake	Duck	King	Queen	Uncle	Aunt.

This is not strictly an inflection, or change *made on* a word but a change of word.

II. By **prefixing** a word indicating the sex; as he-wolf, she-wolf; bull-calf, cow-calf; man-servant, maid-servant.

III. By the use of distinctive **suffixes** or terminations. The most common are 'ess,' and 'ix,' added to the masculine to make the feminine.

The following are examples of the addition of **ess** :—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Abbot	Abbess	Host	Hostess	Poet	Poetess
Actor	Actress	Instructor	Instructress	Priest	Priestess
Baron	Baroness	Lad	Lass	Prince	Princess
Duke	Duchess	Lion	Lioness	Prophet	Prophetess
Emperor	Empress	Master	Mistress	Shepherd	Shepherdess
Giant	Giantess	Negro	Negress	Songster	Songstress
God	Goddess	Patron	Patroness	Tiger	Tigress
Heir	Heiress	Peer	Peeress	Traitor	Traitress

The following are examples of **ix**, which is used for a much smaller number of words :—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Administrator	Administratrix	Heritor	Heritrix
Director	Directrix	Testator	Testatrix
Executor	Executrix		

Other feminine terminations are seen in such words, as—vix-en (from 'fox'), hero-ine, czar-ina, Joseph-ine, Wilhelm-ina, spin-ster.

The adjectives 'male' and 'female' are extensively used to express differences of gender, as 'a male singer,' 'a female crocodile:' but this usage does not properly fall under declension, or inflection for gender.

Inanimate objects are sometimes spoken of as male or female, and are then said to be personified. The Sun, Time, Winter, Death, are made masculine: the Moon, the Earth, Spring, Hope, Mercy, Peace, are feminine. This does not appear in Inflection, but in the use of the corresponding pronouns.

Questions.

1. How many genders are there? What do they correspond to? What names belong to the Neuter Gender? Of what gender are the names of the lower animals?

2. What are the three principal ways of distinguishing gender? Which of them is not properly an inflection?

3. What are the most common suffixes for distinguishing gender? Mention others that are less common.

4. By what other means is gender distinguished? Is this properly an Inflection?

5. When is gender ascribed to inanimate objects?

6. Give the gender of—enemy, prophet, author, Time, Mercy, vixen, breath, snow, wolf, tiger, salmon.

7. Give the feminines of—Earl, Duke, Marquis, traitor, director, he-bear, lion, instructor, testator.

NUMBER.

1. When a Noun (or Pronoun) names a *single* object, it is said to be of the *Singular* Number, as 'brush,' 'field;' when *more than one* are named, the Noun usually undergoes a change, and is then said to be of the *Plural* Number, as 'brushes,' 'fields.'

The Plural is formed in English, with a few exceptions, by adding **s** to the Singular:—book, book*s*.

2. 1. When the Noun ends in a **sharp mute** (*p*, *f*, *t*, *th* [in *thin*], *k*), the 's' has its sharp sound (*sea*):—drop*s*, chief*s*, rat*s*, moth*s*, rook*s*.

2. When the Noun ends in a **flat mute** (*b*, *v*, *d*, *th* [*the*], *g*), in a liquid (*m*, *n*, *l*, *r*), or a vowel, the 's' has its flat sound *z*:—slab*s*, wave*s*, road*s*, booth*s*, log*s*, rim*s*, pin*s*, wall*s*, rafter*s*, canto*s*.

3. When the Noun ends in a sibilant or hissing sound (*s*, *z*, *sh*, *ch*, *x*), the original 'es' is retained:—losses, phizzes, lashes, birches, hoaxes.

Many words ending in o take 'es' in the plural:—calicoes, cargoes, echoes, heroes, mulattoes, negroes, potatoes, volcanoes.

Nouns ending in y, preceded by a consonant, change the 'y' into 'ies' to form the plural:—beauty, beauties. 'Bay,' 'alley,' &c., having a vowel before 'y,' are regular:—bays, alleys.

These irregularities are matters of spelling and not properly of inflection. They do not affect the pronunciation as the other changes do.

4. Nouns of Anglo-Saxon origin ending in f or fe preceded by a long vowel, or by 'l,' change the 'f' into 'v,':—leaf, leaves; life, lives; self, selves; wolf, wolves.

In these inflections, the 's,' coming after the flat mute *v*, sounds *z*: the 'e,' as in 'cargoes,' &c., is not sounded.

Words of French origin do not in general follow this rule:—briefs, chiefs, fiefs, fifes, griefs, handkerchiefs, mischiefs, proofs.

Other exceptions are—dwarf, dwarfs; hoof, hoofs; roof, roofs; reef, reefs.

'Staff,' 'turf,' and 'wharf' have both forms.

When the vowel before 'f' is short, the plural is formed regularly by adding *s*:—stuff, stuffs.

3. A small number of Nouns form their plurals by obsolete modes of inflection.

1. By adding **en** to the singular :—ox, ox*en*. This was the prevailing mode in Anglo-Saxon.

2. By adding **ry** :—tenantry, yeomanry, peasantry, Irishry, Englishry. This plural has a collective force. Macaulay applies 'Englishry' to the English settlers in Ireland. So 'Irishry' might be used for the Irish settlers in Scotch or English towns.

3. By changing the vowel of the singular :—man, men; goose, geese; mice; feet; teeth; brethren.

4. Some Nouns have the same form in both numbers: — deer, sheep, swine, grouse, teal, mackerel, trout, salmon, heathen, cannon.

5. Many words borrowed from other languages retain their original plurals.

The following are a few of the most usual :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Formula	Formulæ	Phenomenon	Phenomena	Vortex	Vortices
Larva	Larvæ	Stratum	Strata	Series	Series
Nebula	Nebulæ	Criterion	Criteria	Species	Species
Radius	Radii	Analysis	Analyses	Sir	Messieurs
Animalculum	Animalcula	Basis	Bases	Madam	Mesdames
Datum	Data	Axis	Axes	Bandit	Banditti
Medium	Media	Focus	Foci	Virtuoso	Virtuosi
Momentum	Momenta	Appendix	Appendices	Seraph	Seraphim
Genus	Genera	Beau	Beaux	Cherub	Cherubim

When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to give it the English plural: as—geniuses, memorandums, dogmas, formulas, cherubs, seraphs, bandits.

6. Some Nouns have two plurals, with separate meanings.

Penny—*pennies* (a number of separate coins); *pence* (for a collective sum, as 'four-pence'); die—*dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (for gaming); *geniuses* (men of original power), *genii* (spirits); *brothers* (by blood), *brethren* (of a community); *cloths* (different kinds of cloth), *clothes* (garments).

7. The Plurals of a few Nouns differ in meaning from the Singulars:— compass, compasses; content, contents; domino, dominoes; good, goods; letter, letters; manner, manners; number, numbers; vesper, vespers.

8. Some Nouns are used only in the Plural:— amends, annals, antipodes, arrears, bellows, dregs, entrails, goods, measles, molasses, mumps, news, oats, odds, pincers, scissors, snuffers, spectacles, thanks, tidings, tongs, trousers, victuals, wages.

9. Class Nouns in the singular are preceded by one of the articles:—*a* street, *the* street.

The plural—'streets'—does not require an article. In nouns that have no plural ending, as 'sheep,' the absence of the article is a mark of the plural. Singular—a sheep; plural—sheep.

10. Proper, Material, and Abstract Nouns, from their nature, have no plural.

A Proper noun is the name of one thing, as Cape Horn. As there are not two things of that name, the name cannot be plural. Family names may have the plural, as—the Browns, the Stuarts.

A Material noun is a name for the whole collection of one kind of material, as—gold, clay.

An Abstract noun is a name for an agreement among things, and is naturally singular—as justice.

These nouns that do not take a plural may appear in the singular without an article; they never take the indefinite article. We say Solon, silver, holiness; we do not say *a* Solon (except by what is called a figure of speech), *a* silver, *a* holiness.

11. The Plural of Compound Nouns is generally formed by inflecting the principal Noun :—father*s*-in-law, going*s*-on, men-of-war.

Questions.

1. What is the general form of the plural inflection?
2. What classes of nouns conform to the general rule for forming the plural, and what classes do not?
3. In what sense are such plurals as 'cargoes' and 'beauties,' not an exception to the general rule?
4. What nouns ending in *f* do not form the plural in *ves*?
5. Give the plurals of—bin, chair, church, street, child, grotto, staff, stuff, handkerchief, window, ally, spray, aviary, valley, wreath.
6. Mention obsolete modes of inflection, with examples.
7. Mention nouns having the same form in both numbers.
8. What are the plurals of—species, seraph, criterion, formula, focus, bandit, virtuoso, Sir, Madam, larva? How comes it that these plurals are irregular? Which of them sometimes take the plural in 's'?

9. What is the difference between 'geniuses' and 'genii,' 'brothers and 'brethren,' 'pennies' and 'pence'?

10. Give examples (1) of plurals that differ in meaning from their singulars; (2) of nouns used only in the plural.

11. When the plural and the singular have the same form, how are they distinguished? In what nouns does the singular take an article before it?

12. What nouns have no plural? Explain why. Do they take an article?

13. How do we form the plural of compound nouns?

CASE.

1. Case is an inflection of the Noun, showing its relation to other words: as—the boy's book; where the addition of *'s* to 'boy' shows that 'book' is the property of 'boy.'

There are said to be three cases in English—Nominative, Possessive, and Objective; but, in nouns, the only case where inflection occurs is the Possessive.

Nominative—boy.
Possessive—boy's.
Objective—boy.

2. The Possessive is formed by adding to the Noun the letter s preceded by an apostrophe:—George, George's. In the Plural no addition is made, except the apostrophe:—ladies, ladies'. If the Plural does not end in 's,' the general rule for the singular is then applied: 'the children's bread.'

3. The 's' is omitted in the singular when too many hissing sounds would come together: 'Sophocles' plays,' 'for justice' sake.'

The omission of 's' takes place chiefly in poetry. In prose the general rule is adhered to as much as possible: we say Burns's, Keats's, Chalmers's.

4. In Compound Nouns the suffix is attached to the last word:—son-in-law's estate; the Emperor of Russia's prerogative.

Even when there are two separate names, the 's' is added only to the last:—Brown and Robinson's ship; Peter, Thomas, and Andrew's office.

