INTRODUCTION.

Man is chiefly distinguished from the rest of the creation around him, by being able to think and to speak.

When we speak, we use Language.

Language may be defined as 'The expression of our thoughts by signs, whether spoken or written.'

The study of Language, with a view of showing the laws and principles by which it is guided, forms a science, which we call Grammar.

All language is composed of sentences; sentences are made up of words; and words, when written down, are composed of letters.

To show, therefore, how a language is built up from its simplest elements, the science of Grammar will comprehend three principal parts:

1. The knowledge of the letters—their proper sounds—and the way in which they are combined, so as to form words.
2. The knowledge of all the different kinds of words—their powers, inflexions, and structure.
3. The knowledge of the proper methods by which words are combined so as to express our thoughts in correct sentences.

The first of these is called Orthography; the second, Etymology: and the third, Syntax.
PART VI

OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. The Alphabet.

The letters used in the English language are twenty-six. They are printed in two different forms, called Capital letters and Small letters.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z.

SMALL LETTERS.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

The whole system of letters is called the Alphabet (from Alpha, Beta, the names of the first two Greek letters).

2. The Vowels.

Of the above twenty-six letters, five have open sounds, viz., a, e, i, o, u. These are called Vowels (Latin, vocalis). But in addition to these, w and y are also used as pure vowels in some particular cases; and in all other instances are semi-vowels.

Thus in the words blow and by, the w and y are pure vowels. In the words yet and wet, they are semi-vowels, because the y is nearly equivalent to ə, and the w to ō. Yet might be spelt according to sound, əut, and wet might be spelt ōut.

3. The Consonants.

The remaining nineteen letters can be properly sounded only in conjunction with a vowel. They are therefore termed Consonants (Latin, con, together; sonans, sounding).
THE CONSONANTS.

Amongst the consonants, there are four which combine very easily with most of the other letters, viz. l, m, n, and r. They have been therefore termed Liquids.

Of the remaining fifteen letters, five cannot be sounded in any degree alone, i.e. without putting a vowel either before or after them, viz. b, d, k, p, and t; and other five can be pronounced apart from a vowel, only in a very indistinct manner, viz. f, g, s, v, and z. These ten letters have accordingly been termed Mutes.

Another distinction has been made between sharp and flat mutes; each flat mute having a sharp one related to it. Thus—

Flat. Sharp.

b is related to p
v ...... f

We have now five letters left, which have not been included either amongst vowels, liquids, or mutes; these are c, h, j, q, and x.

Of these five, h is simply a breathing, not possessing any full articulate sound. It is called on this account the aspirate.

C, q, and j are redundant letters, having exactly the same sounds as k, s, and g.

Thus cat could, as far as sound goes, be equally written kut: and city as sity. Q is only used with u coming immediately after it, and this combination is exactly equivalent to koo. Thus quality, as far as sound goes, might be written kowality. J has precisely the same sound as g in ginger.

Lastly, x is a double letter, being equivalent to ks.

The whole system of letters may be thus represented in a tabular form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Liquids</th>
<th>Mutes</th>
<th>Aspirate</th>
<th>Redundant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>full.</td>
<td>semi.</td>
<td>flat.</td>
<td>sharpe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>b related to p</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>......</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>......</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>......</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mutes have also been classified according to the organs by which they are pronounced. Thus—

{B and P} have been termed labials, or lip-letters.
{V and F} {D and T} {Z and S} {C and K} have been termed dentals, or tooth-letters.
{gutturals, or throat-letters.

1. If two vowels are sounded together, they form what is called a diphthong (Greek, δι, twofold; πράξες, vowel sound).

   Most of the diphthongs have the same sound as some of the simple vowels; as ea in pear, ai in pair, ou in toe, wi in jure, &c. The following, however, form a peculiar sound of their own —

   ay as in aye. "
   ci and ai ... boy
   ou and ow ... loud, now.

   To them we may add au and aw, as having the broad sound of the a in call, fall. Æ and œ are also diphthongs, but are only used in words adopted from Latin and Greek, as Caesar, Phæbus.

2. The double consonants, which have a peculiar sound of their own, are—

   Ch when sounded as in church.
   sh " " ship.
   ng " " sing, long.

   Th has two sounds, one sharp as in three, the other flat as in this.

   These two sounds had distinct characters in the Anglo-Saxon language, viz. p for the sharp th and s for the flat th.

   Wh is properly pronounced as hoo. Thus, which ought to be pronounced hooiich, though the aspirate is very commonly left out in England.

5. Of Syllables.

   A word, or portion of a word, that is pronounced by one single effort of the voice, is called a syllable (Greek, συλλαβή, a taking together).

   A word of one syllable only is called a monosyllable; a word of two syllables is called a disyllable; of three, a trisyllable; of more than three, a polysyllable.

Division of Syllables.

1. The general rule for dividing words into syllables is, that each separate syllable should, as far as possible, begin with a consonant, as in the word in-com-pre-hen-si-ble.

2. The special rules for the division of syllables are—

   1. If two consonants come together between two vowels, they should be divided, as bal-lot, cur-tain.
DIVISION OF SYLLABLES.

2. If two vowels, not forming a diphthong, come together, they must be divided, as in la-i-ty.

3. When an ordinary affix, such as ate, or a grammatical inflexion such as er, est, is added to a word, it forms a separate syllable though beginning with a vowel, as, indetermin-ate, lov-er, lov-est.

Exception 1. Two consonants, forming one combined sound, cannot be divided, though standing between two vowels. We do not write tab-le, but ta-ble.

Exception 2. The rules for dividing syllables must be regarded as subordinate to Etymological propriety. Thus we should not write righ-tesous, but righteous.


Capital letters should be employed at the beginning of—

1. Every sentence, as, Wise men are happy.

2. Every proper name, whether noun or adjective, as, England, English.

3. Every direct quotation, when the quotation is a complete sentence in itself; as, 'Shakspeare says, 'All the world's a stage.'

4. The names of months, weeks, days, &c., as July, Whit-week, Monday.

In addition to this, a capital letter is always used for the pronoun I, and the interjection O, and in writing poetry, is used to commence every line.


1. When a syllable such as ing, ed, or er has to be added to a word ending with a consonant, the consonant is frequently doubled, as rob, robber, expel, expelled. The general rule for this doubling is, that it must take place whenever an accented syllable precedes it. Thus we say confer, conferred, but offer, offered, because in the first instance the syllable fer is accented, and in the last not. Monosyllables are equivalent to accented syllables, and always require the doubling of the final consonant.

Exception. The letters l and s are generally doubled even when the preceding syllable is not accented, as travel, traveller.

2. When a syllable is added to a word ending in y, the y is
generally changed into \( i \); as, silly, sillier. The cases in which it is not changed are those in which a consonant precedes the final \( y \); as, shy, shyer.

The converse of this rule is, that when the termination \( ing \) is added to a word ending in \( ie \), the \( i \) is changed into \( y \), and the \( e \) omitted; as, die, dying.

3. Mute \( e \) at the end of a word is generally omitted if a syllable beginning with a vowel is added; as, love, loving. It is sometimes omitted when the syllable added begins with a consonant; as, judge, judgment; but the cases are rare, and only occur when the syllable preceding the increment is short.

Mute \( e \) at the end of a word preceded by a vowel is sometimes omitted and sometimes retained without any apparent reason beyond usage; as, true, truly; blue, blueness.
PART II.
OF ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of words individually considered.

To understand words aright, there are three things to be considered and explained:—
1. The due classification of all the different kinds of words of which a language consists.
2. The different changes and inflexions to which the words are subject.
3. The structure of words; or the manner in which they are formed, whether it be from simpler roots in the same language, or from foreign sources.

CHAPTER I. — CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

Words are divided into eight classes, called Parts of Speech:—

1. The Noun.        5. The Adverb.
3. The Pronoun.      7. The Conjunction.
4. The Verb.         8. The Interjection.

The ground of this classification will be better explained after the nature and characteristics of each part of speech have been duly considered.

THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of anything.

Explanations.—1. The sensible objects which we see, hear, and feel around us, are those which naturally first strike our attention. The child, after he has observed the same persons or things (e.g. the nurse, the mother, the cradle) many times, at length makes a sign of recognition whenever they attract his attention. After a while, the same sign is made to indicate the recollection or idea of the thing, when it is not present. Such a sign, as soon as it becomes an articulate word, is called the name of the thing. In grammar, all such names are called nouns.
ETymology.

2. Thus, when a particular name is given to a particular thing, we see an example of the simplest form of the noun, and the first which the infant mind begins to employ. This is what we now term, the Proper Noun.

3. As our observation extends, and the things which attract our attention are multiplied, it becomes impossible to have a separate name for every individual thing. Hence the name, which was at first given to one individual, is made to stand for other persons or things like it, and thus becomes a name common to them all—i.e. a Common Noun.

4. But again, it is not merely substances (i.e. things which have a real independent existence of their own) which present themselves to our senses; we perceive also their different attributes separately. For example, we not only see what we term the snow itself, but we perceive also the white colour; and we not only see the grass, but we perceive the green colour. Abstracting, therefore, in thought, such attributes from the things to which they belong, and contemplating them as though they were separate existences, we give them distinctive names, such as whiteness, greenness, &c. All such names we call Abstract Nouns.* Hence

Nouns may be divided into three classes, Proper, Common, and Abstract.

I. A Proper Noun is the name of any individual person or thing; as, London, Nero, James.

1. It might be supposed that words like James, John, &c., are common nouns, since they are used to designate a great many individuals. It must be observed, however, that they are never used for a class, but only to designate one single individual at a time. They are always employed, therefore, as proper names.

2. When an individual person or thing stands prominently out as the type of a class, it forms a kind of transition between the proper and the common noun. Thus we say, He is a Hercules. In the same manner we speak of a Demosthenes, a Shakspere, a Howard.

3. Family names may also be regarded as proper names, with a tendency to become common. Thus we speak of the Cæsars, the Georges, the Thomsons.

4. The names of works of art are also proper nouns, with a certain element of the common noun infused into them as, This is a Madonna, that is a Raphael.

II. A Common Noun is a name given in common to everything of the same kind; as, Dog, Tree, Flower.

Every common noun, accordingly, expresses a general, and not a particular idea. By putting a word before it, however, to point out which particular

* We may form abstract nouns not only of phenomena which appeal to the senses, but of qualities, actions, and states of being, which can only be grasped by the understanding, as virtue, hypocrisy, slavery, &c. The same process of abstraction, when carried out still further, gives rise to those extremely general ideas, which we indicate by such words as number, space, time, magnitude, &c. In every case, however, the thing to which the name is given is regarded as though it had an independent existence of its own, and on that account the noun has been called a Substantive.
individual of the kind we are referring to at the moment, any *common noun* obtains the force of a *proper* one. Thus, *sun* is a common noun. The *sun* is *equivalent* to a proper noun. So also, *this book*, *my father*.

Common nouns admit of various distinctions, according as the separate individuals, of which any class consists, are more or less definitely implied in the common name. They may be included, with sufficient completeness, under the following four varieties:

1. Class Names.—These are nouns, which can be used to designate any single individual of which a class consists. Thus the word *lion* will apply equally well to each individual lion, and *house* to each individual house.

We often designate the same thing by names of different degrees of generality. Thus, we may call the same bird either an *Eagle* or an *Animal*. The more *general* words are called 'generic' terms; the less general are called 'specific' (from *genus* and *species*). The word *thing* may be looked upon as expressing the highest generality, and as being the universal type of the common noun.

2. Collective Names.—These are nouns which only denote a number of individuals when *united together*; so as to form one whole; as, *army, cavalry, flock*.

*Remark.*—An ordinary class name, such as *man*, is sometimes taken collectively for the whole class—as when we say, *Man is mortal*. This expression is exactly equivalent to the phrase, *All men are mortal*.

3. Names of Materials.—These are nouns which denote substances, which are not made up of individual parts; as, *milk, sugar, gold, clay, &c.*

4. Names of Numbers, Measures, Weights, &c.; as, *a dozen, a bushel, a pound.*

III. An *Abstract Noun* is the name of anything, which we only conceive of in our minds as having a real independent existence; as, wisdom, sleep, whiteness.

*Explanation.*—Wisdom cannot exist apart from a person who is wise, nor whiteness apart from a thing which is white. But we conceive of the general

* Of the above nouns, some are recognised as belonging to a given class by the senses. Thus we know that a *knife* belongs to a class of instruments to which we apply this term, by merely looking at it. Many nouns, however, belong to a class which can only be recognised by a higher exercise of thought. Thus the word *conqueror* implies something more than a *perception*; it implies that we attribute to the person in question a certain *quality*, which can only be realised by a further process of thinking.
quality of wisdom, or of whiteness, apart from any particular person or thing; and give it a name, as though it acquired by this means a real and separate existence of its own.

Some abstract nouns are based upon sensible phenomena, as, blackness, flight; while others have no existence except in thought; as, humility, candour.

Abstract nouns exhibit several varieties, which may be conveniently classified as follows:—

1. Names of Qualities, whether relating to material objects, or to the mind, or to both; as, colour, magnitude, youth, bravery, beauty, &c.