5. The Possessive Inflection is confined chiefly to the names of persons, animals, and personified objects:—Jupiter's nod, the horse's mettle, the moon's rising.

We cannot use the possessive at large, and say—the table's legs, gold's yellowness, redness's degrees; we must say—the legs of the table, the yellowness of gold, the degrees of redness.

Questions.

1. How many cases are there in English? Which of them is the noun inflected for? What is the use of the inflection?
2. How is the Possessive formed? What exception is there to the rule?
3. Where is the inflection put in compound nouns?
4. What are the limits to the use of the Possessive?

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS.

1. Pronouns are inflected for CASE. They have three cases—Nominative, Possessive, Objective. When a pronoun stands as the object after a verb or a preposition, it takes a distinct form called the **Objective** case :—'he met *me*'; 'I went to *them*.' Nouns have no such distinct form.

To express difference of GENDER, different words are used. The Personal Pronouns—I, we, thou, you, ye—are the same for both genders. The Demonstrative Pronouns have different words for different genders.

Masculine—He
Feminine—She
Neuter——It

Difference of Number is also expressed by different words.

Singular,	I,	thou,	he, she, it.
Plural,	We,	you, or ye,	they.

2. The **Personal** Pronouns are thus declined :—

SINGULAR.

Nominative.		*Possessive.*	*Objective.*
1*st Person*,	I	Mine	Me
2*nd Person*,	Thou	Thine	Thee

PLURAL.

1*st Person*,	We	Ours	Us
2*nd Person*,	Ye or You	Yours	You

3. The **Demonstratives**, or Pronouns of the third person, are declined as follows :—

SINGULAR.

Nominative,	He	*Possessive,*	His	*Objective,*	Him
,,	She	,,	Hers	,,	Her
,,	It	,,	Its	,,	It

PLURAL.

,,	They	,,	Theirs	,,	Them

'This' and 'that' are not inflected for case: they have a plural inflection—'these,' 'those.'

The INDEFINITE pronoun 'one,' is declined in the singular, but has no plural: '*one's* discretion should be *one's* tutor.'

4. The **Relative** Pronouns that are declined are 'who' and 'which.'

'Who' is declined—*possessive,* 'whose,' *objective,* 'whom.' 'Which' is declined—*possessive,* 'whose,' *objective,* which.' 'What' and 'that' are indeclinable.

'Of whom' and 'of which' are used for the possessive 'whose.' For co-ordination, 'of whom' and 'of which' are preferable; for restriction, 'whose' is better. The compound adverb 'whereof' is a substitute for 'whose,' and is chiefly restrictive. The similar compounds — wherein, whereto, whereby—are mostly restrictive.

5. The **Interrogative** Pronouns being the same as the Relative, their inflection is the same:—*whose* book is this? *whom* do you mean? *what* am I to understand by this?

Many good writers and speakers use the forms '*who* do you mean?' 'who to?' 'who for?' 'who from?' If these forms be admissible, the objective of 'who' is 'whom,' *or* 'who.'

Questions.

1. What inflection is peculiar to Pronouns? How is difference of gender expressed in Pronouns? How difference of number?

2. Enumerate and decline—(1) the PERSONAL Pronouns; (2) the DEMONSTRATIVE; (3) the RELATIVE; (4) the INTERROGATIVE.

4. When should we use 'of whom' or 'of which,' and when 'whose?'

4. What is the objective of 'who?'

INFLECTION OF ADJECTIVES—COMPARISON.

1. Adjectives are inflected to signify differences of **Degree**:—small, small*er*, small*est*. This is called their **Comparison**.

There are said to be three Degrees of Comparison; the **Positive**, 'small;' the **Comparative**, 'smaller;' the **Superlative**, 'smallest.' The Positive is the Adjective in its simple or uninflected form.

2. I. In the regular Inflection, the Comparative is formed by adding **er** to the Positive; the Superlative by adding **est** to the Positive.

When the Adjective ends in 'y' preceded by a consonant, the 'y' is changed into 'i':—greed*y*, greed*ier*, greed*iest*.

A final consonant preceded by a short vowel is usually doubled:—ma*d*, ma*dder*, ma*ddest*.

3. II. When a word has more than two syllables, or is a compound, the comparison takes place by means of the Adverbs **more** and **most**:—*more* admirable, *most* admirable; *more* useful, *most* useful.

Any adjective may be compared by 'more' and 'most,' if the ear is better satisfied with the combination of sounds produced:—A *most* wise judge; a *more* trusty friend.

4. III. Some words are **irregularly** compared: as—good, better, best; bad, worse, worst; much, more, most; little, less, least.

'Best' is contracted from Anglo-Saxon '*bet-est*;' 'least' from '*let-est*.' In like manner 'nighest' is contracted into *next*, 'latest' into *last*.

Some adjectives in the comparative and the superlative degree have no corresponding adjective in the positive degree:—further, furthest (from *forth*); inner, inmost or innermost (from *in*); outer or utter, outmost or utmost, outermost or uttermost (from *out*); upper, upmost or uppermost (from *up*); higher, highermost; nether, nethermost; undermost; topmost; southmost.

5. The Comparative is used when two things are compared, the Superlative when more than two.

'Of the *two* brothers, George is the *steadier* and the *more* promising.'

In such cases many writers would use the superlative. The comparative does not make the meaning any clearer.

The Superlative of **eminence**.—'Most' is sometimes used to give eminence, or to express intensity:—*Most* potent, grave, and reverend Seigniors; *most* noble Sir; it is *most* true; *most* extraordinary!

6. The Demonstrative Adjectives 'this,' 'that,' are inflected for **Number**:—*these* men; *those* trees. The Numeral Adjectives, 'other,' 'another,' when

used alone, like Pronouns, are inflected for Number and Case :—let *others* crowd the house of mirth ; *another's* money is as good as mine.

Questions.

1. Are Adjectives inflected only for differences of degree ?
2. What are the regular inflections for Comparative and Superlative ? In what cases are these modified ?
3. What adjectives are compared by 'more' and 'most ?'
4. Mention some irregular comparisons. Mention comparatives and superlatives that have no positives.
5. What difference in use is there between the Comparative and the Superlative ?
6. What is meant by the *Superlative of eminence ?*
7. What adjectives are inflected for Number ?

INFLECTION OF ADVERBS.

1. Adverbs are inflected only for **Degree.** They are compared in the same manner as Adjectives : —fast, faster, fastest ; early, earlier, earliest ; recently, more recently, most recently.

Adverbs are compared chiefly by 'more' and 'most.' The great mass of Adverbs end in 'ly,' and very few of these are compared by 'er' and 'est,' especially in prose.

2. A few Adverbs coincide with irregular Adjectives :—well, better, best, badly or ill, worst, worst, much, more, most.

Exercise 15.

Inflections for Gender, Number, Case, and Degree.

1. 'Tis hers to pluck the amaranthine flower.

2. May no rude hand deface it
And its forlorn *hic jacet !*

3. But how can he expect that others should
Build for him, sow for him, and at his call
Love him, who for himself will take no heed at all?

4. She was as good as she was fair,
None—none on earth above her!

5. To live with them is far less sweet
Than to remember thee.

6. Here's a sigh to those who love me,
And a smile to those who hate.

7. Yes ! where is he, the champion and the child
Of all that's great or little, wise or wild ;
Whose game was empires, and whose stakes were thrones ?

8. 'Whom the gods love, die young,' was said of yore.

9. Ave Maria ! blessed be the hour,
The time, the clime, the spot where I so oft
Have felt that moment in its fullest power
Sink o'er the earth so beautiful and soft.

10. These affairs must be settled without a moment's delay.

11. I was not born for courts, or great affairs ;
I pay my debts, behave, and say my prayers.

12. Of the amends recovered, little or nothing returns to those that had suffered the wrong, but commonly all runs into the prince's coffers.

13. I shall prove these writings not counterfeits, but authentic, and the contents true, and worthy of a divine original.

14. Can we with manners ask what was the difference ?

15. In his hand
He took the golden compasses, prepared
In God's eternal store, to circumscribe
This universe, and all created things.

16. Animals in their generation are wiser than the sons of men; but their wisdom is confined to a few particulars, and lies in a very narrow compass.

17. For there is music here that softer falls
Than petals from blown roses on the grass;
Or night-dews on still waters between walls
Of shadowy granite, in a gleaming pass;
Music that gentlier on the spirit lies
Than tired eyelids upon tired eyes.

18. When he is best, he is little more than a man; and when he is worst, he is little better than a beast.

INFLECTION OF VERBS—CONJUGATION.

1. The commonly enumerated inflections of the Verb are Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number.

VOICE.

2. Every Transitive Verb has an **Active** form, or voice, and a **Passive** form, or voice:—Columbus *discovered* America (Active); America *was discovered* by Columbus (Passive).

The *object* of the verb in the Active voice becomes the *subject* in the Passive voice:—the farmer sold *the ox; the ox* was sold by the farmer. Intransitive verbs have no object, and consequently have no passive voice. The Intransitive verbs—'walk,' 'run,' 'fall,' are confined to the active form.

The forms—'was discovered,' 'was sold,' are not, properly speaking, inflections of the verbs 'discover' and 'sell.' To make the inflection, another verb—'was,' is called in. Hence 'was' is called an *auxiliary* or helping verb. Other inflections of the verb are helped out by similar 'auxiliaries.' The verb 'to be' is the auxiliary of the passive inflection.

MOOD.

3. The Moods are the *Indicative*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*. Under the same head we may include the *Participle* and the *Gerund*.

'Mood' is the manner or *mode* of the action.

The verb is said to be in the **Subjunctive** *Mood* when the action is affirmed or *subjoined* as a condition:—I will go to the meeting, *if I be in town;* I will tell him, *if I see him*.

The verb is said to be in the **Indicative** *Mood* when the action is simply stated, or *indicated*:—I am here; I shall be in town to-morrow; I saw him and told him.

A verb in the **Imperative** *Mood* expresses command, direction, entreaty:—*go* and *tell* him that I am here; *keep* your powder dry; *spare* my friend.

This is the mood usually named *Imperative*. 'Command' is expressed in other ways:—Thou *shalt* not steal; You *must* not do it.

A verb in the **Infinitive** *Mood* neither affirms nor commands, but merely names an action in the manner of a noun:—*to walk* is better than to *run*, for 'the act of walking,' and 'the act of running.'

'*To* walk' is the form usually given as the Infinitive; but the form 'walking' often fulfils the same function:—*walking* is better than *running*. This form is called the 'infinitive in *ing*:' it differs from the participle of the same form in being, like a noun, the subject or the object of a sentence.

These two infinitive forms—to walk, walking; to command, commanding—have thus something in common with the noun, and something in common with the verb.

They agree with the noun and differ from the other parts of the verb as follows:—They may be (1) the subject or the object of a sentence; (2) the form in 'ing' may be qualified by an adjective, especially a possessive adjective:—*your* walking is as fast as *my* running.

They differ from the noun and agree with other parts of the verb in taking an object (when transitive); to command (commanding) *an army* is a very high trust.

There are two **Participles**:—the *imperfect* or *incomplete* participle, expressing an action going on—passing, drawing, destroying; and the *perfect* or *complete*, expressing an action completed—past, drawn, destroyed.

In transitive verbs, the imperfect participle is active—dragging, pushing, arresting; while the perfect participle is passive—dragged, pushed, arrested. In intransitive verbs the only difference of meaning is that of incomplete and complete—going, gone.

There is also a **verbal noun** in 'ing:'—there came a *moaning* on the wind; the *sighing* of the tempest. It has all the distinguishing marks of the noun, and differs from the infinitive of the same form (1) in taking the indefinite article before it, and (2) in not taking an object after it.

Farther, there is a **participial adjective** in 'ing:'—a *startling* cry; a *striking* appearance. This has all the distinguishing marks of the adjective, and differs from the participle (1) in not taking an object after it, and (2) in not expressing any particular time.

There are thus four different parts of speech having the same form—Infinitive, Participle, Noun, and Adjective, all ending in 'ing.' The Infinitive and the Participle differ in being used the one as a noun, the other as an adjective: at the same time, they differ from both noun and adjective,

and agree with each other in taking an object after them, as well as in less obvious particulars. What chiefly distinguishes the participle from all the other forms is its expressing time.

The perfect participle also is used as an adjective:—'a *stiffled* cry,' 'a *muffled* drum.' Some negative adjectives have the form of the perfect participle—'unopposed,' 'disinterested;' but there are no verbs 'unoppose,' 'disinterest,' and these must be parsed as simple adjectives of quality.

The **Gerund** is the infinitive form used with the sense of *purpose* or intention:—I went *to meet* him; prepared *to go;* difficult *to get at;* scissors *to grind;* made *for selling;* armed *for fighting.*

Exercise 16.

Infinitive, Participle, Adjective, Verbal Noun, and *Gerund.*

1. It is a miserable thing to live in suspense.
2. Talking overmuch is a sign of vanity.
3. It is a task indeed to learn to hear.
4. A sudden trembling seized on all his limbs.
5. Pushing rapidly on, we found our worst anticipations realized.
6. A piercing cry rang through the startled air.
7. Why let the stricken deer go weep
   The hart ungalled play.
8. We live on
   Loathing our life, and dreading still to die.
9. Doing good, disinterested good, is not our trade.

10. Or else my project fails,
Which was to please: now I want
Spirits to enforce, arts to enchant,
And my ending is despair.

11. Story! I have none to tell, Sir.

TENSE, PERSON, NUMBER.

4. **Tense** is the variation of the verb to express the time of an action:—'I come,' *present;* 'I came,' *past.* Other varieties of time are expressed by means of auxiliaries:—I *have* come; I *am* coming; *will* come, &c.

5. The verb is varied according to the **Person** of the subject:—'I *wrote*,' first person; 'Thou *writest*,' second person; 'he *writes*,' third person.

6. There is also a partial inflection for **Number**: —*he* writes; *they* write. In the past tense there is no such inflection:—he *wrote*, they *wrote*.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB PROPER.

7. To bring together all the forms of the verb is to conjugate it. There are said to be in English two conjugations. Such verbs as 'drive,' with the two inflections 'I *drove*,' and 'I *am driven*,' are called verbs of the OLD or the STRONG Conjugation: such verbs as 'educate' with the same inflection in 'I *educated*' and 'I *am educated*,' are called verbs of the NEW or the WEAK Conjugation.

A verb of the Old conjugation has, in all, seven inflected forms:—drive, drove, driving, driven, drives, drivest, drovest. A verb of the New conjugation, as 'educate,' has but six.

A distinction must be drawn between forms made by inflecting the verb itself, and forms made by help of what are called AUXILIARY Verbs. The following is the conjugation of the inflected forms of the verb itself.

NEW CONJUGATION.

To Call.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Call	Called	Called

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1*st Person* . I call	1*st Person* . We call
2*nd* ,, . . Thou callest	2*nd* ,, . Ye or you call
3*rd* ,, . . He calls	3*rd* ,, . They call

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I called	1. We called
2. Thou calledst	2. Ye or you called
3. He called	3. They called

Imperative, Call. *Infinitive*, To call, calling.

Participles.

Imperfect, Calling. *Perfect*, Called.

OLD CONJUGATION.

To Drive.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Drive.	Drove.	Driven.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I drive	1. We drive
2. Thou drivest	2. Ye or you drive
3. He drives	3. They drive

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I drove	1. We drove
2. Thou drovest	2. Ye or you drove
3. He drove	3. They drove

Imperative, Drive. *Infinitive*, To drive, driving.

Participles.

Imperfect, Driving. *Perfect*, Driven.

AUXILIARIES TO THE INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

8. The **Auxiliary Verbs**, which are joined to other verbs to assist in expressing tenses not expressed by inflections, are *Be*, *Have*, *Shall*, and *Will*.

Do, *May*, and *Can*, would be ranked as auxiliaries if we were to admit the 'Emphatic' and the 'Potential' moods into the conjugation of the Verb.

To Be.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Am.	Was.	Been.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I am	1. We are
2. Thou art	2. Ye or you are
3. He is	3. They are

PAST TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I was	1. We were
2. Thou wast	2. Ye or you were
3. He was	3. They were

Imperative, Be. *Infinitive*, To be.

Participles.

Imperfect, Being. *Perfect*, Been.

The verb 'to be' has a peculiar inflection to express contingency or conditionality; it is the only real conditional or subjunctive mood in English, and is in the past tense.

Conditional Mood of the Verb 'TO BE.'

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. If I were	1. If we were
2. If thou were	2. If ye were
3. If he were	3. If they were.

Inflections with the auxiliary 'To Be.'—By joining the perfect participle of a verb to the verb 'be' throughout, we form the **Passive Voice**; as—he *is* called, we *were* called, to *be* called, *being* called.

By similarly joining the imperfect participle, we form the **Progressive**, incomplete, or imperfect form of the active voice:—'I *am* driving,' 'I *was* driving,' &c.

To Have.

Present Tense	*Past Tense*	*Perfect Participle*
Have.	Had.	Had.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I have	1. We have
2. Thou hast	2. Ye or you have
3. He has	3. They have

PAST TENSE.

1. I had	1. We had
2. Thou hadst	2. Ye or you had
3. He had	3. They had

Inflections with the auxiliary 'To Have.'—Followed by the perfect participle of another verb, 'have' forms two tenses:—'I *have* called' (**present perfect**), 'I *had* called' (**past perfect**).

The imperfect participle 'having,' joined to the perfect participle of a verb, yields a **perfect participle active**:—'*having* called,' '*having* driven.'

'Have,' 'had,' &c., followed by 'been,' and the imperfect participle of a verb, form tenses of **continued action**:—'I *have* been driving,' 'I *had* been driving.'

Shall.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR	PLURAL.
1. I shall	1. We shall
2. Thou shalt	2. Ye or you shall
3. He shall	3. They shall

PAST TENSE.

1. I should	1. We should
2. Thou shouldst	2. Ye or you should
3. He should	3. They should

Will.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I will	1. We will
2. Thou wilt	2. Ye or you will
3. He will	3. They will

PAST TENSE.

1. I would	1. We would
2. Thou wouldst	2. Ye or you would
3. He would	3. They would

Inflections with the auxiliaries 'Shall' and 'Will.'—'Shall' and 'Will' are employed to form the **Future tenses** in English:—'I *shall* come,' 'he *will* come.'

'Shall' originally means obligation, debt. Chaucer says 'the faith I shall to God.' 'He shall suffer,' is—'he owes to suffer,' 'he is about to suffer.'

'Will,' on the other hand, means intention or resolution, on the part of the agent, he being free to do as he pleases in

the matter. 'I will go,' means that it is in my option to go or not to go, and that I decide for going.

COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE VERB WITH AUXILIARIES.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.

Present Indefinite.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
1st Person	I drive	*1st Person*	We drive
2nd Person	Thou drivest	*2nd Person*	Ye or you drive
3rd Person	He drives	*3rd Person*	They drive

Present Progressive.

1. I am driving	1. We are driving
2. Thou art driving	2. Ye or you are driving
3. He is driving	3. They are driving

Present Perfect.

1. I have driven	1. We have driven
2. Thou hast driven	2. Ye or you have driven
3. He has driven	3. They have driven

Present Continuous.

1. I have been driving	1. We have been driving
2. Thou hast been driving	2. Ye or you have been driving
3. He has been driving	3. They have been driving

PAST.

Past Indefinite.

1. I drove	1. We drove
2. Thou drovest	2. Ye or you drove
3. He drove	3. They drove

Past Progressive.

1. I was driving	1. We were driving
2. Thou wast driving	2. Ye or you were driving
3. He was driving	3. They were driving

Past Perfect.

1. I had driven	1. We had driven
2. Thou hadst driven	2. Ye or you had driven
3. He had driven	3. They had driven

Past Continuous.

1. I had been driving	1. We had been driving
2. Thou hadst been driving	2. Ye or you had been driving
3. He had been driving	3. They had been driving

FUTURE.

Future Indefinite.

1. I shall drive	1. We shall drive
2. Thou wilt drive	2. Ye or you will drive
3. He will drive	3. They will drive

Future Progressive.

1. I shall be driving	1. We shall be driving
2. Thou wilt be driving	2. Ye or you will be driving
3. He will be driving	3. They will be driving

Future Perfect.

1. I shall have driven	1. We shall have driven
2. Thou wilt have driven	2. Ye or you will have driven
3. He will have driven	3. They will have driven

Future Continuous.

1. I shall have been driving	1. We shall have been driving
2. Thou wilt have been driving	2. Ye or you will have been driving
3. He will have been driving	3. They will have been driving

Imperative Mood.

Drive.