2. Names of Actions; as, march, step, flight.

Most actions are designated by the participial form of the verb; as Sailing is pleasant; Hunting is good exercise. These are termed verbal nouns. The infinitive mood also of the verb is really an abstract noun, denoting action; as, to sail is agreeable; to hunt is pleasant.

3. Names of States or Conditions, either of mind or body, or of things in general; as, sickness, health, warmth, &c.

States or periods of the year, day, week, &c., may be regarded as belonging to this class; as, summer, winter, twilight, night, darkness.

Nouns which have some real existence, or class of existences, answering to them, are said to be concrete; those which are formed entirely by the mind, without having any substantial existence, are termed abstract.

**Table of Nouns.**

I. Proper,                          
{ 1. Strictly so called,   .      Hannibal.  
{ 2. In transition state,  .      a Hercules.

Nouns are                          
II. Common,                        
{ 1. Class names,  
{     sensible,              Knife.  
{     rational,            Conqueror.
{ 2. Collective names,        .      Flock.

III. Abstract,                     
{ 1. Names of qualities,        .      Goodness.

**THE ADJECTIVE.**

An Adjective is a word added to a noun, in order to mark or distinguish it more accurately.

Explanation.—The common noun, as we have shown, applies to every thing of the same class or kind. Amongst the individual objects, however, which such a name denotes, there will be numerous differences as well as a general resemblance. If, then, we put a mark or sign to denote some difference between one object and another of the same kind, such a mark or sign performs the
office of an Adjective. Thus, taking the common noun dog to denote the whole canine race, we next observe that there are many kinds of dogs; some large, some small, some white, some black, &c. To express these differences we employ a particular class of words. These words are Adjectives.

But we may require to distinguish a thing, moreover, not only in relation to its kind or quality; we may also require to distinguish it in reference to quantity. Thus taking the word corn, I may require to express that the word, as I now use it, means a great deal of corn, or a very little of it. To do this we employ adjectives of quantity.

Or we may require, thirdly, to distinguish a thing still more generally—i.e. merely to point it out from the rest of its kind. To do this we must employ distinguishing adjectives, as, this, that, etc.

Thus, in whatever way we wish to mark or distinguish a thing we can only do so by joining some distinguishing word—i.e. some adjective to the name. According to these explanations,

Adjectives may be divided into three classes—

I. Adjectives denoting quality.

By the quality of a thing, we mean any distinguishing feature which it possesses, as, a large house, a good man.

Various kinds of qualities may be enumerated. Thus we have—

1. Qualities which come directly under the cognizance of the senses; as, white snow, flowing water.

2. Qualities which we can affirm of any thing only as compared with other things; as, a large book, a short cord. Large and short are here comparative terms.

3. Qualities which express a relation that any given object holds to ourselves or others, as, a monthly journal, a consolatory letter.*

II. Adjectives denoting quantity.

Under the word quantity we include all numeral adjectives, as well as those which denote magnitude as applied to materials; as, much corn, little water.

If adjectives of magnitude refer to distinct individuals; as, great lion, small child, they indicate quality rather than quantity.

Among adjectives denoting quantity we may distinguish four classes—

1. Definite numeral adjectives, i.e. those which denote some exact number; as, twenty men.

Numbers are either cardinal or ordinal.

Cardinal numbers denote how many; as, one, two, three, fifty, &c.

* It may be remarked generally concerning the adjective, that its signification is not so definite as that of the noun, but only becomes so by its union with the object we wish it to qualify. Thus we may speak of clear water, a clear head, a clear stage, a clear table, &c., in which cases the signification of the word clear is determined, to a large extent, by the word which it qualifies.
Ordinal numbers denote the place which anything holds in a series; as, first, second, third, &c.
Among definite numerals we may also class none and both.

2. Indefinite numeral adjectives, or those which do not denote any exact number; as, some men.

The principal of these are—All, any, some, many, few, other, another, several, certain, diverse.

3. Distributive numeral adjectives, or those which point out a number of objects individually; as, every boy.

The principal of these are—Each, every, either, neither.

4. Adjectives denoting quantity as applied to materials; as, some hay.

The principal of these are—Much, little, some, any.

III. Distinguishing adjectives; as, the man, this house.

The least definite kind of distinction is when we simply point out indifferently any one of a class. This is done by a or an (a before a consonant, an before a vowel).

If we want to point out some particular thing of which we are thinking and speaking, we usually employ the word th.

Thirdly, If we want to point out something actually present, we employ the words this or that.*

Remarks.—1. The participial forms of the verb are often employed as adjectives; as, a growing boy, a hunted hare.
2. One noun standing before another is often employed as an adjective; as, an iron door, a hospital nurse.
3. Adjectives are often used elliptically as nouns. Thus we can say, I have a few. He has many. John has none. We require both. Ordinary qualitative adjectives are also changed into nouns by prefixing the definite article; as, The wise are happy. The wicked are not so.

Table of Adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>1. Sensible,</th>
<th>White.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Comparative,</td>
<td>Long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Relational,</td>
<td>Pleasant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>1. Definite numeral adjective,</td>
<td>Twenty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Indefinite numeral adjective,</td>
<td>Some.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Distributive numeral adjective,</td>
<td>Each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Quantity as applied to measure,</td>
<td>Much.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Distinction,

\[
\{ A, \text{ the.} \}
\{ This. \}
\{ That. \}
\]

* A and an have been usually termed the indefinite article and the definite article. A or an is the same word originally as one, and the is an abbreviation of that. Hence their etymology as well as their use show them to be really adjectives.
THE PRONOUN.

A PRONOUN is a word that is used instead of a noun; as, John is not here, he went home yesterday.

The principal use of the pronoun is to prevent the frequent repetition of the noun in the same sentence.

Pronouns are either simple or compound.

Simple Pronouns may be classified under the following three heads: 1. Personal; 2. Relative; 3. Interrogative.

I. Personal Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns are simple substitutes for the names of persons and things.

The whole of the Personal Pronouns in their simple form may be thus represented—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular, .....</th>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
<th>Indef.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>He, she, it,</td>
<td>One.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural, .......</td>
<td>We</td>
<td>Ye or you</td>
<td>They</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I, thou, he, she, we, ye or you, and one, are always used as substitutes for the names of persons. They may be used either for the names of persons or things. It is only used for things.

If a pronoun is used to denote the person or persons speaking, it is said to be of the first person; if used to denote the person or persons spoken to, it is said to be of the second person; if used to denote the person or persons spoken of, it is said to be of the third person. Thus, I and we are of the first person; thou, ye, and you, of the second; he, she, it, and they, of the third. One is used indefinitely for any person.

Every personal pronoun has what is called a possessive pronoun answering to it, which is joined to a noun in the same way as an adjective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessive, .....</th>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
<th>Indef.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal, .....</td>
<td>I, we,</td>
<td>Thou, Ye or you,</td>
<td>He, she, it, they,</td>
<td>One.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My, our,</td>
<td>Thy, Your,</td>
<td>His, her, its, their,</td>
<td>One's.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark.—The original form of the possessive pronouns my and thy was mine and thine (as in the German mein, dein). The shorter forms my and thy
were afterwards adopted, and are now always used before the noun. *Mine and thine, like yours, hers, theirs, ours, are now used after the verb, with the noun omitted; as, This is mine, thine, hers, yours, theirs, ours.

These, we shall show hereafter, are simply a particular form of the possessive case of the personal pronouns.

The word *one, when used as in the phrase, *One hardly knows how, *is a kind of indefinite personal pronoun. It is quite distinct from the numeral adjective *one, being derived from the French *un.

The adjective *one is used also as a pronoun both singular and plural, in expressions like the following:—This is a good *one, and those are bad *ones.

II. Relative Pronouns.

Relative Pronouns are those which, in addition to being substitutes for the names of persons or things, also join and relate one sentence to another; as, I have seen the house, which you inhabit.

These pronouns are called Relative because they relate to something which has gone before in the sentence, and bring it back in order to be the subject of some further remark. The word to which they relate is called the antecedent.

There are, properly speaking, three relative pronouns in the English language—*who, which, and that.

*Who is used when the antecedent is a person, and *which when the antecedent is a thing. *That is used frequently in the place of both, and prevents their too frequent repetition.

*That cannot be used for *who in every case. If the antecedent be a proper noun, or even a common noun perfectly defined, it is inadmissible. We cannot say, *My son *that sailed yesterday; or, *John that came home at 12 o'clock. Wherever *that is employed, the relative clause must be, to some extent, explanatory.

*What* was originally a simple relative of the neuter gender, but is now only used for *that which, thus combining both antecedent and relative in itself. Hence it is sometimes called the Compound Relative.

Besides these, the particle *as is employed with the force of a relative pronoun, but must always have some correlative word like *such, *so many, *the same, &c., as its antecedent, as, *such stuff as dreams are made of; he took *as many as he could carry.

III. Interrogative Pronouns.

Interrogative pronouns are those which are used in asking questions; as,

*Who told you?*  
*Which do you choose?*  
*What do you want?*

This is probably an elliptical expression, the original phrase being of this kind—

*Mention to me the person, who told you.*  
*Tell me, what you want.*

Hence the interrogative pronouns have taken the same form as the relative.
THE PRONOUN.

Who is used when you expect the answer to be a person; what is used when you expect the answer to be a thing; which is used interrogatively both for persons and things, when the answer is required to point out anything definitely.

Who told you? means what person told you?
What have you found? means what thing have you found?
Which did you like best? means which individual person or thing do you point out as having the preference?

Compound Pronouns.

The expressions Self, Own, and Ever, are frequently added to several of the other pronouns, and thus give rise to various compound forms.

Self, with its plural selves, is united to all the personal pronouns to make the person of the pronouns more emphatic; as, myself, ourselves, himself, itself, one's-self, &c.

It should be observed that self is always joined to the possessive case of the first and second personal pronouns, and to the objective case of the third. Thus we say, myself and thyself; but himself and themselves.

Remark.—Self and selves may also be used substantively with the possessive case of a noun; as, A man's self. This is, however, a comparatively modern usage.

The word Own is a purely possessive form, being only united to possessive pronouns, and always giving them a more emphatic possessive meaning; as, my own, your own, his own, their own, &c.

Ever is only united to the relative pronouns, and gives them a more wide and universal signification; as, whoever, whatever.

One is also used in combination with any, every, some, no, &c., as an indefinite personal pronoun; as, any one, some one, no one, &c.

Remarks.—The demonstrative adjectives, this and that; the indefinite adjectives, some, any; and the distributive adjectives, either, neither, are frequently used as pronouns; as,

This is the best. That is the worst.
Some were left, but I did not take any.
Either will do, but I require neither.

When so used, they are sometimes termed demonstrative, indefinite, and distributive pronouns.*

* None of these words are originally pronominal in their nature, but only become so by usage. There is no more reason that they should be classified under the head of pronouns than there would be to classify any other adjectives under the head of nouns; because we can use expressions like this, The wise are happy.
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Closely allied to the relative and the demonstrative pronouns are the expressions whereby, where to, wheret to, &c., which are equivalent to by which, to which, at which, &c. These are, however, now generally classified amongst the adverbs and conjunctions.

Table of Pronouns.

1st Pers. I, we.

3d Pers. He, she, it, they.

Indefinite, one.

I. Personal.

II. Relative.

Who,

Which,

That.

Who?

What?

Which?

A. Simple.

III. Interrogative.

Myself,

Thyself,

One's-self, &c.

My own,

Thy own,

One's own, &c.

B. Compound.

I. Personal.

II. Possessive.

What,

Whoever,

Whatever.

III. Relative.

THE VERB.

The Verb is a word by means of which we affrm—1. What anything does; 2. What is done to it; or, 3. In what state it exists; as, the cow eats; the child is hurt; the girl sleeps.

Explanation.—The fundamental and essential idea of the Verb is that of telling or asserting. Hence it forms the middle point or pivot of every sentence. The simplest form of assertion is seen in the verb to be, which possesses merely the assertive power, without containing in it any other notion. Thus in the sentence, Man is mortal, the two notions brought together are man and mortal, while the verb 'is' simply connects them, so that one is affirmed of the other.

All verbs may be divided into two great classes: First, those which imply an action passing over to some object, called Transitive Verbs; Secondly, those which imply some state or action, in which no object is involved, called Intransitive.
I. Transitive Verbs.

When the action expressed by the verb does not terminate in the agent, but requires, for its complete explanation, that the object should be stated, the verb is called Transitive; as, David killed [Goliad].

As transitive verbs express actions, there must always be joined to them the name of some person or thing, that does or suffers the action. This is called the subject of the verb; as, The wind broke the tree.

1. When we wish to make the agent, together with the action he performs, the prominent idea, we employ what is termed the Active Voice; as, William defeated Harold.

2. But when we wish to make the object, and the manner in which it is affected, the prominent ideas, we employ what is termed the Passive Voice; as, Harold was defeated by William.