*Subjunctive Mood.**

PRESENT.

Indefinite.—(If) I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—drive.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—be driving.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—have driven.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—have been driving.

PAST.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—drove.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—were driving.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—had driven.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—had been driving.

FUTURE.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should drive.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should be driving.

Perfect—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should have driven.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, ye *or* you, they—should have been driving.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite.—(To) drive, driving.

Progressive.—(To) be driving.

Perfect.—(To) have driven.

Continuous.—(To) have been driving.

Gerund—To drive; (for) to drive; for driving.

Participle.

Imperfect.—Driving. *Perfect.*—Having driven.

Continuous.—Having been driving.

* It will be an exercise for the pupil to write out these forms at length.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.

Present Indefinite.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I am driven	1. We are driven
2. Thou art driven	2. Ye or you are driven
3. He is driven	3. They are driven

Present Progressive.

1. I am being driven	1. We are being driven
2. Thou art being driven	2. Ye or you are being driven
3. He is being driven	3. They are being driven

Present Perfect.

1. I have been driven	1. We have been driven
2. Thou hast been driven	2. Ye or you have been driven
3. He has been driven	3. They have been driven

PAST.

Past Indefinite.

1. I was driven	1. We were driven
2. Thou wast driven	2. Ye or you were driven
3. He was driven	3. They were driven

Past Progressive.

1. I was being driven	1. We were being driven
2. Thou wast being driven	2. Ye or you were being driven
3. He was being driven	3. They were being driven

Past Perfect.

1. I had been driven	1. We had been driven
2. Thou hadst been driven	2. Ye or you had been driven
3. He had been driven	3. They had been driven

FUTURE.

Future Indefinite.

1. I shall be driven	1. We shall be driven
2. Thou wilt be driven	2. Ye or you will be driven
3. He will be driven	3. They will be driven

Future Perfect.

1. I shall have been driven	1. We shall have been driven
2. Thou wilt have been driven	2. Ye or you will have been driven
3. He will have been driven	3. They will have been driven

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT.

Be driven.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT.

Indefinite—I, thou, he, &c.—be driven.

Perfect—I, &c.—have been driven.

PAST.

Indefinite—I, thou, he, &c.—were driven.

Progressive—I, thou, &c.—were being driven.

Perfect—I, &c.—had been driven.

FUTURE.

Indefinite—I, thou, &c.—should be driven.

Perfect—I, &c.—should have been driven.

Infinitive Mood.

Indefinite—(To) be driven. *Perfect*—(To) have been driven.

Participle.

Indefinite—Being driven. *Perfect*—Having been driven.

QUASI-AUXILIARY VERBS.

9. If we were to admit the Emphatic and the Potential moods into the conjugation of the Verb, Do, MAY, and CAN would be ranked as auxiliaries.

To Do.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Do.	Did.	Done.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I do	1. We do
2. Thou doest or dost	2. Ye or you do
3. He does, doeth, or doth	3. They do

Past Tense.

1. I did	1. We did
2. Thou didst	2. Ye or you did
3. He did	3. They did

Imperfect Participle, Doing.

'Do' makes the **Emphatic** form of the verb:—I *do* adore him; how he *did* storm! ye gods, it *doth* amaze me!

It is the form of **Interrogation**:—*Do* you skate?

It is the **Negative** form:—You *do* not look so fair as once you did.

It is used as a **substitute** for other verbs, a *pro-verb*:—pronounce the speech as I *do* (for 'pronounce'); he acted better than I could have *done* (for 'acted').

May.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. I may	1. We may
2. Thou mayest	2. Ye or you may
3. He may	3. They may

Past Tense.

1. I might	1. We might
2. Thou mightest	2. Ye or you might
3. He might	3. They might

Can.

Present Tense.

1. I can	1. We can
2. Thou canst	2. Ye or you can
3. He can	3. They can

Past Tense.

1. I could	1. We could
2. Thou couldst	2. Ye or you could
3. He could	3. They could

'May' expresses **permission**; 'Can,' **power**. 'I *may* come' is—I am permitted to come; 'I *can* leap'—I am physically able to leap; 'I *can* write a letter'—I have the ability or skill requisite to write a letter.

It is wrong to say—'I *can* fish in those waters,' 'I *can* walk that way,' when the meaning is that I have permission. The proper verb in such cases is 'may.'

'May' also implies **possibility** or **concession**:—it *may* not be absolutely lost; you *may* still be in time.

Placed before its subject, 'may' **expresses a wish**:—*may* your shadow never be less; *may* peace attend you.

Could is the past of can in such sentences as 'he *could* not come:' but it serves also to express **present power conditionally**:—he *could* come, if he would.

Might is more rarely the past of 'may:' its principal use is to express **past permission as reported in the present**:—he sent word that I *might* come.

10. MUST, OUGHT, and GO, are also used in forms that may be regarded as auxiliary inflections.

Must, which is invariable for Tense, Number, or Person, means **necessity** in various forms.

(1.) Compulsion from without:—Men *must* work; we *must* not be idle.

(2.) Uncontrollable desire, amounting almost to physical necessity:—she *must* weep, or she will die.

(3.) Certainty or necessary inference, something that we can count on:—'it *must* be true; I hear it from so many different sources;' 'what everybody says *must* be true.'

Ought, the old Past Tense of the Verb 'owe,' is used as a present Verb to signify **moral obligation**:—we *ought* to do justly and love mercy.

When past time has to be expressed, 'ought' is joined to a perfect infinitive:—they *ought to have* come.

Go (*present*, 'go;' *past*, 'went;' *perfect participle*, 'gone') is used to express an **intention**:—I am going to drive; I have been going to drive; I was going to drive; I had been going to drive; &c.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES.

11. The **Present Indefinite** is the *Universal Tense*. It expresses what is true at all times.

The diamond *is* precious; two blacks *do* not make a white; a drowning man *catches* at straws.

By a special adverb, or by the context, it is confined to a present action:—'I see before me the gladiator lie.'

12. The **Progressive** tenses express the continuance of an action for some time.

I *am reading* Milton; they *were travelling* abroad.

13. The **Past Indefinite** signifies that some action came to an end in the Past. It is the Historical tense.

Demosthenes *thundered* over Greece: Newton *made* great discoveries.

14. The **Present Perfect** expresses an action only just finished, or one whose results continue.

The train *has arrived;* France *has passed* through several revolutions.

IRREGULARITIES IN THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

New Conjugation.

15. In verbs of the New Conjugation the past tense and the perfect participle are formed by adding **ed**; but in many cases 'ed' passes into **t**, and the vowel of the verb is shortened or otherwise changed.

These irregularities in the New Conjugation must not be confounded with the Old Conjugation. The addition of 't' is a decisive mark of the New Conjugation.

The following are verbs of the New Conjugation:—

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
bend	bent*	bent
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent*	blent
breed	bred	bred
build	built*	built
creep	crept	crept
dream	dreamt	dreamt
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
gild	gilt*	gilt
gird	girt*	girt
have	had	had
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leap	leapt	leapt
learn	learnt*	learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
light	lit*	lit
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
pen	pent	pent
rend	rent	rent
say	said	said
send	sent	sent
shoe	shod	shod
sleep	slept	slept
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt	spilt
sweep	swept	swept
weep	wept	wept
(wend)	went	went

Those marked with an asterisk have also the form in *ed*.

Old Conjugation.

16. The Old, or Strong (improperly called Irregular) Verbs are conjugated by modifying the root vowel for the past tense, and adding *en* for the perfect participle.

arise	arose	arisen
bear	bore	born (and borne)
beget	begat	begotten
bid	bade (or bid)	bidden (or bid)
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
chide	chode (or chid)	chidden (or chid)
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	clove	cloven
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forsake	forsook	forsaken

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	gotten (or got)
give	gave	given
grow	grew	grown
hide	hid	hidden (or hid)
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
shear	shore	shorn
slay	slew	slain
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
stride	strode (or strid)	stridden
strive	strove	striven
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden (or trod)
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven

A considerable number, while changing the root vowel, have dropt the *en* in the participle, although in old English many of them still possessed that termination. Such are:—

begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bind	bound	bound
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
dig	dug	dug
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
grind	ground	ground
ring	rang	rung

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
run	ran	run
shine	shone	shone
sing	sang	sung
slide	slid	slid (or slidden)
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
spin	span (or spun)	spun
spit	spat	spit (or spitten)
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
string	strung	strung
swim	swam	swúm
swing	swung (or swang)	swung
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung

Some form the participles in *en* but the past tense in *ed* :—

lade	laded	laden
mow	mowed	mown
rive	rived	riven
saw	sawed	sawn
show	showed	shown
sow	sowed	sown
strew	strewed	strewn

In all these verbs the participle in *ed* is used.

17. Some verbs both modify the root vowel, and take on the 't' of the new conjugation :—

bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
seek	sought	sought

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
teach	taught	taught
think	thought	thought
work	wrought	wrought

18. Some neither modify the root vowel, nor add *en*. These are probably verbs of the new conjugation, in which the *ed* is blended with the final consonant :—

beat	beat	beat
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast

Similarly—cut, durst, hit, hurt, let, put, rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust, wed.

Exercise 17.

Verb Inflections generally.

1. Translating is a kind of drawing after the life.
2. Weeping may endure for a night, but joy cometh in the morning.
3. But thy eternal summer shall not fade.
4. See matter next, with various life endued,
   Press to one centre still, the general good.
5. He was predisposed to think ill of all causes requiring many words.
6. A wise son maketh a glad father.
7. Examine whether the proposition be not true at some times, and false at other times.
8. You have not the heart to conceive, the understanding to deter, nor the hand to execute.
9. Tell me, my soul, can this be death.
10. I did never see a tempest dropping fire.

11. They shall be an abhorring to all flesh.

12. Mine be the breezy hill that skirts the down.

13. The sense of danger is never perhaps so fully apprehended as when the danger has been overcome.

14. My lambkins around me would oftentimes play.

15. Then rushed the steeds to battle driven.

16. O leave me not in this eternal wo,
For when thou diest, my love, I know not where to go.

17. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.

18. Wouldst thou demolish a driven leaf?

19. O hast thou forgotten how soon we must sever?

20. The English Government gave way to the strenuous urgency of the French Emperor, and consented to a measure which ruined the pending negotiations, and generated a series of events leading straight to a war between Russia and the Western Powers.