Thus, when the subject of the verb is the doer of the action, the verb is active; but when the subject of the verb is the object acted upon, the verb is passive.

3. But thirdly, there is another way of employing the transitive verb, in which we do not express precisely the doing of an action by an agent, nor the suffering of an action by an object, but a middle idea between the two. This, therefore, we may term the Middle Voice.

e. g. 1. John moves the table, Active.
     2. The table is moved by John, Passive.
     3. The table moves, Middle.

In the same way we say, Honey tastes sweet; this sentence does not read well; this horse drives badly in harness; the church opens at 11 o'clock; my new house is building, &c.

Observation.—The ordinary neuter verb, such as, I sleep, would come under the head of Middle Voice, so far as it expresses a relation of agent and object intermediate between the active and the passive verb; but the term Middle Voice should not be applied to any verb which has not also an active and a passive form. Neuter verbs, implying simply states of being, are more naturally arranged in another place.

Verbs which take two objects in the active voice, one of the person and the other of the thing, can be put into the passive voice, with the person as the subject and the thing as the object; as,

John taught Charles geography.
Charles was taught geography by John.

Here to teach-geography is treated as though it were a single verb, used first in its active, and secondly in its passive form.
II. INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

When the action of the verb is complete in itself, and does not require that any object be stated or implied, the verb is called Intransitive; as, Birds fly.

Three varieties of the intransitive verb may be enumerated:—

1. Those which imply an active state; as, Horses run.
2. Those which imply an inactive state; as, The child sleeps.
3. Those which imply a change of state; as, The child wakes.

These may be termed, 1. Active intransitive verbs; 2. Neuter intransitive; 3. Inceptive.

Remark.—Many verbs are used both in a transitive and intransitive way.

Besides the two great classes of verbs already enumerated, there are two minor varieties that should be mentioned;—these are Impersonal Verbs and Auxiliaries.

1. An Impersonal Verb is one in which the subject is altogether wanting, and its place supplied by the neuter pronoun it; as, It snows, it strikes me, &c.

2. An Auxiliary Verb is one which aids in forming the voices, moods, or tenses of other principal verbs; as, Dogs have barked, will bark, can bark, &c.*

Remarks.—Verbs can easily be detected by the young scholar, by his putting I, thou, or he before the word, and seeing thus whether it can express an action which any one might do or suffer, or a state of being in which anything might exist.

The participial forms in ing and ed, and the infinitive preceded by to, must be excepted from the explanation of the verb as being a word that conveys an assertion. The two former are simply verbs used like an adjective, and the latter is the verb used as a noun. Thus we say, A loving child; a loved parent; to love our enemies is a Christian duty.

Table of Verbs.

Verbs are

I. Transitive,  
   1. Active Voice, I move (something).  
   3. Middle Voice, I move.  

II. Intransitive,  
   1. Active Intransitive, I run.  
   3. Inpective, . . . I wake.

* Of these we shall treat more particularly in the second chapter of Etymology.
THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word which is used to qualify any attribute; as, Cæsar wrote well, he was also very prudent.

Explanation.—All our notions, as expressed in words, may be divided into two main classes:—1. Notions of things themselves (whether concrete or abstract); and, 2. Notions of qualities or actions which we attribute to them.

When we express our notion of a thing, we employ the noun; when we attribute any action or quality to the noun, we employ the verb or the adjective. Every sentence must consist fundamentally of these two portions,—the noun and the attribute; the noun expressing the thing which we speak about, the attribute expressing what we have to say or affirm respecting it.

Just in the same way as we qualify the noun or name by placing an adjective by the side of it, so we qualify any word that expresses an attribute by connecting an adverb with it. Moreover, as the adverb itself expresses an attribute of the verb or adjective, we may use one adverb to qualify another.

Accordingly, the adverb qualifies three parts of speech,—

1. The adjective, i.e. The simple attribute.
2. The verb, i.e. The attribute with assertion combined.
3. The adverb, i.e. The attribute of another attribute.

The principal noun in the sentence is always the subject of the verb; and the principal attribute to that noun is always involved in the predicate. Hence, (1) The chief use of the adverb is to qualify the principal verb in a sentence, and, through that, to modify the sentence itself. (2) The next use of the adverb is to qualify a primary or a secondary attribute (adjective and adverb) independently of any assertion.

With regard to the first of these uses, we may modify a sentence by showing

The time when the thing occurred;
The place where;
The manner how;
The certainty, uncertainty, or probability of it, &c.

With regard to the second of the above-mentioned uses, we may also modify a primary or secondary attribute, in relation to its quality or quantity; as, It is twice blessed; he acted very boldly. Accordingly,

Adverbs may be divided into the following five classes:—

I. Adverbs of Time.
1. Point of time; as, Then, now, formerly, presently, afterwards, immediately, soon, already, before, after, to-day, yesterday, to-morrow, betimes, ago, next.
2. Duration of time; as, Always, ever, never, long, continuously, awhile.
3. Repetition; as, Often, seldom, again, sometimes, generally, anew, afresh, anon, mostly.

II. Adverbs of Place (more properly Space).
1. Rest in a place; as, There, here, everywhere, nowhere, above, below, within, without, behind, before, in, out, yonder.
2. Motion to or from; as, To, fro, forth, off, away, into, unto, hence, thence, kither, thither, upward, downward, around, backwards, sideways, forwards, far, near, wide.

Observe.—Many of the abstract adverbs can be used either to imply rest or motion, according to the verb with which they are joined; as, Up, down, on, through, over, under, yonder, off, &c. We can say equally, He is down, or, He went down.

III. Adverbs of Quality.

1. Manner; as, Thus, so, well, wisely, quickly, &c.
This forms by far the largest class of adverbs, including nearly all those derived from adjectives, and ending in ly; as, firmly, strongly, boldly, &c.

2. Degree; as, Very, nearly, almost, scarcely, only, quite, altogether, more, most, the more, the less, exceedingly, eminently, &c.

IV. Adverbs of Quantity.

1. Measure; as, Much, little, enough, somewhat, partly, entirely, half.

2. Number and order; as, Once, twice, twofold, threelfold, firstly, secondly, finally, lastly.*

V. Adverbs of Mood.

1. Affirmation; as, Yes, certainly, truly, surely, absolutely.

2. Negation; as, No, not, by no means, not at all.

3. Probability and doubt; as, Perhaps, probably, perchance, likely, im probably.†

Observations.—(1.) Why, whereby, when, where, and all similar words, which contain the force of the relative, are more properly reckoned amongst the Conjunctions, inasmuch as they are used to connect sentences. When, however, they are employed interrogatively, they come more accurately under the head of Adverbs; as, When will you come? Why did he go?

(2.) There is also a vast number of compound phrases which have the force of adverbs in the English language. The following are examples:—At best, at present, at random, by and by, in future, now and then, of course, of necessity, at once, &c. These may all be classified under some of the preceding heads.

(3.) The adverb may generally be known by the fact of its being movable to any part of the sentence in which it occurs. We can say with equal propriety, He went home then, He then went home, and, Then he went home. The only case in which the adverb is not movable, is when it qualifies an adjective or another adverb, and then it is easily known by its connexion with the word which it qualifies.

* Measure might here be called continuous quantity, and number discrete quantity.
† The adverbs relating to time, place, manner, and probability, relate to facts, and therefore can be used, for the most part, only with the verb; those that relate to degree and to quantity, apply more especially to simple attributes, and are therefore used more especially with adjectives or adverbs.
The Preposition is a word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence.

Sometimes the preposition shows the relation of one substantive to another; as, The wisdom of Solomon is renowned. Sometimes it shows the relation of some person or thing to a given action; as, He fell against the wall. Sometimes it shows the relation of a substantive to some quality; as, Bread is good for food.

These facts may be thus expressed—

Prepositions relate nouns or pronouns to other nouns or pronouns, to verbs, or to adjectives.

As all language begins with expressions for the different objects of sense, so the primary use of the preposition was to indicate simpler relations between material objects; as, On the table, in the room. Hence,

1. The primary and most original class of prepositions are those which express simple relations of place; such as—

   1. Place where a thing is (rest in); as, In, on, at, by.
   2. Direction to or from a place (motion); as, To, into, unto, towards, up, down, from.
   3. Both place and direction (rest and motion); as, Over, under, through, before, behind, between, amongst, upon, near, off, across, beyond, abaft, above, athwart, near.

We can say equally well, It is over the door; and, He went over the hill; and so of the others mentioned above.
II. Many of the prepositions expressing relations of place, have come to be employed to indicate relations of time.

Thus, besides saying in the house, we can also say in the morning.

1. The following are examples of prepositions which have become thus employed:—In, at, before, after, between, by, within, about, off.

2. The only prepositions which are applied to time merely are Since, till, until, during, pending.

III. The next step in the development of the preposition was to employ those which expressed relations of place to indicate the agent and instrument of an action.

Thus, as well as saying, The mill is by the river, we can also say, The mill is turned by the river.

1. The prepositions used in this sense are, By, through, and with.

2. Various compound prepositional phrases are used to express the same idea; e.g. By means of, by virtue of.

IV. A fourth relation is expressed when we employ prepositions to denote the cause or purpose of an action; thus, as well as saying, He went from home, we can also say, He did it from gratitude.

Most of the prepositions used to denote cause and purpose are compound forms; as, on account of, for the sake of, out of, &c.

V. Prepositions having once come into general use, became gradually multiplied and extended, so as to include a great variety of relations not easily classified.

Amongst these we may include the ideas of—

1. Separation and exclusion, expressed by Without, except.

2. Inclination, For.

3. Aversion, Against.


5. Possession, quality, material. Of.

6. Reference to, Touching, concerning, about.

7. Opposition, Against.

&c. &c.

Remark.—Prepositions ending in ‘ing,’ as, touching, pending, concerning, &c., are not originally prepositional in their meaning, but rather participial. They have gradually become, however, purely prepositional in their meaning, and may be so regarded in parsing.

Many other relations are expressed by compound prepositional forms; such as, in place of, in defiance of, in regard to, agreeably to,
owing to, apart from, &c. Each of these expressions, it will be seen, contains but one relational idea.

Many prepositions, also, are simply used to aid the signification of the verb, without having any distinctive relational idea of their own; as, He laughed at me; he despaired of it.

*Remark.*—Prepositions may always be known by observing that they are attached to a noun, and cannot be removed from one part of the sentence to another except in connexion with the noun to which they belong.

**Table of Prepositions.**

1. Place
   - Rest in, . . . . . . . . . . . In.
   - Motion to or from, . . . . To, from.
   - Both rest and motion, . . . . Over.
   - Time as well as place, . . . . At.
   - Time only, . . . . . . . . . Till.

2. Time
   - Separation, . . . . . . . . . Without.
   - Inclination, . . . . . . . . . For.
   - Aversion, . . . . . . . . . Against.
   - Substitution, . . . . . . . . Instead of.
   - Possession, . . . . . . . . . Of.
   - Reference, . . . . . . . . . Touching.
   - Opposition, . . . . . . . . . Against.

**THE CONJUNCTION.**

The Conjunction is a word which is used to connect the different parts of an extended sentence; as, Napoleon abdicated because he was defeated at Waterloo, and many of his former friends had forsaken him.*

*Explanation.*—The primary use of the conjunction is to connect two affirmations together; as, John came, and Mary followed. Even when the conjunction appears only to connect two words, it really connects two sentences. Thus, in the phrase, ‘William and Mary ascended the throne,’ two distinct assertions are made, although the verb is not twice repeated.

The most frequent use of the conjunction, however, is to connect a subordinate sentence with a principal—the whole phrase forming one qualified

* Other parts of speech are connective as well as the conjunction, particularly the relative pronoun. The term conjunction, however, is applied simply to those connective particles which cannot be classified under any of the other parts of speech.
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affirmation. Thus, in the expression, 'I will go when you permit me,' the conjunction when joins the second or subordinate sentence to the first, and the whole expression forms one affirmation, qualified by a sentence of time. These have sometimes been called governing conjunctions; by other grammarians they have been termed continuative, because they do not divide, but continue the sense of the passage.

This latter kind of conjunction holds the same relation to the subordinate sentence which it governs, as the preposition does to its case; for just as the preposition shows a vast number of relations which a noun holds to some other word in the sentence, so also the conjunction will express the very same relations as existing between subordinate sentences and the principal. Thus we have conjunctions of Time, Place, Manner, Cause, &c., as well as prepositions,—the one governing sentences, the other nouns, as:

Caesar returned, when he had subdued Gaul (Time).
Caesar crossed the river, where he had appointed (Place).
Caesar died, because he was ambitious (Cause).
Caesar would have become emperor, if he had lived (Condition).
&c. &c. &c.

Thus, prepositions relate notions to one another; conjunctions relate sentences.

Some conjunctions, whilst they join two sentences together, unite also their meaning; as, William was ambitious, and England was enslaved.

Other conjunctions, whilst they join two sentences together, disunite their meaning, and put them in contrast with one another; as, William was ambitious, or England was enslaved.

On this distinction is founded the following classification—

Conjunctions are of two kinds,—Copulative and Disjunctive.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

A Copulative Conjunction is one which not only joins sentences together, but also unites their meaning.

There are two kinds of copulative conjunctions:—

1. Those that simply connect the meaning of two united sentences; as, Henry died, and Edward succeeded him.

2. Those that combine the meaning of the two united sentences; as, Edward reigned after his father died.

The former may be called connective, and the latter continuative conjunctions.

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

A Disjunctive Conjunction is one which, while it joins two sentences together, disconnects their meaning.

There are two kinds of disjunctive conjunctions:—

1. Those that simply disconnect or distribute the meaning of the
THE CONJUNCTION.

united sentences; as, He was here yesterday, or will come tomorrow.

2. Those that contrast the meaning of the united sentences; as, William was brave, but Henry was a coward.

The former may be called distributive, the latter adversative conjunctions.

As the conjunctions have to do chiefly with sentences, the further classification of them will be left until we have to view them in connexion with the Analysis of the Sentence.

The following Table will, in the meantime, give a list of the conjunctions most in use under their proper heads:

Table of Conjunctions.

1. Connective,
   \[ \begin{align*}
   \text{And.} \\
   \text{Also.} \\
   \text{Likewise.} \\
   \text{Moreover.} \\
   \text{Further.}
   \end{align*} \]

I. Copulative,
   \[ \begin{align*}
   \text{Before, where, that.} \\
   \text{Far, whither, except.} \\
   \text{After, whence, however.} \\
   \text{When, because, as if.} \\
   \text{Whilst, if, so that.} \\
   \text{Until, unless.} \\
   \text{Whenever, though.}
   \end{align*} \]

\[ \begin{align*}
   \text{As, although, then.}
   \end{align*} \]

1. Distributive,
   \[ \begin{align*}
   \text{Or, nor.} \\
   \text{Either, neither.} \\
   \text{But.} \\
   \text{Nevertheless.} \\
   \text{However.} \\
   \text{Still.} \\
   \text{Notwithstanding.} \\
   \text{Yet.}
   \end{align*} \]

There are also a great number of compound conjunctions or conjunctonal phrases used in the English language, of which the following may be taken as examples:

As well as, as soon as, in as far as, in as much as, after that.

Remark.—It is frequently difficult to determine whether a word used in any given sense is a conjunction or an adverb. The test by which this may be determined is the following:—If the word is movable to any other part of the sentence, it is an adverb; but if it cannot be moved from the beginning of the sentence which it introduces without destroying the sense, it must be, strictly speaking, a conjunction.
THE INTERJECTION.

• An interjection is a word which expresses any sudden wish or emotion of the mind, but no definite thought.

Explanation.—The interjection is the most primitive of all the parts of speech, and hardly comes, indeed, within the sphere of articulate language at all. Almost all animals have some peculiar sound to express any sudden feeling which they may experience. The interjection is simply such a sound as employed by man.

Interjections may express:

1. Sudden joy; as, . . . . . . Hurrah!
2. Sudden sorrow or pain; as, . . . . . . Ah! Alas!
3. Sudden approbation; as, . . . . . . Brave!
4. Sudden surprise; as, . . . . . . O! Ha! Heigh!
5. Sudden displeasure; as, . . . . . . O fie! Poor!
6. A sudden desire with respect to others, as, Hush! Hallo!

Having now gone through all the Parts of Speech, it will be necessary to show that the number is complete. This will be done by pointing out

THE PRINCIPLES OF THE ABOVE CLASSIFICATION.

The various notions of which the human mind is capable may be divided into two great classes:—

I. Notions of all the things, mental or material, real or imaginary, of which we can form any conception.

II. Notions of all the qualities, states, or actions, which we can in any way attribute to them.

Hence there are two principal classes of words corresponding to these two classes of notions:—

I. Names of things, i.e. substantives.

II. Names of actions, states, or qualities, i.e. attributives.

Under the names of things, we have two parts of speech, viz. the Noun and the Pronoun.

Under the names of attributes, we have three parts of speech, viz. the Verb, the Adjective, and the Adverb.

It is necessary, however, to express not only the different kinds of notions which we form, whether of substances or attributes, but also to indicate certain relations as existing between them.
These must be either relations which exist between one notion and another, or relations which exist between one affirmation and another.

1. If we require to express any relation between one notion and another, we employ the **Preposition**.

2. If we require to show the relation between one affirmation and another, we employ the **Conjunction**.

The only part of speech left is the **Interjection**, which is simply the expression of a sudden emotion of the mind, and does not stand in any grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence.

**Table of Parts of Speech.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. Notions</th>
<th>II. Relations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Substantives</td>
<td>1. Between one notion and another,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Between one assertion and another,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(With or without an assertion, or with a secondary attribute,</td>
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<td>Pronoun.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adjective.</td>
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I. INFLExIONS OF THE NOUN.

The Inflexions of Nouns relate—
1. To their Number; 2. To their Case; 3. To their Gender.

1. Number.

When we employ a name, we sometimes wish it to express only one of the things which the name indicates, and sometimes more than one. To mark this difference the name is inflected.

If the name means only one, it is said to be in the Singular number; if it means more than one, it is said to be in the Plural number.

General Rule for the Plural.

The Plural of Nouns is formed by the addition of s to the Singular; as, book, books.

Exceptions.—1. Nouns ending in s, x, z, sh, and the soft ch, cannot take an s for the plural, as the sounds would not easily combine. They form their plural therefore in es; as, loss, losses; box, boxes; brush, brushes; church, churches. Most nouns ending in o, preceded by a consonant, also take es; as, potato, potatoes.

2. Nouns ending in y, preceded by a consonant, change the y into ies; as, lady, ladies.

3. Most nouns in f or fe form their plural in fes; as, calf, calves; knife, knives. Some few nouns, however, particularly those ending in ff, oof, rf, such as hoof, turf, stuff, follow the general rule, and simply add s to the singular.

Exception.—Staff makes staves.

4. A few nouns of Saxon origin form their plural by changing the vowel sound of the singular. They are man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; louse, lice.

Three nouns of the same origin form their plurals in en: as, ox, oren; child, children; brother, brethren. (The modern form, brothers, is now used in ordinary conversation.)

The words swine and kine belong really to this class, though not in other respects regular. Swine comes from sow, and kine from cow.

5. Some few words have their plural the same as the singular; as, sheep, deer.
*\textbf{Inflexions of the Noun.}\ *

\textit{Fish, fowl, and some other singular forms of the same kind, are used as plurals when a quantity is expressed; but fishes, fowls, &c., when we wish to imply number. In the same way, we often employ pence and pennies as two plural forms of the word penny,—one collectively, the other distributively.}*

\textit{Foreign Plurals.}—1. Pure Latin nouns, adopted into our language, generally retain their Latin endings.

Nouns in \textit{um} form the plural in \textit{a}; as, focus, soci.

Nouns in \textit{a} form the plural in \textit{a}; as, datum, data.

Nouns in \textit{es} form the plural in \textit{es}; as, nebula, nebulae.

Nouns in \textit{ex} (neuter gender) form the plural in \textit{a}; as, vertex, vortices.

Nouns in \textit{us} (neuter gender) form the plural in \textit{a}; as, genus, genera.

2. Pure Greek nouns adopted into our language retain the Greek endings in the plural. Thus,

Nouns in \textit{a} form the plural in \textit{es}; as, crisis, crises.

Nouns in \textit{on} form the plural in \textit{a}; as, phenomenon, phenomena.

3. Some words adopted from modern languages retain their original plurals. Thus,

1. \textit{Ess} (French) takes \textit{aux}; as, beau, beaux.

2. \textit{c} and \textit{a} (Italian) are used with different affixes, according to the meaning; as, dilettante, dilettanti; virtuoso, virtuosi.


\textit{Remark.}—There are a few nouns in English which have no singular, as those derived from the Greek plural adjective; viz., Physics, Metaphysics, Politics; also, riches, alms, and news. Though the last noun requires a singular verb after it.

\section*{2. Case.}

We often require not only to name things, but to show their relations to other things as well. In many languages this is usually done by putting a certain inflexion at the end of the noun. The noun is then said to be in a certain case, and the inflexion is called a case-ending.

There are three cases in English; the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

The noun, in its simple form, is commonly said to be in the nominative or in the objective case, according as it stands differently related to the verb, or to a preposition in a sentence. As there is here, however, no change of inflexion, we shall treat further of this subject in its proper place, under the 'Structure of Sentences.'

*The following words are frequently used in the plural sense, without any plural termination, when a number is spoken of:—cannon, head, horse, foot pound, sail, shot, stand, stone, brace, couple, hash, dozen.*
In the English language, most of the relations between nouns are expressed by prepositions; as, by the church, in the field. The only relation which is indicated by a distinct inflexion at the end of the noun is that of possession; as, William's house. Hence it is usually called the Possessive case.

General Rule for Possessive Case.

The Possessive Case singular is formed by writing an apostrophe and an s after the singular noun; as, neighbour, poss. neighbour's. The possessive plural is formed by simply writing the apostrophe after the plural noun; as, neighbours, poss. neighbours'. When, however, the plural does not terminate in s, the apostrophe and the s after it must be both retained; as, men, men's.

Exceptions.—1. Where the singular ends in es, sounded as a distinct syllable, the apostrophe only is used; as, Socrates' wife.

2. Words ending in ss, x, us, and ce, frequently form the possessive singular by simply adding the apostrophe, particularly when used with the term 'for the sake'; as, For goodness' sake, for Jesus' sake, for conscience' sake. This is to prevent the recurrence of the hissing sound.

Remark 1. The apostrophe shows that a vowel has been left out. The Anglo-Saxon possessive ended in es.

2. The possessive case can be equally well expressed by the preposition 'of'. My father's house—'the house of my father.'

3. Gender.

In the English language, gender relates only to those nouns which indicate living creatures. All the names of animals of the male kind are of the masculine, all the names of animals of the female kind are of the feminine gender. All other names are said to be neuter, i.e. neither masculine nor feminine.

There are two inflexions which are used to distinguish the feminine gender from the masculine. The more frequent is the affix ess; as, lion, lioness. The less frequent is the affix ine; as, hero, heroine. All other modes of distinguishing gender arise from the employment of separate words; as, cock, hen; he-goat, she-goat.

Remark.—Feminines in ess and ine have come into the English through the French. The Anglo-Saxon language employed different words to mark the gender.
Some nouns are used both for the male and female; such as 
*conson*, *parent*, *bird*, &c. These are usually termed *common* as to gender.

**TABLE OF NOUNS WHICH HAVE A SEPARATE WORD FOR THE
MALE AND FEMALE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear</td>
<td>Sow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>Girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridegroom</td>
<td>Bride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>Sister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duck</td>
<td>Doe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bull</td>
<td>Cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock</td>
<td>Hen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>Bitch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drake</td>
<td>Duck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earl</td>
<td>Countess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gander</td>
<td>Goose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gentleman</td>
<td>Lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hart</td>
<td>Roe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td>Mare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>Wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King</td>
<td>Queen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lord (as a title)</td>
<td>Lady</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>Woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monk</td>
<td>Nun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nephew</td>
<td>Niece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ram</td>
<td>Ewe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Daughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stag</td>
<td>Hind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncle</td>
<td>Aunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wizard</td>
<td>Witch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Words originally Latin, ending in *-o*, take the Latin form of the feminine in

in *-a*; as, *testator*, *testatrix*; *executor*, *executoria*.

**Remark.** Abstract qualities and names of countries are not unfrequently

poetically regarded as feminine; as, *Her ways are ways of pleasantness*;

England *extends her power over the globe.***

### II. INFLEXIONS OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Adjectives express the qualities of nouns. The only variation we

need to indicate in regard to qualities, is the *degree* in which they are
to be attributed to the noun in question. If I speak of a thing as

being *white*, I may attribute this quality to it *generally*, or I may

speak of it as being *more* white than certain other things, or the *most*

white of all the objects about which we are speaking. Hence—

There are in adjectives of quality three degrees of comparison—the

Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

**General Rule for Inflexions of Adjectives.**

The *positive degree* is the adjective in its simple state; the com-

parative is formed by adding *er*; and the superlative by adding *est*; as,

*strong*, *stronger*, *strongest*.

*Exceptions.*—1. No adjectives, except those which denote *quality*
or *quantity*, can have any degrees of comparison.

2. If an adjective denoting quality or quantity consists of more

than one syllable, it is generally compared by prefixing *more* for the
comparative, and most for the superlative; as, more beautiful, most beautiful. A few adjectives also add most to the end of the word, as a kind of superlative affix; as, upper, uppermost.

Remark.—If adjectives of two syllables end in y, or, or ble, they are compared by inflexion, as holy, holier; tender, tenderer; noble, nobler.

3. The following words are compared irregularly:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single Form</th>
<th>Better Form</th>
<th>Superlative Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bad, ill, evil</td>
<td>Worse, Better,</td>
<td>Worst, Farthest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>Former, Best.</td>
<td>Foremost or First, Best.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fore</td>
<td>Later or Latter,</td>
<td>Latest or Last.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Less, More,</td>
<td>Least, Most.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late</td>
<td>Neater, Older,</td>
<td>Nearest or Next, Oldest or Eldest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many, much</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near, Old</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Inflexions of the Pronoun.