21. If you should see a flock of pigeons in a field of corn; and if (instead of each picking where and what it liked, taking just as much as it wanted, and no more) you should see ninety-nine of them gathering all they got into a heap; reserving nothing for themselves but the chaff and the refuse; keeping this heap for one, and that the weakest, perhaps worst pigeon of the flock; sitting round, and looking on, all the winter, whilst this one was devouring, throwing about, and wasting it; and if a pigeon more hardy or hungry than the rest, touched a grain of the hoard, all the others instantly flying upon it, and tearing it to pieces: if you should see this, you would see nothing more than what is every day practised and established among men.

22. Long on these mouldering bones have beat
The Winter's snow, the Summer's heat,
The drenching dews, and driving rain!
Let me, let me sleep again.

Questions.

1. Enumerate the inflections of the Verb.
2. What is meant by difference of VOICE? How many 'voices' are there? Why have intransitive verbs no passive voice? To signify difference of voice, what is done besides inflecting the verb itself?
3. What is meant by difference of MOOD? How many moods are there?
4. When is a verb in the Subjunctive Mood? When in the Indicative? When in the Imperative? How is command expressed otherwise than by a verb in the Imperative Mood?
5. What is the function of a verb in the Infinitive Mood? What are the two forms of the Infinitive? In what respects does the Infinitive agree with the Noun? In what respect do they differ?
6. What are the two Participles? What do they severally express? Wherein do the participles of transitive verbs differ from those of intransitive verbs?
7. Distinguish the verbal noun in 'ing' from the infinitive of the same form.
8. Distinguish the adjective in 'ing' from the participle.
9. Distinguish each of the four forms in 'ing' from the three others one by one.
10. When is the infinitive form called a Gerund?
11. What is meant by TENSE? How is the verb inflected for tense?
12. How is the verb inflected for PERSON? How for NUMBER?
13. What is meant by 'conjugating' a verb? What is the difference between the Old and the New Conjugations?
14. Inflect the verb 'Trust' for Tense, Number, and Person.

15. Inflect the verb 'Shake' for Tense, Number, and Person.

16. What is the use of the Auxiliary Verbs?

17. Inflect the several auxiliary Verbs. Point out an inflection peculiar to the verb 'be.'

18. What inflections are made with the help of BE? What with HAVE? What with SHALL? What with WILL?

19. What are the original meanings of 'Shall' and of 'Will?'

20. Give all the inflections of the verb, with and without auxiliaries.

21. What auxiliary is used to make out what may be called the Emphatic Mood? What to make out the Potential?

22. Inflect the verb Do. Enumerate its various uses.

23. Inflect MAY and CAN. State the exact meaning of each. What are the uses of MIGHT and COULD?

24. What meanings are expressed by MUST and OUGHT?

25. How is Go used with a verb?

26. Explain the meanings of the tenses—Present Indefinite, Past Indefinite, Progressive, Present Perfect.

27. Do verbs with the past tense and the perfect participle in 't' belong to the Old or to the New Conjugation? Give examples of such verbs.

28. What are the characteristic inflections in verbs of the Old Conjugation? Give examples.

29. Mention verbs that change the root vowel in the past tense, but do not take *en* in the perfect participle.

30. Mention verbs that form the past tense in *ed* and the perfect participle in *en*.

31. What verbs have a double inflection?

32. Mention verbs that neither modify the root vowel nor add *en*. Which conjugation do these belong to?

SYNTAX.

SYNTAX explains the mode of arranging words in Sentences.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

1. Every sentence consists of two parts, the Subject and the Predicate :—*lead is heavy ;* 'lead' (*subj.*) 'is heavy' (*pred.*).

These principal divisions of the sentence, as well as their enlargements or extensions by means of qualifying words, have already been partially described (p. 23).

2. Sentences are SIMPLE, COMPLEX, and COMPOUND.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

3. A Simple sentence contains one Subject, and one finite Verb :—Victoria reigns ; a wilful man will have his own way.

4. The Subject is usually a Noun, alone or with adjuncts :—'Victoria,' 'a wilful man.'

In place of the noun as subject may stand a **Pronoun** or an **Infinitive**:—*he* drives, *to give* is more blessed than to receive; *parting* is such sweet sorrow.

The infinitive in such cases need not be a bare verb; it may be (1) an incomplete verb with a complement, or (2) a transitive verb with an object; it may (3) be qualified by adverbs or adverbial phrases; and (4) it may, in its 'ing' form (p. 132), take a pronominal adjective or a possessive adjunct.

'To appear discouraged is the way to become so.'

'To see her is to love her.'

'To profess regard, while inwardly full of contempt, is the action of a sycophant.'

'To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world, and to be wise in the sight of the Creator, are three things so different as rarely to coincide.'

'His going to England at such a time, must have been a public action.'

'The King's persisting in such designs was the height of folly.'

5. The enlargement of the noun as subject must consist of an adjective, or one or more of its substitutes (p. 66).

1. An Adjective:—a *wise* man will not always study; *great* fear fell upon all; *quick* promisers are slow performers.

2. A Possessive Case:—*the orator's* voice was powerful.

3. A Noun in Apposition:—Swift, *the satirist*, was a cousin of Dryden, the poet.

4. A phrase made up of a preposition and a noun :—the hand *of the diligent* maketh rich.

'The sports of children satisfy the child.'

'The wave at the foot of the rock murmured pleasantly.'

'A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.'

'The Reform Bill of 1867 was called a leap in the dark.'

5. A Participle, or a Participial Phrase (that is, a Participle having an object, or qualified by an Adverb, like a verb) :—*looking eagerly around*, he spied far off upon the plain.

The phrase is usually **co-ordinate**, but it may be **restrictive**.

'Saul, yet breathing out threatnings and slaughter, went unto the high priest.' Here the phrase is *co-ordinate;* that is, it does not restrict, but adds to what is signified by the subject 'Saul.'

'What man, seeing this, and having human feelings, does not blush?' Here the phrase is *restrictive :* it restricts the subject 'man' to such men as 'see this and have human feelings.'

'Reasoning at every step he treads, man yet mistakes his way.'

'Verse, in the finest mould of fancy cast,
Was lumber in an age so void of taste.'

6. A combination of two or more of these modes :—

'The dark and sullen humour of the time
Judged every effort of the muse a crime.'

'Worn out by age and long confinement, the prisoner was at last set free.'

'The laurel wreath, the prize of happier times, will not avail thee now.'

'Low now lies Jourdan the Headsman's own head.'

6. The **Predicate** is always a **Verb**, alone or with adjuncts:—'reigns,' 'will have his own way.'

When the Predicate is a single Verb, it is called *simple*:—the waves *roar*; the lightning *flashes*.

When the Predicate is made up of a Verb of incomplete Predication with a complement, it is called *complex*:—the streets *are wet*; the heavens *grow darker*; the confusion *becomes terrific*.

The complement need not be a single word; it may be a noun or an infinitive with any of the enlargements enumerated above in **4** and **5**

7. When the predicate verb is transitive, it has an **Object**.

The object is really part of the predicate; but inasmuch as it is oftenest a noun, and is open to all the equivalents and enlargements of the noun as subject, it is for convenience' sake taken separately.

8. The object is usually a **noun**, alone or with adjuncts:—the Indian hunts *buffaloes*; the wind shakes *the high house on the cliff*.

In place of the noun as object, may stand a **pronoun** or an **infinitive**:—come, let us kill *him*; learn to labour and to wait; the doctor recommended *walking*.

The infinitive need not be a bare infinitive, but may be enlarged in all the ways above enumerated. (§ **4**.)

'Venture to be wise.'

'I purpose coming home at ten.'

9. The **enlargements of the noun as object** are the same with the enlargements of the noun as subject:—an Adjective, a Possessive, an Apposition Noun, a Prepositional Phrase, a Participial Phrase, or a combination of two or more of these.

For example:—*man's feeble* race what ills await! vex not thou *the poet's* mind; in such a cause I grant *an English poet's* privilege to rant; Oh for a lodge *in some vast wilderness.*

The noun may take such enlargements wherever it occurs; whether as subject, as object, as complement of an incomplete verb, or as part of a phrase.

10. The **enlargements of the Verb,** apart from the object, are adverbs and adverbial phrases: Iser rolls *rapidly;* the army fled *in a panic;* he played the tyrant *without remorse.*

The **Adverbial Phrase** may be:—

1. A Noun:—he slept *an hour;* wait *a moment;* he leaps *a yard.*

2. A Preposition and Noun:—you lived *without virtue;* you shall die *without repentance;* we should profit *by experience;* Ascham taught Latin *to Queen Elizabeth;* he was charged *with treason.*

3. A noun qualified by some adjunct:—he rested *a few minutes;* the ball was carried *a thousand yards;* he struck his antagonist *a heavy blow;* they came here *a few days ago.*

4. A Participle or a Participial Phrase:—he advanced *trembling;* they came back *exulting over their victory; toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,* onward through life he goes.

In such sentences as—'*the night coming on*, we retraced our steps,' the participial phrase is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute**. Other examples are :—The sick woman refusing to drink, one of the servants brought in the bottle again ; the flood abating, Noah sent a dove out of the ark ; the leading principles being well impressed, the details may be left to the student.

In such sentences as—'He was wonderfully active, *considering his age*,' where the participle neither refers to the subject of the verb, nor has a subject of its own, it is said to be used **impersonally**. Other examples are :—'Granting what you say, does it answer my argument?' 'Allowing all this, there is still something to be said in his favour.' Only a few participles, such as 'granting,' 'considering,' 'allowing,' are used in this way. They are almost prepositions, like 'notwithstanding,' 'pending,' and 'during,' which were originally participles (p. 93).

Except in these cases, a participial phrase standing at the beginning of a Sentence, qualifies either the Subject or the Predicate of the sentence. This is not always attended to. In the sentence—'Meeting him the other day, he asked me,' the participial phrase is designed to apply to "me," but from its position it must be read as applying to "he." Such constructions should be guarded against.

5. An Infinitive or a Gerund :—he is very foolish *to take such a thing to heart* (infinitive with prep.) ; the shepherd was bribed *to put them off the track* (gerund).

'The young man received three thousand pounds to begin the world with ;' 'he extolled his wares beyond their worth, to make them go off the better.'

The negative **not** is considered a part of the predicate rather than an adverbial enlargement of it.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

11. A Complex Sentence, while containing but one principal Subject and one principal Predicate, has two or more finite Verbs:—What can't be cured must be endured; if thy heart fail thee, do not climb at all.