The Pronoun, like the Noun for which it stands, is inflected in reference to Number, Case, and Gender.

1. Number.

In reference to Number, the personal pronouns, in place of using an inflexion, change the whole form of the word; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plural.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>We.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>Ye or you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He, she, it</td>
<td>They.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Case.

In reference to Case, the personal pronouns are more fully inflected than the nouns.

In addition to the possessive, all of them (except it, you, and one) have a particular form for the objective case likewise; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Obj.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou</td>
<td>Thee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>Him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She</td>
<td>Her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>Us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ye</td>
<td>You.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>Them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INFLEXIONS OF THE PRONOUN.

Remark.—*Ye* is not exclusively nominative. It is used by many old writers in the objective case. In the Bible we have *Comfort ye, Comfort ye, my people*; where *ye* is equivalent to *yourselves*.

2. *I, thou, she, we, you, and they* have two forms of the possessive case; one to be used when placed before a noun, and the other to be used when standing alone; thus we say,

my *|* mine.
thy *|* thine.
This is her house. But, This house is hers.
your *|* yours.
their *|* theirs.

Remark.—Both adjectives and possessive cases can ordinarily be used either before nouns or standing alone after the verb with equal correctness; thus we can say, either

This is a good house; or, This house is good.
This is John’s house; or, This house is John’s.

Hence it is indifferent whether we term *my, mine, thy, thine, &c.* a possessive pronoun, or a pronoun in the possessive case, as it answers equally well to either description.

The complete table of personal pronouns stands as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I, Thou, He, She, It, One,</td>
<td>my mine,</td>
<td>me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thy thing</td>
<td>thee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>his</td>
<td>him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>her hers</td>
<td>her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>its</td>
<td>it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>one’s</td>
<td>one.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We, Ye or you, They,</td>
<td>our ours</td>
<td>us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>your yours</td>
<td>you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their theirs</td>
<td>them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relative pronoun *who* undergoes inflexions in the singular number, similar to those of the personal, but makes no change in the plural:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. and Blu. Who, whose, whom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which, *what*, and *that* undergo no case-inflexions.
ETYMOLOGY.

Gender.

The third personal pronoun singular, and the relative, are the only ones which make any distinction of gender. Thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3rd Pers.</th>
<th>Rel.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mas.</td>
<td>He, his, him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fem.</td>
<td>She, hers, her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neut.</td>
<td>It, its, it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who, whom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Which.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. INFLEXIONS OF THE VERB.

The Verb is used, for the most part, to affirm some kind of action. Actions may be viewed under a great variety of conditions, in reference to the person who performs them, the time at which they occur, &c. Hence there is a very great number of relations we require to express in connexion with them.

On this account it is that the verb, in almost all languages, has by far the greatest variety of inflexions of all the different parts of speech.

The relations of the verb may be classified under the Voice, the Mood, the Tense, the Person, and the Number.

Voice.

If we consider an action, on the one hand, as expressing what anything does; or, on the other hand, as expressing what is done to it, we indicate these differences by the use of the active and passive voice; as, I love (active); I am loved (passive).

There are in English no inflexions which indicate the passive voice. The different shades of meaning here required are all expressed by auxiliaries, as will be seen hereafter.

There is, also, as we have shown, a kind of middle voice used in English. Thus, in addition to the expressions, I move the table (active); and the table is moved by me (passive); we can only say the table moves. To indicate this voice, however, there are no distinct forms, as in the Greek language.

Mood.

If we regard the mode or manner in which an action presents itself to our understanding, we may consider it either as an actual reality, or as a possibility, or as a command, or as a wish, or generally as an
action wholly undefined. The expression of these different circumstances gives rise to what are called the moods.

The simple affirmation of a fact is called the Indicative mood; as, He goes.

If a condition or uncertainty has to be expressed, we employ what is called the Conditional or Subjunctive mood; as, If he go.

When a command is expressed, we use the Imperative mood, Go.

When the power to do an action is expressed, we use the Potential mood, I can go.

If we express the action generally without any limitation of the idea, we use the Infinitive mood, To go; which, as we before remarked, is simply using the verb as though it were a noun.

In addition to these, there are the participles, or participial moods ending in ing and ed, which are simply two forms of the verb used like an adjective, as a loving parent, a bruised reed.

The participial form in ing has also a peculiar use in English answering to the Latin gerund. Thus, He is to be blamed for breaking it. In giving way we did wrong. He was tried for stealing a horse.

Remark.—The English verb is extremely wanting in inflexions to indicate the moods. The indicative mood of the regular verb, in fact, is the only one which has inflexions peculiar to itself. By means of auxiliaries, however, we can express all the varieties of mood with remarkable accuracy, as will be shown hereafter.

Tense.

If we take into consideration the time at which the action is performed, and duly express it, this gives rise to the employment of what are called Tenses, which help us to point out any action as being either present, past, or future; as, I love, I loved, I will love.

The English language is very rich in auxiliaries, and by their means can express more shades of meaning in the tense relations of the verb than probably any other existing language. Thus it has a present indefinite I love, a present progressive I am loving, and a present complete I have loved. In the same way it can express a past indefinite I loved, a past progressive I was loving, and a past complete I had loved. So again for the future, it can express a future indefinite I shall love, a future progressive I shall be loving, and a future complete I shall have loved.
ETYMOLOGY.

In addition to all this variety of tenses, we can make a number of emphatic forms by the use of the verb To do; as, I do love, I did love; and can again employ the whole system of tenses above indicated in their passive as well as in their active forms.

Person and Number.

Lastly; If we take into consideration the person to whom, or thing to which the action relates as its subject;—whether it be myself, the speaker; or you, the person spoken to; or a third person whom we are speaking of, we may indicate all these differences by certain inflexions; and show still further whether this same subject be singular or plural.

Thus, I strike, indicates that I am the doer of the action; thou strikst, that you are the doer of it. John strikes, that a person of whom we are speaking is the doer of it. The forms strik, strikst, and strikes, accordingly denote the first, second, and third person in relation to the subject of the action.

Some of the above relations are expressed by using separate words, called auxiliaries, in connexion with the participial and infinitive forms of the principal verb; as, I am loving, I have loved, I will (to) love. But many others of them are expressed by means of the inflexions we have now to point out.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

There are two forms which the inflexion of the verb assumes in the English language—a modern form (called also regular), in which the past tense and past participle end in ed or ed; and an ancient form (called also irregular), in which the past tense is formed by changing the characteristic vowel of the verb, and the past participle by a similar change, with or without the termination en.

Modern or Regular Conjugation.

\[ \text{TO LOVE.} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Pass. Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Love</td>
<td>Loved</td>
<td>Loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I love.</td>
<td>1. We love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou lovest.</td>
<td>2. Ye or you love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He loves (loveth).</td>
<td>3. They love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB.

Past Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. I loved. 1. We loved.
2. Thou lovedst. 2. Ye or you loved.
3. He loved. 3. They loved.

Imperative.—Love. Infinitive.—To love.

Participles.

Present or Incomplete.—Loving.
Past or Complete.—Loved.

Remark.—In the conditional or subjunctive mood, which is in all other respects precisely the same in its inflexions as the indicative, the est and s of the second and third person singular, are frequently left out; If thou love, if he love.

Old or Irregular Conjugation.

TO WRITE.

Write. Wrote. Written.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. I write. 1. We write.
2. Thou writest. 2. Ye or you write.
3. He writes (writeth). 3. They write.

Past Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. I wrote. 1. We wrote.
2. Thou wrotest. 2. Ye or you wrote.
3. He wrote. 3. They wrote.

Imperative.—Write. Infinitive.—To write.

Participles.

Present or Incomplete.—Writing.
Past or Complete.—Written.

All verbs in the English language are conjugated more or less according to the above forms, except two, which introduce another root into the past tense, viz. the verb to be, and the verb to go.
AUXILIARY VERBS.

To develope the full conjugation of the English verb, we must employ Auxiliaries.

An Auxiliary Verb is one which is used to assist other verbs in expressing some particular forms of Voice, Mood, or Tense.

1. Auxiliaries of Voice.

1. The verb to be, joined to the complete participle of any transitive verb, is used to form the Passive Voice. Thus, 

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Active,} & \begin{cases} I \text{ love,} \\ I \text{ loved,} \end{cases} \\
\text{Passive,} & \begin{cases} I \text{ am loved.} \\ I \text{ was loved.} \end{cases}
\end{align*}
\]

2. The verb to be, joined with the incomplete participle of any principal verb, expresses the progressive form of the Active Voice.


CONJUGATION OF VERB 'TO BE':

INDICATIVE MOOD.

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am.</td>
<td>1. We are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou art.</td>
<td>2. Ye or you are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He is.</td>
<td>3. They are.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Past Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I was.</td>
<td>1. We were.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thou wast.</td>
<td>2. Ye or you were.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. He was.</td>
<td>3. They were.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.—Be.**

**Infinitive.—To be.**

**Participles.**

Present or Incomplete.—Being.

Past or Complete.—Been.
AUXILIARIES OF VOICE.

39

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Present.
If I be—If thou be—If he be.

Past.
If I were—If thou wert*—If he were.

2. Auxiliaries of Mood.

There are three Auxiliaries of Mood in the English language, all of which are defective in their conjugation—two of them having only a Present and Past Tense, and one only a Present, viz. may, can, and must.

1. May is used to express permission or desire; as, I may go (permission); may he prosper (desire). The mood which it thus forms is generally called Potential, sometimes also Optative.

CONJUGATION OF 'MAY.'

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may.
2. Thou mayest.
3. He may.

Plural.

1. We may.
2. Ye or you may.
3. They may.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might.
2. Thou mightest.
3. He might.

Plural.

1. We might.
2. Ye or you might.
3. They might.

2. Can is used to denote power; as, I can ride. It forms what is more properly called the Potential Mood.

CONJUGATION OF 'CAN.'

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I can.
2. Thou canst.
3. He can.

Plural.

1. We can.
2. Ye or you can.
3. They can.

* WERT is the only word in the English Language that is peculiar to the Conditional Mood, except in poetry, where it is sometimes used for want.
ETYMOLOGY.

Past Tense.

'Singular.'  
1. I could.  
2. Thou couldst.  
3. He could.

'Person.'  
1. We could.  
2. Ye or you could.  
3. They could.

3. Must is used to denote necessity; as, You must learn. It has no inflexion whatever, and is only used in the present tense.

'Singular.'  
1. I must.  
2. Thou must.  
3. He must.

'Person.'  
1. We must.  
2. Ye or you must.  
3. They must.

The form I am to (as, I am to inform you) is also employed as a somewhat weaker expression of necessity.

4. In addition to the above Auxiliaries of Mood, the past tenses of will and shall, namely, would and should, are sometimes used to express condition, and then form what is termed the Conditional or Subjunctive Mood; as, If you would come, I should be happy.

All the auxiliaries of mood are joined to the Infinitive Mood of the principal verb, the particle to being omitted; as, I can (to) go, I must (to) come.

3. Auxiliaries of Tense.

The three auxiliaries of tense are have, shall, and will.

1. The auxiliary verb to have is joined with the complete participle of the principal verb, and thus forms the perfect tense; as, I walk (present); I have walked (perfect).

CONJUGATION OF 'HAVE.'

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

'Singular.'  
1. I have.  
2. Thou hast.  
3. He has.

'Person.'  
1. We have.  
2. Ye or you have.  
3. They have.
Past Tense.

**Singular.**

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

**Plural.**

1. We had.
2. Ye or you had.
3. They had.

**Imperative.—Have.**

**Infinitive.—To have.**

*Participles.*

**Present.—Having.**

**Past.—Had.**

2. Shall and will are joined to the Infinitive Mood of the principal verb, to denote future time; as, *I shall come, he will remain.*

*Remark.—To express simple futurity, shall is used in the first person, and will in the second and third; as, *I shall come, thou wilt come, he will come.* Will, in the first person, generally denotes determination; as *I will come; and shall, in the second and third persons, generally denote authority: Thou shalt not kill; he shall come to-morrow.*

**Conjugation of 'Shall' and 'Will.'**

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

**Singular.**

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

**Plural.**

1. We shall or will.
2. Ye or you shall or will.
3. They shall or will.

**Past Tense.**

**Singular.**

1. I should or would.
2. Thou shouldst or wouldst.
3. He should or would.

**Plural.**

1. We should or would.
2. Ye or you should or would.
3. They should or would.

Both verbs are defective in the other moods and tenses.

*Note.—The expressions to be going, and to be about, are also used as auxiliaries of the future tense, when the action is supposed to follow immediately; as, *I am going to read; I am about to get up.*


The auxiliary verb *to do* is employed—

1. To express the emphatic form of the verb; as, *I do enjoy it, I did enjoy it, &c.*
ETYMOLOGY.

2. To complete the interrogative form of the verb. Thus, instead of saying, Go you? Went he? we always employ the form, Do you go? Did he go?

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB 'TO DO.'

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. I do. 1. We do.
2. Thou dost. 2. Ye or you do.
3. He does. 3. They do.

Past Tense.

Singular. Plural.
1. I did. 1. We did.
2. Thou didst. 2. Ye or you did.
3. He did. 3. They did.

Imperative.—Do. Infinitive.—To do.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.—Doing. Past.—Done.

5. Compound Auxiliaries.

Two or more auxiliaries may be united so as to form numerous compound verbal expressions; as, I may have loved; I should have been weeping, &c.

Whatever shade of meaning, in brief, we wish to express in relation to mood, tense, or voice, we can easily do so by combining some of the auxiliary verbs with the infinitive mood or participles of the principal verb.

Taking the simple and compound forms of the verb together, they may be conveniently reduced to the following scheme:—
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Tense</th>
<th>Simple Form</th>
<th>Progressive Form</th>
<th>Emphatic Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td>I love.</td>
<td>I am loving</td>
<td>I do love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>I loved.</td>
<td>I was loving.</td>
<td>I did love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td>I have loved.</td>
<td>I have been loving.</td>
<td>{ I will love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypérext</td>
<td>I had loved.</td>
<td>I had been loving.</td>
<td>Thou shalt love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>{ I shall love.</td>
<td>{ I shall be loving.</td>
<td>{ I will love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thou wilt love.</td>
<td>Thou shalt love.</td>
<td>I will have loved.</td>
<td>I will have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall have loved.</td>
<td>I shall have been loving.</td>
<td>Thou shalt have loved.</td>
<td>Thou shalt have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future perfect</strong></td>
<td>Thou wilt have loved.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**IMPERATIVE MOOD.**

| Present | Love (thou).
Let (him, her, them, &c.) love. | Let (him, her, &c.) be loving. | Do thou love. |

**CONDITIONAL MOOD.**

| Present | If I love, thou love, &c. | If I be loving. | If I do love. |
| Past | If I loved, thou loved, &c. | If I were loving. | If thou did love. |

*All the rest of the tenses in this mood are the same as in the Indicative, preceded by *if*, or some conditional conjunction. The auxiliary, however, sometimes drops the *st* and *s* of the indicative in the second and third persons singular, *If thou have loved*; *If he have loved.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Tense</th>
<th>Simple Form</th>
<th>Progressive Form</th>
<th>Emphatic Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>I may or can love.</td>
<td>I may or can be loving.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past and Future</td>
<td>I might, could, would, or should love.</td>
<td>I might or could be loving.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>I may or can have loved.</td>
<td>I may or can have been loving.</td>
<td>Nil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>I might, could, would, or should have loved.</td>
<td>I might or could have been loving.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**POTENTIAL MOOD.**

**INFINITIVE MOOD.**

| Present                    | To love.                              | To be loving.                                | Nil           |
| Perfect                    | To have loved.                        | To have been loving.                         |               |

**PARTICIPLES.**

| Present                    | Loving.                               | Having been loving.                          | Nil           |
| Perfect                    | Having loved.                         |                                              |               |
The Passive Voice, *To be loved*, is conjugated simply with all the moods and tenses of the verb *To be*, and the Passive Participle; as,

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Tense.</th>
<th>Simple Form.</th>
<th>Progressive Form.</th>
<th>Emphatic Form.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present.</td>
<td>I am loved.</td>
<td>I am being loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past.</td>
<td>I was loved.</td>
<td>I was being loved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect.</td>
<td>I have been loved.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect.</td>
<td>I had been loved.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future.</td>
<td>I shall be loved.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect.</td>
<td>I shall have been loved.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Progressive forms of these tenses not used.*

There is no emphatic form to the Passive Voice. Emphasis is here made by the accent being strongly marked upon the auxiliary, I am loved.

**Imperative Mood.**—Be thou loved. Let him, her, &c., be loved.

**Conditional Mood.**—If I be loved. If I were loved, &c.

**Potential Mood.**—I may be loved. I might be loved, &c.

**Infinitive Mood.**—To be loved.

**Participles.**—Loved or being loved. Having been loved.

It would be a useful exercise for the scholar to make out a complete paradigm of the verb, both active and passive, in all its moods, tenses, numbers and persons.
ETYMOLOGY.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

The Irregular Verbs may be conveniently divided into three classes.

1. Those which have only one form for the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and Complete Participle. They are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Comp. Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
<td>burst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cast</td>
<td>cast</td>
<td>cast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
<td>cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>hit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hurt</td>
<td>hurt</td>
<td>hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let</td>
<td>let</td>
<td>let</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put</td>
<td>put</td>
<td>put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
<td>rid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set</td>
<td>set</td>
<td>set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shred</td>
<td>shred</td>
<td>shred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shut</td>
<td>shut</td>
<td>shut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slit</td>
<td>slit</td>
<td>slit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Split</td>
<td>split</td>
<td>split</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweat</td>
<td>sweat</td>
<td>sweat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrust</td>
<td>thrust</td>
<td>thrust</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Those which have two distinct forms for the above-mentioned parts of the verb. They are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Comp. Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abide</td>
<td>abode</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awake</td>
<td>awaked or awoke</td>
<td>awaked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>beat</td>
<td>beaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behold</td>
<td>beheld</td>
<td>beheld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bend</td>
<td>bent</td>
<td>bent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bereave</td>
<td>bereft</td>
<td>bereft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beseech</td>
<td>besought</td>
<td>besought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>bound</td>
<td>bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bleed</td>
<td>bled</td>
<td>bled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bless</td>
<td>blessed</td>
<td>blessed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breed</td>
<td>bred</td>
<td>bred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring</td>
<td>brought</td>
<td>brought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build</td>
<td>built</td>
<td>built</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Past</td>
<td>Comp. Participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burn</td>
<td>burned or burnt</td>
<td>burnt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy</td>
<td>bought</td>
<td>bought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch</td>
<td>caught</td>
<td>caught.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cling</td>
<td>clung</td>
<td>clung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Come</td>
<td>came</td>
<td>come.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creep</td>
<td>crept</td>
<td>crept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crow</td>
<td>crew</td>
<td>crowed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curse</td>
<td>cursed or curst</td>
<td>curst.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deal</td>
<td>dealt</td>
<td>dealt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dig</td>
<td>dug</td>
<td>dug.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feed</td>
<td>fed</td>
<td>fed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel</td>
<td>felt</td>
<td>felt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fight</td>
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<td>fought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find</td>
<td>found</td>
<td>found.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flee</td>
<td>fled</td>
<td>fled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fling</td>
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<td>flung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>got</td>
<td>got.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grind</td>
<td>ground</td>
<td>ground</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hang</td>
<td>hanged or hung</td>
<td>hanged or hung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hear</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>heard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hold</td>
<td>held</td>
<td>held.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep</td>
<td>kept</td>
<td>kept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knit</td>
<td>knitted or knit</td>
<td>knitted or knit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lay</td>
<td>laid</td>
<td>laid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead</td>
<td>led</td>
<td>led.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave</td>
<td>left</td>
<td>left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lend</td>
<td>lent</td>
<td>lent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load</td>
<td>loaded</td>
<td>loaded or laden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make</td>
<td>made</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet</td>
<td>met</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay</td>
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<td>paid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Read</td>
<td>read</td>
<td>read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rend</td>
<td>rent</td>
<td>rent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>ran.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saw</td>
<td>sawed</td>
<td>sawed or sawn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Say</td>
<td>said</td>
<td>said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek</td>
<td>sought</td>
<td>sought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sell</td>
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<tr>
<td>Send</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>shone</td>
<td>shone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoe</td>
<td>shod</td>
<td>shod.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**ETYMOLOGY.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shoot</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend</td>
<td>spent</td>
<td>spent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spill</td>
<td>spilt</td>
<td>spilt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand</td>
<td>stood</td>
<td>stood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stick</td>
<td>stuck</td>
<td>stuck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sting</td>
<td>stung</td>
<td>stung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strike</td>
<td>struck</td>
<td>struck or stricken.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>String</td>
<td>strung</td>
<td>strung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swing</td>
<td>swung</td>
<td>swung.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teach</td>
<td>taught</td>
<td>taught.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell</td>
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<td>told.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Think</td>
<td>thought</td>
<td>thought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weep</td>
<td>wept</td>
<td>wept.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Win</td>
<td>won</td>
<td>won.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wind</td>
<td>wound</td>
<td>wound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wring</td>
<td>wrung</td>
<td>wrung.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Those which have three distinct forms for the above-mentioned parts of the Verb. They are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arise</td>
<td>arose</td>
<td>arisen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear, to carry</td>
<td>bore or bare</td>
<td>borne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bear, to bring forth</td>
<td>bore, bare</td>
<td>born.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Begin</td>
<td>began</td>
<td>begun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bid</td>
<td>bid, bade</td>
<td>bidden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bite</td>
<td>bit</td>
<td>bitten or bit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow</td>
<td>blew</td>
<td>blown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Break</td>
<td>broke</td>
<td>broken.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chide</td>
<td>chid</td>
<td>chidden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choose</td>
<td>chose</td>
<td>chosen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleave</td>
<td>cleft or clove</td>
<td>cleft or cloven.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothe</td>
<td>clothed</td>
<td>clad or clothed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dare, to venture</td>
<td>durst</td>
<td>dared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>did</td>
<td>done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drest</td>
<td>dressed</td>
<td>drest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>Past</td>
<td>Comp. Participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drink</td>
<td>drank</td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>drove</td>
<td>driven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eat</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>eaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall</td>
<td>fell</td>
<td>fallen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fly</td>
<td>flew</td>
<td>flown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forsake</td>
<td>forsook</td>
<td>forsaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freeze</td>
<td>froze</td>
<td>frozen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give</td>
<td>gave</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grave</td>
<td>graved</td>
<td>graven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grow</td>
<td>grew</td>
<td>grown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hew</td>
<td>hewed</td>
<td>hewn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hide</td>
<td>hid</td>
<td>hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know</td>
<td>knew</td>
<td>known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Load</td>
<td>loaded</td>
<td>loaded or laden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lie</td>
<td>lay</td>
<td>lain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mow</td>
<td>mowed</td>
<td>mown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride</td>
<td>rode</td>
<td>ridden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ring</td>
<td>rang</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rise</td>
<td>rose</td>
<td>risen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rive</td>
<td>rived</td>
<td>riven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See</td>
<td>saw</td>
<td>seen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sew</td>
<td>sewed</td>
<td>sown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shake</td>
<td>shook</td>
<td>shaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shave</td>
<td>shaved</td>
<td>shaven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shear</td>
<td>sheared</td>
<td>shorn or sheared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show</td>
<td>showed</td>
<td>shown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrink</td>
<td>shrank</td>
<td>shrunken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing</td>
<td>sang</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sink</td>
<td>sank</td>
<td>sunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slay</td>
<td>slew</td>
<td>slain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slink</td>
<td>slunk</td>
<td>slunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smite</td>
<td>smote</td>
<td>smitten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sow</td>
<td>sowed</td>
<td>sown, sowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speak</td>
<td>spoke</td>
<td>spoken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spin</td>
<td>span</td>
<td>spun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spit</td>
<td>spat</td>
<td>spit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring</td>
<td>sprang</td>
<td>sprung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steal</td>
<td>stole</td>
<td>stolen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stink</td>
<td>stank</td>
<td>stunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stride</td>
<td>strode</td>
<td>stridden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strive</td>
<td>strove</td>
<td>striven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strew or strow</td>
<td>strewe'd or strove</td>
<td>strown, strewed or strowed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ETYMOLOGY.

---|---|---
Swear | swore | sworn.
Swell | swelled | swollen or swoin.
Swim | swam | swum.
Take | took | taken.
Tear | tore | torn.
Thrive | throre | thronen.
Throw | threw | thrown.
Tread | trod | trodden.
Wax | waxed | waxen.
Wear | wore | worn.
Weave | wove | woven.
Write | wrote | written.

V. INFLEXIONS OF THE ADVERB.

The only inflexions which the Adverb undergoes, and that in comparatively few cases, are similar to those of the adjective—viz. to point out the three degrees of comparison. I run fast; he runs faster; she runs fastest.

In the majority of instances, adverbs are compared like adjectives by more and most; as, more beautifully; most beautifully.

CHAPTER III.

THE STRUCTURE OF WORDS.

1. Roots and Derivatives.

We have already given an account of the different kinds of words in the English language, and of the various inflexions they undergo; the next thing is to show the sources from which the words are derived, and to follow the processes by which they are formed.

1. A simple word, of whose origin we can give no further account, is termed a root. English roots consist of such words as father, son, love, strong, come, go, tree, and most other monosyllables which convey a simple notion or idea.

2. A simple word or root sometimes undergoes an alteration of form, either by changing the vowel sound, or by modifying the consonants. Thus, strong becomes strength; shake becomes shock;
ROOTS AND DERIVATIVES.