The part containing the principal Subject and Predicate is called the Principal Clause; the other part, the Subordinate Clause or Clauses:—'do not climb at all' *(principal)*, 'if thy heart fail thee' *(subordinate)*.

12. A subordinate clause stands in place of a Part of Speech.

In the sentence—'that the man has abilities is not to be denied,' the clause 'that the man has abilities' is the Subject, and serves the function of a Noun. Such clauses are called **Noun Clauses.**

In the sentence—'the man that brought the letter is at the door,' the clause 'that brought the letter' qualifies or restricts 'man,' and so serves the function of an Adjective. Such clauses are called **Adjective Clauses.**

In the sentence—'he was gone before I arrived,' the clause 'before I arrived' indicates the time of the action, and so serves the function of an Adverb. Such clauses are called **Adverbial Clauses.**

Clauses are thus distinguished into Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses, according to the Part of Speech that they represent.

The Noun Clause.

13. The Noun Clause occupies the place of the Noun, and may be the subject or the object of the Principal Clause:—*that fortune favours the brave*

is a cheering maxim; I heard *that a battle had been fought;* I have said *what I have said.*

The Noun Clause may also, like the noun, be used to complete a predicate:—the result was *that he left the country.*

14. In such sentences as—'the fact *that man's powers are limited* is not sufficiently recognized'—the noun clause is in apposition to the noun 'fact.'

'There is this objection to the scheme that in a short time nobody would be willing to pay.'

In—'it is hard *that a man cannot enjoy the fruits of his own industry*'—the noun clause is in apposition to 'it.'

15. The words used to introduce noun clauses are—that, what, when, whence, how, why, &c.

We know *what we are,* but we know not *what we shall be.*

Nobody but ourselves knew *what we were pursued for.*

He was generally master of *what he undertook.*

Let me know *when you can come.*

I will find out *whence you derive that idea.*

How far I have succeeded, is for you to judge.

Why he left so suddenly, we could never understand.

What he wants in knowledge, he supplies by self-confidence.

'What,' 'when,' &c., in such cases, are at bottom interrogatives.

The conjunction 'that' is frequently omitted before a noun clause standing as object:—I said in my haste, *All men are liars;* tell me not in mournful numbers, *Life is but an empty dream.*

The Adjective Clause.

16. When a clause limits, defines, or adds to the meaning of a Noun, it is of the nature of an Adjective :—'I venerate the man *whose heart is warm,*' (the *warm-hearted* man), 'thoughts *that breathe* and words *that burn.*'

An Adjective Clause may be found in any place of the sentence where a Noun may occur for an Adjective to qualify.

1. With the subject:—happy is the man *that findeth wisdom;* every plague *that can infest society* is found there; all the vices *that oppression generates,* flourished in the unhappy country.

2. With the object:—I see the golden helmet that shines far off like flame; teach me the way wherein to walk.

> Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
> Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime?

3. In adverbial adjuncts:—we are not bound by promises that have been extorted by violence; some excuse seems necessary for the pain that we occasion to brutes; what can you expect from a man that has not talked these five days; Lord Raglan toiled at the desk where Wellington wrote his immortal despatches.

17. Agreeably to the distinction between restrictive adjectives and co-ordinate adjectives, Adjective Clauses may be restrictive, or they may be co-ordinate.

For introducing **restrictive** adjective clauses, the relative **that** and its equivalents are preferable to 'who' or 'which' and their equivalents.

'The man *that* brought the letter,' is preferable to 'the man *who* brought the letter.'

'All the vices *that* oppression generates,' is preferable to 'all the vices *which* oppression generates.'

For introducing **co-ordinate** clauses, the proper relatives are **who, which,** and their equivalents.

'The captain, *who* is a man *that* I can trust, told me so yesterday.'

'The mail-train, *which* usually is so punctual, was late yesterday.' To use 'that' would imply that there are several mail trains, and that one of them is specially punctual.

The Adverbial Clause.

18. An Adverbial Clause is the equivalent of an Adverb :—meet me *when the clock strikes one.*

Adverbial clauses may be divided into as many classes as adverbs, and, like them, may qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

1. **Place** :—Wherever I go, I meet the same story ; where nothing can be done, the less said the better ; he took care to place himself where he could see all that went on.

2. **Time** : — People shriek when they see others in danger; he left before the news arrived ; Nero was fiddling while Rome was burning; I will do it as often as you like; we did not reach home till the sun had set; some men are disposed to grumble, as they grow old ; he whistled as he went, for want of thought.

3. **Degree** :—He is withdrawing his thoughts, as far as he can, from the present world ; she is older than she looks ; the more you coax, the more obstinate will he become ; thou good old man, benevolent as wise.

4. **Certainty** or Uncertainty :—As I am a living man, comes my uncle.

5. **Cause** or **Reason**:—He fled, because he was afraid; as I am pressed for time, I can say no more at present; we might live very comfortably, if we were a little more tolerant of our neighbours.

6. **Manner** in general:—I live as I did, I think as I did, I love you as I did; the men were running as if they were mad.

19. The Adverbial Clause is contracted by omitting the Verb, or by changing it into a Participle.

'I will not give way until I am compelled by the infirmities of age.' 'I am' may be omitted.

'As we walked by the side of the river, we met a very strange fellow.' 'As we walked,' may be made 'walking.'

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

20. A Compound Sentence contains two or more Co-ordinate Sentences united:—'Charles raised the sluice and let out the water;' 'he came and he saw, but he did not conquer;' 'he has nothing to lose, and therefore nothing to fear.'

Contracted Sentences.

21. Compound Sentences are contracted by not repeating what is common to the co-ordinate clauses:—'horses are used for riding, and (horses are used) for driving;' 'he was courageous, but (he was) not prudent;' 'neither James (is responsible for this) nor John is responsible for this.'

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.

Simple Sentences.

In analysing Simple Sentences the manner of proceeding is as follows :—

I. Set down the subject of the sentence.

II. Set down the enlargement, or attributive adjuncts of the subject.

III. Give the predicate verb. If this is a verb of incomplete predication, state the complement also.

IV. When the predicate is a transitive verb, state the object.

V. Set down the enlargement, or attributive adjuncts of the object.

VI. Give the adverbial adjuncts of the predicate.

In a sentence given for analysis simply, the parsing for parts of speech should not be carried to the last degree of minuteness. It is well, however, to distinguish the various adjuncts; and in the case of infinitive subjects, objects, or complements, to mention the various enlargements as laid down in the Grammar.

22. 1. Music's golden tongue
Flattered to tears this aged man and poor.

I. *Subject*, 'tongue.'
II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject* { 1. 'Music's,' *possessive case.* 2. 'golden,' *co-ordinate adjective.*
III. *Predicate*, 'flattered.'
IV. *Object*, 'man.'
V. *Attributive adjuncts of object* { 1. 'this,' *demonstrative adj.* 2. 'aged and poor,' *co-ordinate adjectives.*
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* { 'to tears,' *adverbial phrase of effect.*

23. 2. Putting themselves in order of battle, our troops calmly awaited the charge of the enemy.

I. *Subject*, 'troops.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject*
1. 'putting themselves in order of battle,' *participial phrase, co-ordinate.*
2. 'Our,' *possessive adj.*

III. *Predicate*, 'awaited.'

IV. *Object*, 'charge.'

V. *Attributive adjuncts of object*
1. 'the,' *demonstrative adj.*
2. 'of the enemy,' *prepositional adjective phrase.*

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*
'calmly,' *adverb of manner.*

24. 3. The fair way of conducting a dispute is to exhibit one by one the arguments of your opponents.

I. *Subject*, 'way.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject*
1. 'The,' *demonstrative adj.*
2. 'fair,' *restrictive adj.*
3. 'of conducting a dispute,' *restrictive adjective phrase.*

III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
2. *Complement*, 'to exhibit one by one the arguments of your opponents;' *Infinitive enlarged* (1) *by adverbial phrase*, (2) *by object with adjuncts.*

25. 4. Satan is with great art described by Milton as owning his adversary to be Almighty.

I. *Subject*, 'Satan.'

III. *Predicate*, 'is described.'

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate*
1. 'with great art,' *phrase of manner.*
2. 'by Milton,' *phrase of agency.*
3. 'as owning his adversary to be Almighty,' *participial phrase.*

26. 5. In the multitude of counsellors there is safety.

I. *Subject*, 'safety.'
III. *Predicate* 'is' (exists).
VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of Predicate*
1. 'there,' *expletive adverb.*
2. 'in the multitude of counsellors,' *phrase of place (metaphorical).*

27. 6. What did you come here for?

I. *Subject*, 'you.'
III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'did.'
2. *Complement*, 'come.'
VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate*
1. 'here,' *adverb of place.*
2. 'for what,' *adverbial phrase of purpose.*

Complex Sentences.

These are to be analysed in the first instance as if each subordinate clause were a single word or phrase. The subordinate clauses are then to be analysed separately.

28. 1. That man has been from time immemorial a right-handed animal, is beyond dispute.

I. *Subject*, 'that man has been from time immemorial a right-handed animal,' *noun clause.* (*a*)
III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
2. *Complement*, 'beyond dispute,' *prepositional adjective phrase.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'man.'
III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'has been.'
2. *Complement*, 'a right-handed animal,' *noun with adjuncts.*
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'from time immemorial,' *phrase of time.*

The conjunction 'that' does not enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

29. 2. Mark, now, how a plain tale shall put you down.

I. *Subject*, ('you,' *understood*).
III. *Predicate*, 'mark.'
IV. *Object*, 'how a plain tale shall put you down,' *noun clause.* (*a*)
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'now,' *time.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'tale.'
II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject* { 1. 'a.' 2. 'plain,' *restrictive adj.*
III. *Predicate* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'shall.' 2. *Complement*, 'put down.'
IV. *Object*, 'you.'

30. 3. It is in vain that you seek to escape.

I. *Subject*, 'it.'
II. *Noun clause in apposition to subject* { 'that you seek to escape.' (*a*)
III. *Predicate* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' 2. *Complement*, 'in vain,' *prepositional adjective phrase.*

Analysis of *(a)*.

I. *Subject*, 'you.'
III. *Predicate*, 'seek.'
IV. *Object*, 'to escape,' *infinitive as noun.*

[Or, 'to escape' may be analysed as a *gerundial adverbial phrase*, if we take 'seek' as an intransitive verb—'seek, look this way and that, *with a view to escaping*.']

31. 4. Health, which is precious to all, is invaluable to the poor.

I. *Subject*, 'Health.'
II. *Attributive adjunct of subject* { 'which is precious to all,' *co-ordinate adjective clause.* (*a*)
III. *Predicate* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.' 2. *Complement*, 'invaluable.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* { 'to the poor,' *phrase of direction.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'which.'

III. *Predicate* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
2. *Complement*, 'precious.'

IV. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* { 'to all,' *phrase of direction.*

32. 5. No scene of life but has contributed
Much to remember.

I. *Subject*, 'scene.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject* {
1. 'no,' *indefinite numeral.*
2. 'of life,' *restrictive adjective phrase.*
3. 'but' (that not) 'has contributed much to remember,' *restrictive adjective clause.* (*a*)

III. *Predicate* ['is' (exists), *understood*].

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'that.'

III. *Predicate*, 'has not contributed.'

IV. *Object*, 'much.'

V. *Attributive adjunct of object*, 'to remember,' *gerundial adjective phrase.*

33. 6. The tares of despotism were sown while men slept.

I. *Subject*, 'tares.'

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject* { 1. 'The.'
2. 'of despotism,' *adjective phrase.*

III. *Predicate*, 'were sown.'

IV. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* { 'while men slept,' *adverbial clause of time.* (*a*)

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'men.'

III. *Predicate*, 'slept.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'while.'

34. 7. What he spake, though it lacked form a little
Was not like madness.

I. *Subject*, 'What he spake,' *noun clause.* (*a*)

III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'was not.'
2. *Complement* 'like madness,' *adjective with qualifying adverbial phrase*—'(*to*) madness.'

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* 'though it lacked form a little,' *adverbial clause.* (*b*)

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'he.'
III. *Predicate*, 'spake.'
IV. *Object*, 'what.'

Analysis of (*b*).

I. *Subject*, 'it' (what he spake).
III. *Predicate*, 'lacked.'
IV. *Object*, 'form.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate* 'a little,' *elliptical for* 'to a little degree,' *phrase of degree.*

35. 8. There is a sweetness in good verse which tickles even while it hurts.

I. *Subject*, 'sweetness.'

II. *Attributive Adjuncts of Subject*
1. 'a.'
2. 'which tickles even while it hurts,' *restrictive adjective clause* ('which' improperly used for 'that') (*a*).

III. *Predicate*
1. *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is.'
2. *Complement*, 'in good verse,' *prepositional adjective phrase.*

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate*, 'there,' *expletive.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'which.'
III. *Predicate*, 'tickles.'

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate* 'even while it hurts,' *adverbial clause of time* (a^2) *qualified by adverb of degree.*

Analysis of (a^2).

I. *Subject*, 'it.'
III. *Predicate*, 'hurts.'
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate*, 'while.'

Note on 'while.'—The adverbial conjunctions, 'while,' 'where,' 'when,' 'as,' &c., are considered parts of a subordinate sentence, being adverbial qualifications of the predicate. Other conjunctions, 'if,' 'though,' 'because,' 'since' (of Reason), &c., are not looked upon as parts of the subordinate sentence, but merely as introductory words.

Compound Sentences.

The Co-ordinate Sentences are to be analysed separately and the link of connection indicated. These separate sentences, when complex, are to be analysed as such.

36. 1. She moves a goddess, and she looks a queen.

[A] 'She moves a goddess;' [B] 'she looks a queen.'

'And' is a cumulative conjunction, adding B to A.

37. 2. They asked him whether he was guilty, but he refused to answer.

[A + a] 'They asked him whether he was guilty;' [B] 'he refused to answer.'

'But' is an adversative conjunction, putting B in opposition to A + a.

Contracted Sentences.

In these the omitted parts must be expressed at full length, after which the analysis proceeds as above.

38. A man of real information becomes a centre of opinion, and therefore of action.

[A] A man of real information becomes a centre of opinion [B] therefore (a man of real information becomes a centre) of action.

Exercise 18.

1. Amid the roses fierce Repentance rears
   Her snaky crest.
2. Man, the subject of Politics, can speak.
3. Home they brought her warrior dead.
4. His purpose is to avert bad consequences.
5. It fell upon a raw and gusty day
   The troubled Tiber chafing with his shores.
6. Now leave complaining, and begin your tea.
7. He loved planting and building, and brought in a politer way of living.
8. Leaves have their time to fall
   And flowers to wither at the North Wind's breath.
9. It was a shame for them to mar their complexions with long lying abed.
10. Now, therefore, let thy servant abide in place of the lad, a bondman to my lord.
11. With droll sobriety they raised a smile
    At Folly's cost, themselves unmoved the while.
12. Collecting, classifying, contrasting, and weighing facts, are processes made use of in teaching method.
13. The boy stood on the burning deck
    Whence all but him had fled.
14. The rose that all are praising is not the rose for me.
15. All controversies that can never end, had better perhaps never begin.
16. He that fights and runs away
    May live to fight another day.
17. Meanwhile opinion gilds with varying rays
    Those painted clouds that beautify our days.
18. How France was saved from this humiliation, and how the great alliance was preserved, will now be seen.
19. She loved me for the dangers I had passed.
20. The forms of a free constitution surviving, when its spirit is extinct, would perpetuate slavery by

21. Disquieted by imaginary alarms, insensible to the real danger that awaits them, people are taught to court that servitude which will be a source of misery to themselves and to posterity.

22. It is only by the fresh feelings of the heart that mankind can be very powerfully affected.

23. Long and various experience seems to have convinced the nations of Europe that nothing but a standing army can oppose a standing army.

24. In working well, if travail you sustain,
Into the wind shall lightly pass the pain,
But of the deed the glory shall remain.

25. To prove my assertion we have but to observe, what generally passes between the winner and the loser.

26. Go into Turkey, where the Pachas will tell you that the Turkish government is the most perfect in the world.

27. All that he does is to distribute what others produce; which is the least part of the business.

28. And even while fashion's brightest arts decoy,
The heart, distrusting, asks if this be joy.

29. Those poets who owe their best fame to his skill
Shall still be his flatterers, go where he will.

30. The heart of man craves for sympathy, and each of us seeks a recognition of his talents and his labours.

31. The Dutch florist that sells tulip bulbs for their weight in gold, laughs at the antiquary that pays a great price for a rusty lamp.

32. Here Cumberland lies, having acted his parts,
The Terence of England, the mender of hearts;
A flattering painter, who made it his care
To draw men as they ought to be, not as they are.

33. Nor second he that rode sublime
Upon the seraph-wings of Ecstasy,
The secrets of the abyss to spy.

34. When civil dudgeon first grew high
And men fell out, they knew not why;
Then did Sir Knight abandon dwelling,
And out he rode a-colonelling.

Questions.

1. Into what two principal parts is the sentence analysed?
2. How are sentences classified?
3. What is a Simple sentence?
4. What part of speech is the type of the Subject? What other parts of speech may stand in its place? What different forms of infinitive phrase may stand as subject?
5. How may the noun subject be enlarged? Enumerate and exemplify the different forms of the Adjuncts of the subject in the Simple Sentence.
6. What part of speech is the type of the Predicate? What names are given to different forms of the predicate verb?
7. What part of speech is the type of the Object? How is it varied? How enlarged?
8. How is the predicate verb enlarged? Enumerate and exemplify different forms of Adverbial Phrase.
9. What view is taken of the negative 'not' in the analysis of the sentence?
10. What is meant by a Complex Sentence? What names are given to its component clauses? What is the function of the Subordinate Clauses?
11. Define the Noun Clause. What places may it occupy in the sentence?
12. What words are used to introduce noun clauses?
13. Explain the Adjective Clause. Show by examples what various positions it may have in the sentence.
14. Point out and exemplify the difference between Restrictive and Co-ordinate Clauses. What is the proper relative for each kind of clause?

15. Explain the force of the relative clause in the sentence—'He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.'

16. What function is served by the Adverbial Clause? Exemplify the various classes of adverbial clauses?

17. How is the adverbial clause contracted?

18. Distinguish the Compound Sentence from the Complex.

19. How are compound sentences contracted?

CONCORD.

1. When two connected words are of the same Number, Gender, Person, or Tense, they are said to *agree* with one another, or to be in Concord.

We have seen that in the inflection of the verb, the form is changed according to the Number and the Person of the subject:—'they walk—he walk*s*;' 'I walk—thou walk*est*.' The verb 'walk' is said to *agree* with, to be *in concord* with the subject, whether 'they,' 'he,' 'I,' or 'thou.'

When two different parts of speech are applied to the same subject, their inflections, in so far as they are inflected, must correspond, or be in concord. We must not use the feminine pronoun 'she,' when we refer to a man; nor 'he,' when we refer to a woman: we must not use 'they' when we refer to a singular noun; nor 'it' when the noun referred to is plural.

CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND VERB.

2. A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and in Person, and the subject of the Verb (if a Pronoun) is in the Nominative Case:—your motives *were* good, but your conduct *was* wrong; you *were* quite right; I *am* to blame.

The following are incorrect expressions:—says I; up we goes to the table; his pulse are too quick; what have become of our friends? she dare not resist; do as thou list; them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed; here is the soldiers; there was all the officers cursing a Dutch general.

Errors are sometimes made when a prominent noun of different number comes between the subject and the verb:—the derivation of the words *are* uncertain; one of the mareschals *were* slain.

'An appearance of morals and religion are useful in society.'—*(Junius.)*

'The progress still made by the Saxons, prove that the advantage was commonly on their side.'—*(Hume.)*

'Our present English language, in which the speech of the victors and the vanquished have been so happily blended.—*(Ivanhoe.)*

Another misleading case is when the subject is qualified by two adjectives:—'a handsome and polished exterior *are* much in his favour;' 'his kind and even temper *endear* him to all that know him.'

3. A Collective Noun, though Singular in form, is not always followed by a singular verb.

When the group denoted by the collective noun is spoken of as a whole, the verb is singular:—the army *is* in good condition; the regiment *is* under the command of Colonel White; the clan *is* powerful; the jury *was* divided into two sections; the club *meets* on Tuesday.