3. From the primary derivatives, or stems of the language, other words are formed by adding prefixes and suffixes. Thus, strength becomes strengthen; shock becomes shocking; glaze becomes glazier. These we term secondary derivatives.

4. Two or more words are sometimes joined together to express one complete idea; as, windmill, coppersmith, handicraftsman, &c. These we term compound words.

2. Sources of English Words.

1. The principal basis of the English language is the Anglo-Saxon element. Of 38,000 principal words, it is reckoned that about 28,000 spring from this source. Nearly all the simple roots and primary derivatives are of Saxon origin, and a large proportion of the secondary derivatives and compound words also.

As the Saxons combined more or less with the original Celtic population of this country, they naturally adopted a certain number of Celtic roots into their language. These roots have become, however, so assimilated to the Saxon form and pronunciation, that it is now difficult to recognise them as coming from a foreign source. In addition to the names of mountains, rivers, and localities, which are to a larger extent Celtic, we may adduce the following as instances of Celtic words which have been assimilated to the Anglo-Saxon dialect, and thus come down into the modern English:

|-------|-------|-------
| Bill. | Dainty. | Glen.
| Cobble. | Pail. | Lad.

2. The conquest of England by the Normans introduced the Norman-French into this country. As the Norman-French was one of the languages which had sprung out of the prevalence of the Latin idiom (Romance languages), its introduction prepared the way for grafting a large number of originally Latin words upon our primitive English stock. Many of these words came first of all through the French, and retain to this day the marks of their French origin; but as Latin was the learned language of Europe all through, and even beyond the Middle Ages, a still greater number of words were gradually introduced directly from the Latin by English writers who
flourished from the revival of letters down to the time of Milton. From this time the language may be considered as having become virtually settled.

Latin roots have, in scarcely any instance, been brought over in their simple form into the English language, but only in the form of secondary derivatives. Thus, we never say to port, or to mit; but we say, export, import, porter, deportment; and remit, omit, commit, commission, &c.

3. As science and philosophy were first cultivated in Europe among the Greeks, and all other people have studied them more or less under Greek masters, the terms and phrases of the Greek language became naturally introduced into the scientific language of Europe. Hence most technical terms in mathematics, physics, medicine, botany, as well as art and philosophy, have been borrowed from Greek sources. These technical terms, with a few other words which have gradually come into more common use, form the present Greek element in the English language.

4. A few words in addition have found their way into our language from the Italian, the Spanish, and even the Hebrew and Arabic; but these have rarely succeeded in becoming thoroughly naturalised as a part of our modern English.

3. Prefixes.

Most of the secondary derivatives in our language are formed by putting a syllable either before or after the root. A syllable put before the root is termed a prefix, a syllable put after the root is called an affix.

As the prefixes play a very important part in the structure of words, it will be useful here to give a list of them, classified according to the language from which they are derived.

Saxon Prefixes.

- A, signifying in or on; as, abed, abore.
- Be, forming transitive verbs out of intransitive, or adding intensity to the meaning, bestmear.
- For, signifying the contrary; as, forbid, forbear.
- Fore, before; as, foretell, forebode.
- Mid, middle; as, midway, midshipman.
- Mis, failure; as, mishap, mistake.
- N, not; as, never, nor.
- Over, above; as, overlay, overcome.
**PREFIXES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Signifying</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Out</td>
<td>signifying</td>
<td>excelling; as, outdo, outrun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Un</td>
<td></td>
<td>not; as, undo, unskilled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To</td>
<td></td>
<td>this; as, to-day, to-night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With</td>
<td></td>
<td>against or away; as, withstand, withhold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under</td>
<td></td>
<td>beneath; as, underlay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up</td>
<td></td>
<td>upwards; as, upheave, upstart.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Latin Prefixes.**

- A, ab, abs, signifying from; as, avert, abstract.
- Ad (ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at), to; as, adhere, attract.
- Am or amb, round; as, amputate.
- Ante (anti), before; as, antedate, anticipate.
- Bene, well; as, benefit.
- Bi, bis, two, twice; as, biped.
- Circum, round; as, circumvent.
- Co, con, com, col, with; as, co-operate, connect.
- Contra, against; as, contradict.
- De, down; as, descend.
- Dis, di, apart; as, dislodge, diverge.
- E, ex, ef, out; as, elect, export.
- Equi, equally; as, equidistant.
- Extra, beyond; as, extraordinary.
- In (with verb), on into; as, induct.
- In (with adjective), not; as, inelegant.
- Inter, between; as, interlude.
- Intro, within; as, introduce.
- Non, not; as, nondescript.
- Ob (obs, of, op, oc), against, or, in the way of; as, obstruct, occur.
- Per, through; as, perspire.
- Post, after; as, postpone.
- Prae, pre, before; as, pre-ordain.
- Praeter, beside, past; as, pretermit.
- Pro, forth; as, project.
- Re, back; as, remit.
- Retro, backwards; as, retrospection.
- Se, apart; as, separate.
- Sub (suf, sus, sur), under; as, subject.
- Subter, underneath; as, subterfuge.
- Super, over; as, superfluous.
- Trans, across; as, transport.
- Ultra, beyond; as, ultramontane.
Greek Prefixes.

A or an (α, αν), signifying not; as, anarchy.
Amphi (αμφι), both; as, amphibious.
Ana (ανα), up; as, anatomy.
Anti (αντι), against; as, antichristian.
Apo (απο), from; as, apostle.
Arch (αρχος), first or chief; as, archangel.
Auto (αυτος), self; as, autocrat.
Cata (κατα), down; as, catastrophe.
Dia (δια), through; as, diameter.
En (εν), in; as, enharmonic.
Epi (επι), upon; as, epitaph.
Ex (εξ), out of; as, exodus.
Eu (ευ), well; as, euphony.
Hemi (ημι), half; as, hemisphere.
Hetero (ετερος), different; as, heterogeneous.
Hyper (υπερ), over; as, hypercritical.
Hypo (υπο), under; as, hypothesis.
Meta (μετα), change; as, metamorphosis.
Para (παρα), beside; as, paradox.
Peri (περι), around; as, perimeter.
Syn, syl, sym (συν), with; as, sympathy, syllogism.

The affixes will be explained in writing of the structure of each individual part of speech.

4. Structure of the Noun.

English Nouns are either—1. Original Roots; 2. Primary Derivatives or Stems; 3. Secondary Derivatives or Branches; or, 4. Compound Words.

1. The original noun roots of the English language consist of the names of all the common objects of nature and human life around us; such as, Sun, moon, star, sea, stone, rock, hill, father, mother, sister, brother, hope, fear, love, shame, eye, ear, hand, arm, foot, lip, cow, sheep, dog, cat, &c.

These words, and others of the same kind, have descended to us through our Saxon forefathers from a period lying beyond all reach of historical research, having undergone only partial changes in spelling and pronunciation, without at all losing their fundamental character.
2. English nouns, which come under the title of primary derivatives, are also, with few exceptions, of Saxon origin. They are formed as follows:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel of the root; as, Bless, bliss; feed, food; bind, bond; knit, knog, net; sit, seat; sing, song; strike, stroke, &c.

(2.) By modifying the final consonant of the root, or adding another consonant; as, Stick, stitch; dig, ditch; heal, health; drive, drift; smite, smith; believe, belief; prove, proof.

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, live, life; lose, loss; choose, choice; weave, weft; thieve, theft, &c.

(4.) Many Saxon nouns are formed by modifying the initial consonant, more particularly by prefixing the squad to it; as, haft, shaft; loath, sloth; wet, sweat; ward, sword; thread, shred.

3. English nouns, which come under the title of secondary derivatives, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

(1.) Signifying agent or doer.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
er, & \text{as} \quad \text{sing, singer,} \\
ar, & \text{as} \quad \text{lie, liar;} \\
ard or art, & \text{as} \quad \text{drink, drunkard;} \\
ster, & \quad \text{brag, braggart.} \\
 ess, (fem.) & \text{as} \quad \text{seam, seamstress.} \\
\end{array}
\]

Derived from verbs.

(2.) Forming Diminutives.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
ling, & \text{as} \quad \text{dear, darling.} \\
kin, & \quad \text{lamb, lambkin.} \\
ock, & \quad \text{hill, hillock.} \\
let or et, & \quad \text{stream, streamlet; flower, floweret.} \\
\end{array}
\]

Derived from nouns.

(3.) Denoting abstract ideas, such as State, Condition, Action, &c.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
ship, & \text{as} \quad \text{friend, friendship.} \\
hood or head, & \quad \text{man, manhood.} \\
dom, & \quad \text{king, kingdom.} \\
ern, & \quad \text{slave, slavery.} \\
\end{array}
\]

Derived from nouns.
ETYMOLOGY.

age, as till, tillage. Derived from verbs.
ter, .. laugh, laughter. { Derived from adjectives.
lock, .. wed, wedlock.
ness, .. white, whiteness. { Derived from verbs.

(4.) Denoting Instrument.

tel, as gird, girdle. Derived from verbs.
el, .. shove, shovel. { Derived from verbs.
et, .. hack, hatchet.

B. Latin and French derivatives are formed by the following affixes:

(1.) Signifying an agent or a person generally.

tor, sor, as auditor, sponsor. From Latin nouns in tor and sor.
trix, executrix. From Latin nouns in trix.
earer, auctioneer. From French nouns ending in aire, and ier, eur.
ee, legatee. From French nouns ending in é.

(2.) Forming Diminutives.

aster, as poetaster. From Italian nouns in astro.
cule, le, animalcule. From Latin nouns in culus,-a,-um; as, animalculum, particula.
icile, particle.

(3.) Signifying abstract ideas.

ary, as commentary. From Latin words in arius; as, commentarius.
cy, .. clemency. From Latin words in tia; as, clementia.
ence, ance, .. penitence. From Latin words in antia or entia; as, pænitentia.
ice, .. justice. From Latin words in itia; as, justitia.
ion, tion, sion, .. action, passic From Latin words in io; as, actio.
ment, .. ornament. From Latin words in mens- tum; as, ornamentum.
STRUCTURE OF THE NOUN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Our,</th>
<th>as</th>
<th>Ardour.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ty, ity</td>
<td>. .</td>
<td>Dignity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tude,</td>
<td>. .</td>
<td>Multitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ture, sure,</td>
<td>. .</td>
<td>Tincture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

{From Latin words in or, through the French; as, ardur, ardeur.}

{From Latin words in tas; as, dignitas.}

{From Latin words in tado; as, multitude.}

{From Latin words in ura; as, tinctura.}

Many nouns of the above description are formed directly from verbs, by simply changing the accent, e.g., To affix, an affix; To export, an export, &c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the following affixes:—

1. **Signifying agent or person.**

- An, as musician. From Greek words in κος (kos).
- Ist, as sophist. From Greek words in ἒσ (iēs).
- Ite, as Israelite, nymic. From Greek words in ἐσ (iēs).

2. **Forming Diminutives.**

- Usk, as asterisk. From Greek αστερισκος.

3. **Signifying abstract ideas.**

- E, y, as epitome, anarchy. From Greek nouns in η (ē).
- Ism, sm, as deism. From Greek nouns in ουμος (oumos or isma).
- Ic, ics, as arithmetic. From Greek adjectives in κος, -α, -ον (kos, -a, -on).
- Ma, as panorama. From Greek nouns in μα (ma).
- Sis, as hypothesis. From Greek nouns in σις (sis).

4. **Compound nouns of Saxon origin exist largely in the present English language, and are not unfrequently coined as necessity requires; e.g. housemaid, railroad, helmsman, steamboat, cast-iron, &c.**

Compound words, derived from Latin and Greek, are borrowed in their compound form from those languages. New ones are coined only for scientific purposes.
5. Structure of the Adjective.


1. Many adjectives derived from the Saxon are roots, inasmuch as no simpler form of the word can now be assigned from which they have originally sprung. Such are, good, bad, long, short, high, thin, thick, white, black, &c.

2. English adjectives, which come under the title of primary derivatives, are also of Saxon origin.

They are formed, like the noun-stems, from verbs and nouns, or other adjectives, in the following ways:—

1.) By modifying the vowel; as, fill, full; wring, wrong; pride, proud; string, strong.

2.) By modifying or adding a consonant; as, loathe, loth; fourth.

3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, wit, wise; fifth.

4.) By adding on an initial consonant; as, hollow, shallow, light, slight, deep, steep, hoarse, coarse, rough, gruff.