But when the members of the group or collection are spoken of individually, the verb is plural:—the 93rd *are* very fine men; the clan Macdonald *hate* the clan Campbell;

the jury *were* unanimous; the gentry *were* not less refractory than the clergy; the public *are* requested not to write on these walls.

4. When the form of a noun is plural, and the meaning singular, a singular verb is generally preferred.

'Nine-tenths of a man's happiness depends upon other people;' 'this news about my children decides me;' 'Mathematics is a branch of study in every school;' 'three multiplied by four makes twelve.'

The title of a book though plural in form, takes a singular verb when it stands for the book as a whole:—'Temple's *Observations on the United Provinces* is a very thorough work.'

Similarly with the title of a song:—'*Green Leaves* is a pretty song.'

5. If the subject of a sentence consists of two Nouns or Pronouns united by the conjunction 'and,' the Verb must be in the plural:—David and Jonathan were bosom friends; silence and twilight creep hand in hand.

Exceptions. (1.) When two nouns are names for the same subject. In this case the subject is really singular.

'My trusty counsellor and friend *has* warned me to have no dealings with such men.'

(2.) When two names almost synonymous are used for the sake of emphasis:—'secrecy and silence *is* what they chiefly desire;' 'pride and jealousy there was in his eye.'

'Nor was the manner and address of the king calculated to cure these prejudices.'

'The pomp and state of a court was emulated in the castles of the great nobles.'

(3.) When the two things named make a single compound subject, such as 'wheel and axle,' 'bread and butter,' 'needle and thread.'

'The composition and resolution of forces' (viewed as *one* process) '*was* applied by Newton.'

'When, in King Lear, the height and depth and breadth of human passion *is* revealed to us.'

6. When two or more Singular Nouns are joined by alternative conjunctions, the verb is Singular.

Either your brother *or* Thomas *is* to be there.

7. When the subject of the verb is a Relative Pronoun, the antecedent shows the number of the verb.

A man that *hopes* to be great; men that *hope* to be great.

CONCORD OF NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

8. The Demonstrative Adjectives 'this' and 'that,' being inflected for number, must agree with their noun:—this tree, these hands.

9. The Distributive Adjectives 'each' and 'every' are joined to a Singular noun;—every friend *is* expected to help.

These words, when applied to one Gender, take a Singular pronoun;—every man for *himself;* each sister for *herself.* When both sexes are implied, there is a difficulty. If we

say 'each for himself,' the concord of gender is violated; if we say 'each for themselves,' the concord of gender is saved, and the concord of number infringed. Both forms are in use.

CONCORD OF TENSES.

10. The Subordinate Tenses and the Principal Tense must not conflict.

'He *affirmed* that he *will* go to-morrow;' 'if this *should be* done, I *will* at once withdraw;' 'he *hid* himself, lest he *shall* be impressed;'—and such like, are wrong constructions; but errors are seldom made in cases so simple.

The use of the present indefinite to express a proposition true for all time, is an apparent exception. It is right to say—'Galileo maintained that the earth *moves*,' and wrong to say '*moved*.'

The perfect infinitive is often misapplied. It should not be used except after a present tense. To use it after a past tense, is bad syntax. 'He trusted to have vanquished his enemies,' should be—'he trusted to vanquish his enemies.' The following is also wrong :—

> I thought thy bride-bed to have deck'd, sweet maid,
> And not to have strew'd thy grave.

Errors are sometimes committed in making up the tenses with auxiliaries: we meet with such mistakes as—'having *broke*,' 'had *broke*,' for 'having *broken*,' 'had *broken*,' and '*being* returned' for '*having* returned.'

GOVERNMENT.

1. Government is the regulating of the case of a Noun or Pronoun.

We must say—we captured *him* (not *he*); go with *them* (not *they*).

The Noun has only one case, the possessive; and only a few nouns can be used in the possessive. Those that are so used, such as proper names, are followed by the noun for the thing possessed:—Mary's fan.

2. A Noun or Pronoun coming before an infinitive in 'ing' to indicate the subject of the verb, is put in the possessive:—'*John's* advising me to accept the offer, was unexpected;' 'the reason of *his* being there, I did not know.'

From confusing the infinitive with the participle, writers often infringe the rule. We often find such false constructions as '*John* advising me,' and 'the reason of *him* being there.'

3. Transitive verbs (with their Infinitives, Participles, and Gerunds), and Prepositions, govern the Objective case.

This rule appears only in Pronouns:—They saw *me* address *her*, while bringing *him* to accompany *them;* Peter, *whom* you know, did that; after *us*.

4. The Verb 'be' has the same case after it as before it:—it is *he;* we knew it to be *her*.

This rule is not universally observed. 'It is me,' 'it was not me,' 'it was him,' 'it was her,' are often used in conversation, and sometimes in books by good writers.

ORDER OF WORDS.

In a sentence, the different Parts of Speech are placed in a certain order.

Subject and Verb.

1. The Subject precedes the Verb:—the road winds; time passes quickly.

There are exceptions to this rule. The adverb 'there' often introduces an inverted sentence:—there is a way; there came a traveller. Other adverbs, and adverbial phrases, lead to a similar inversion:—*then* followed a great multitude; *at no time* left he the house.

Verb and Object.

2. The Transitive Verb precedes its object:—We *hoisted the flag.*

There are exceptions to this rule also, especially in poetry:—*me* ye trusted; *him* the Almighty Power hurled headlong; what none has dared, thou hast done; whom none has advised, thou hast persuaded.

Noun and Adjective.

3. The Adjective precedes the Noun:—*good* advice.

When the adjective is accompanied by qualifying phrases, it is often placed after the noun:—a person *in every respect* trustworthy.

Repetition of the Article. When two nouns apply to the same subject, the article is given only once: the statesman and general (one person). When the two nouns express different subjects, each has the article: the statesman and *the* general (two persons).

Pronoun and Antecedent.

4. Every pronoun should have a distinct reference.

It has been seen (PRONOUN 7, 8) that the word referred to by the pronoun usually goes before (antecedent), but in certain cases comes after.

We should avoid using a pronoun with more than one reference on the same sentence. 'It,' from the variety of its references, is often abused in this way. What has the child done with my book? *It* is provoking that *it* will always run away with *it*.'

Placing of the Adverb.

5. The Adverb usually follows the verb:—He works *steadily*; bring the man *quickly*.

When the verb is Intransitive, the adverb follows immediately after: when the verb is Transitive, it follows the object. There are many exceptions to the rule.

Placing of 'only' and 'not.'—'Only' qualifies the word or phrase immediately after it. 'He *only* sends in his account twice a-year,' means that he sends in his account, and takes no other step—does not call, does not write pressing letters. 'He sends in his account *only* twice a-year,' means that he sends in his account twice a-year, and no oftener. 'Only' is often misplaced. 'I am only anxious to see him,' should be, 'I am anxious only to see him.'

'Not' is often misplaced in constructions with 'not—but only,' 'not only—but,' 'not only—but also.' He did not wish to punish, but only to warn,' should be—'he wished not to punish, but only to warn.' The verb applies to both the contrasted expressions, and should stand clear at the beginning.

On similar grounds—'he not only was just but generous,' should be, 'he was not only just, but generous.'

'He not only resolved to send a message, but also to go

thither in person,' should be, 'he resolved not only to send, &c.

Exercise 19.

Errors in Syntax.

1. Both their nature, tempers, qualities, actions, and way of living was made up of innumerable contradictions.
2. Scotland and thee did in each other live.
3. O Thou for ever present in my way,
   Who all my motives and my toils survey.
4. I had wrote to him the day before.
5. The reason of him attending their meetings, were simply that he wishes to obstruct them.
6. The rise and fall of nations are an interesting study.
7. Great pains were taken to have avoided such a calamity.
8. The mind and body remains invincible.
9. The fact of me going away could not signify.
10. Nor want nor cold his course delay.
11. She fell a-laughing, like one out of their right senses.
12. There are a class of men who never looks before their noses.
13. I, your friend, advises you not to trust either of the three partners.
14. Between you and I, there was a variety of causes at work.
15. The only real hindrance to it being attainable is the wonderful imprudent character of the people.
16. Though four-fifths of the population is Celtic and Roman Catholic, more than four-fifths of the property belong to Protestants.

17. No other river such fine salmon feed.
18. The books were lain upon the table.
19. He is one of the best and wisest men who has ever lived.
20. He trusted to have equalled the Most High.
21. Every tub must stand upon their own bottom.
22. That is the man whom I perceived was in fault.
23. You are the first that rears your head.
24. His Elements of Political Economy were very favourably reviewed.
25. The play is most pernicious slow.
26. The tenantry has resolved to celebrate the marriage of its young proprietor with all the honours.
27. All human race would fain be wits.
28. Each make as much profit as they can.
29. Sir William Temple had a good shape, and was extreme active.
30. His honourable and amiable disposition were praised by everybody.
31. Shattered by the fever, his friends left him to his fate.
32. I am afraid of the man dying before a doctor can come.
33. It was very characteristic of Bacon to say that by indignities men came to dignities.
34. If we could only hold our tongues, everything will succeed to a wish.
35. His wages are not sufficient to support a growing family.
36. Have you seen the minister and schoolmaster the day?
37. That bliss which only centres in the mind.

38. We would be greatly mistaken if we suppose wealth and rank exempt from care and toil.

39. Hoping to hear from you soon, believe me yours truly.

40. A plague to his parents at home, the master could almost make nothing of him at school.

41. Nine-tenths of the miseries and vices of mankind proceed from idleness.

42. He complained that he had suffered him only to use his horse for one day.

43. Before Hell's gate there sat
On either side a formidable shape.

44. He not only endeavoured to do his duty, but to make others do theirs.

45. Some persons can only distinguish black, white, and gray.

46. This does not so much seem to be owing to the want of physical power, but rather to the absence of vehemence.

47. The attempt may succeed in this case, but it is not often that it is safe to make it.

A. KING AND COMPANY, PRINTERS AND STEREOTYPERS, ABERDEEN.

Other Works by the Author.

A Key, with additional Exercises, to the present Grammar	1s. 9d.
A Higher English Grammar	2s. 6d.
English Composition and Rhetoric	4s. 0d.
Illustrative English Extracts	0s. 6d.
Logic, in Two Parts—	
Deduction	4s. 0d.
Induction	6s. 6d.
Mental and Moral Science	10s. 6d.
The Senses and the Intellect	15s. 0d.
The Emotions and the Will	15s. 0d.