3. English adjectives which come under the title of secondary derivatives, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes:—

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Saxon Derivatives</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Participle Form of Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ed,</td>
<td>wooden</td>
<td>left-handed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en,</td>
<td>southern.</td>
<td>southward.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ern,</td>
<td>southerly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erly,</td>
<td>fourfold.</td>
<td>truthful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fold,</td>
<td></td>
<td>repetition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ful,</td>
<td></td>
<td>full of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ish,</td>
<td></td>
<td>rather (diminutive and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sometimes likeness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less,</td>
<td></td>
<td>without.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like,</td>
<td></td>
<td>resemblance or fitness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ly,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
some, as winsome. \[\text{Meaning possession of some quality.}\]

ward. windward. \[\text{direction to a place.}\]

y, mighty. \[\text{The adjectival form of a noun.}\]

un (prefix), ungodly. \[\text{Meaning not.}\]

B. Latin derivatives are formed by the following:—

al, as equal. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in alis; as, equalis.}\]

an, human. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in anus; as, humanus.}\]

ant, ent, elegant, eminent. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in ans, ens; as, elegans.}\]

c (preceded by consonant), marine. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in nus (preceded by consonant); as, marinus.}\]

fic, horrific. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in ficus; as, horrificus.}\]

ferous, carboniferous. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in fer and ferus; as, pestifer or pestiferus.}\]

ible, able, visible. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in bilis; as, visibilis.}\]

iid, timid. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in idus; as, timidus.}\]

il, ilc, fertile. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in ilis; as, fertilis.}\]

ient, violent. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in oclus; as, violens.}\]

ose, ous, verbose, copious. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in osus; as, verbosus, copiosus.}\]

ple, ble, triple, double. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in plex; as, tripex.}\]

tory, sory, migratory. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in torius, sorius; as, migratorius.}\]

tive, captive. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in tivus; as, captivus.}\]

uous, arduous. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in uus; as, arduus.}\]

que (French), oblique. \[\text{From Latin adjectives in quus; as, obliquus.}\]
C. Greek derivatives are formed simply by—

\[ \text{ic}, \quad \text{as}, \quad \text{hieroglyphic.} \]  
\[ \text{From Greek adjectives m} \]
\[ \text{ical,} \quad \text{arithmetical,} \]
\[ \text{icos; as, arithmynamoc.} \]

4. Compound adjectives exist to a large extent in the English language, particularly in the participial form; as, left-handed, right-minded, blue-eyed, &c.

6. Structure of the Pronoun.

Pronouns are either,—1. Original Roots; 2. Derivatives; or, 3. Compound Words.

All of them are of Saxon origin except 'one.'

1. The pronouns which may be regarded as original roots of the English language, are, I, me, we, us, thou, ye, you, he, she, it, they, who, self.

Observation.—Of the above, he, she, it, and they, were not originally personal pronouns, but demonstrative adjectives (like the Latin hic and iller); but they are, nevertheless, original roots, which have come to be used pronominally.

2. The following pronominal forms are derivatives:—

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Thee,} & \quad \text{Objective form from thou.} \\
\text{Him,} & \quad \text{Originally a dative form from the masc. he and neut. hit of the Saxon he, heo, hit (he, she, it); now an objective masc.} \\
\text{Her,} & \quad \text{Originally a feminine dative and possessive form from the Saxon heo.} \\
\text{Them,} & \quad \text{Originally a dative form from the Saxon that.} \\
\text{My,} & \quad \text{Possessive form from me.} \\
\text{Thy,} & \quad \text{thou.} \\
\text{Our,} & \quad \text{we.} \\
\text{Your,} & \quad \text{you.} \\
\text{Their,} & \quad \text{they.} \\
\text{Mine,} & \quad \text{my.} \\
\text{Thine,} & \quad \text{thy.} \\
\text{Hers,} & \quad \text{her.} \\
\text{His,} & \quad \text{his.} \\
\text{Ours,} & \quad \text{our.} \\
\text{Yours,} & \quad \text{your.} \\
\text{Theirs,} & \quad \text{their.} \\
\text{Its,} & \quad \text{it (modern).}
\end{align*}
\]
STRUCTURE OF THE PRONOUN.

Whom, Objective form from who; originally dative.
What, Neuter form from who.
One, Derived from the French on, which is an abbreviation of homme.
One's, Possessive form of one.
Which, A compound form originally from who and like (in the Scottish dialect whilk).

3. The compound pronouns are those formed by the union of the words self and own, with various of the personal and possessive pronouns; as, myself, my own, themselves, one's-self, &c.

7. Structure of the Verb.


Compound Verbs can hardly be said to exist in the English language, consisting only of a few semi-technical forms like, hamstring, whitewash, &c.

1. All the English verbs of the old form of conjugation are of Saxon origin, and all of them form original roots of the English language.

A considerable number of other verbs, which are now conjugated according to the modern form, were once conjugated according to the ancient; as, climb, laugh, quake, &c. These are also to be regarded as original roots of the language.

2. English verbs which come under the title of primary derivatives, are, with very few exceptions, also of Saxon origin. They are formed from original nouns and verbs in the following ways:—

(1.) By modifying the vowel: as, lie, lay; sit, set; fly, flee; fall, fell, &c.

This Class is all of Saxon origin.

(2.) By modifying the last consonant, either as to form or pronunciation; as, advice, advise; bath, bathe; grease, grease; use, use, &c.

Observations.—(a) This class of verbs is formed from nouns, and they are, in some few cases, of Latin origin.
(b) The e at the end of bath, breathe, &c., is added only to modify the sound of the preceding consonant.

(3.) By modifying both vowel and consonant; as, drink, French

glass, glaze; hound, hunt; wring, wrench, &c.
(4.) By prefixing s or t; as, dun, stun; melt, smelt; whirl, twirl, &c.

*Remark.*—There is a great number of derivative verbs in English, which are formed by combining two or more of these changes. The following may be cited:—Crack, scratch; cut, scud; hop, skip; heave, shove; hoot, shout; mar, smear; tread, straddle; reach, stretch; wag, swerve; haunt, saunter.

3. English verbs which come under the title of secondary derivatives, are formed by a considerable variety of affixes.

A. Saxon derivatives are formed by the following:—

en, as 'heighten, weaken; signifying to make.

er, climb, clamber; frequentative force.

ish, burn, burnish; (various.)

le, nip, nibble; frequentative force.

y, soil, sully; to make.

*Remark.*—(1.) Many nouns and adjectives have been turned into verbs without any change whatever; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dry</th>
<th>Cool</th>
<th>Rain</th>
<th>Salt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To dry.</td>
<td>To cool.</td>
<td>To rain.</td>
<td>To salt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An increasing tendency (which ought to be resisted) to use the same word for different parts of speech is perceptible in the present day. Many such verbs have now become accepted; as, to crop a farm; to advocate a cause; to skip goods, &c. But such licenses should be very sparingly admitted.

(2.) There is a natural tendency in the Saxon element of the English language to produce a number of verbs from the same root, varying somewhat their form, to express corresponding modifications of meaning.

Thus, from clap: we have clash, clutter, clutch, cluster; from creep: crouch, crook, crawl; from drip: drop, droop, dribble, strip; from kill: quell, quail, squeal; from rip: rive, strip, strap; from tread: tramp, trample, stride, straddle.

B. Latin derivatives are formed—

(1.) From the root of the verb; as,

| Discern, | from Discernere. |
| Concur, | from Concurrere. |
| Condemn, | from Condemnare. |
| Defend, | from Defendere. |
| Inflect, | from Inflectere. |

&c. &c.

The root is got by throwing off the terminations of the infinitive: are, ere, -ere, -ere.
(2.) From the supine of the verb; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Act</th>
<th>Actum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audit</td>
<td>Auditum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Acceptum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit</td>
<td>Creditum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debit</td>
<td>Debitum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>Affectum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investig</td>
<td>Investigatum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedite</td>
<td>Expeditum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

&c.

C. Greek derivatives are formed by the termination *ise or *ize; as, *baptize (from βαπτίζω).

This termination, *ise or *ize, has been adopted to form many modern English verbs; as, to Germanize, or to Italicise, &c.

8. Structure of the Adverb.


1. The original adverbs of the English language consist of a few monosyllables derived from the Saxon; such as, now, then, there, here, oft, well, ill, not, so, thus.

Observation.—Then, there, thus, and here, have now been traced pretty clearly to genitive, accusative, and dative forms of the Saxon demonstrative pronouns.

2. Primary derivatives are formed—

(1.) From numerals; as,

*Once, twice, thrice;* from one, two, three. These were originally the ordinary genitive forms of the numerals.

(2.) From nouns; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Needs</th>
<th>Genitive of need.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whilom</td>
<td>Dative of while.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So also we say—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mornings</th>
<th>Of a morning (Ger. morgens).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evenings</td>
<td>Of an evening (Ger. abends).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mondays</td>
<td>Of a Monday.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.) From other adverbs; as,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thence, thither</th>
<th>from</th>
<th>There.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hence, thither</td>
<td></td>
<td>Here.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Observations.—(a) A few cases also occur in which adverbs are formed out of adjectives and prepositions by adding the genitive termination ¦; as,

Unawares, from Unaware.
Beside,

(b) A large number of the prepositions are joined to verbs, and used adverbially, without any change in their form. Thus we say, To go down, up, in, about, through, across, &c.

(c) The participle form of the verb is sometimes used adverbially; as, The man came walking; The church stood gleaming among the trees.

All the primary derivatives amongst the English adverbs are of Saxon origin, and nearly all have been primarily inflexions of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives.

3. English adverbs which come under the title of secondary derivatives, are formed in the following ways:—

(1.) By the affixes—

ly; as, wisely, cunningly.

This may be termed the general form of the adverb, when derived regularly from the corresponding adjective.

ward or wards; as, backward, from back. | Signifying
sideways, side. | direction.

ways or wise; always, all.
likewise, like.

The terminations wise and ward are only used with Saxon derivatives; ly is a universal adverbial form for all derivatives.

(2.) By the prefixes—

a; as, ashore, aboard, adrift, aground.
be; .. behind, betimes.

These two prefixes are the remains of the prepositions on and by.

4. There is a great number of compound adverbs in the English language, formed by combining together various other parts of speech; as, forthwith, peradventure, pell-mell, see-saw, sometimes, somewhere, thereabout, straightway, yesterday, to-morrow, henceforward, headlong, &c.

We may add also those derived from compound adjectives; as, left-handedly, good-naturedly, ill-manneredly, &c.

9. Structure of the Preposition.

Prepositions may be divided, in relation to their structure, into three kinds—1. Simple Original Prepositions; 2. Derivatives; 3. Verbal Prepositions.
1. The simple original prepositions of the English language are the following:—**At, by, for, from, in, on, of, till, to, through, up, with.**

*Remark*—As prepositions are relational words, and always appear later in the development of a language than words conveying notions, it is probable that none of them are, strictly speaking, original roots, but that they have been formed out of nouns and verbs. This formation, however, is so remote, that they may be considered practically as simple and original forms.

2. Of derived prepositions, many are formed from verbs, adjectives, and other parts of speech, by the use of the prefixes—

   *a; as, amid, about, above, along, among, athwart, around, against.*  
   *be; as, beside, before, below, beneath, between, beyond.*  

   Others are formed by combining two simple prepositions together; as, **into, unto, upon, within, without, throughout.**

3. *Verbal* prepositions are simply the imperative and participial forms of verbs used prepositionally; e.g. **Concerning, during, regarding, respecting, touching, save, and except.**

   All the prepositions of the first and second class are of Saxon origin, those of the third of Latin.

10. **Structure of the Conjunction.**

   English Conjunctions may be classed under the three heads:—

   1. The simple conjunctions of the English language are—**And, or, but, if, as.**

   2. The derived conjunctions are such as—**Nor, neither, either, than, though, whether, even, for, that, since, seeing, except.**

   3. Compound conjunctions are such as are made up of two or more other words; as, **H owe be it, in as far as, nevertheless, moreover, wherefore, whereas, although, &c.**
PART III.

OF SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

ON THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

SECT. I.—PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

A sentence is a complete thought expressed in words.

Every thought supposes, 1st, That there is an object which occupies the mind; and, 2dly, That the mind thinks something about it.

When we express a thought, the thing which has occupied our mind is called the subject; that which we have thought, and which we now affirm respecting it, is called the predicate; as,

Sub.  Pred.
Fire—burns.

Explanation.—The mind, in the act of thinking, unites two ideas together. For example, gold and glitter are two ideas, which we possess singly. If we now bring them together, so that the one is affirmed of the other, we create the sentence, Gold glitters; which is the due expression of our thought.

The real essence and life of the sentence lies in this union of two ideas. The bond which unites them is called the copula.

The copula (which contains the affirmation) is most frequently included in the same word with the predicate; as,

Time flies.

Frequently, however, the copula is expressed by a distinct word; as, Man is mortal.

In compound verbs, the copula is always contained in the auxiliary; as, 'Never shall I forget him.' Here the affirmation is evidently included in the auxiliary shall.

In grammatical analysis, it is more convenient to regard the copula as belonging to the predicate; so that instead of having three essential elements to every sentence, as is the case in Logic, we shall have only two, namely,

1. The Subject, which expresses the thing about which we are speaking; and
2. The Predicate, which contains what we affirm of the subject.
THE SENTENCE.

A sentence which consists only of a simple subject and predicate, and nothing more, is said to be in its barest and most elementary form. Both the subject and the predicate may be enlarged, as in the following example:—

Enlarged form  wise men think rightly.

Here we add an attribute to each part of the sentence. The attribute to the subject is expressed by an adjective; the attribute or modifying word to the predicate is expressed by an adverb.

Thus we have two principal and two subordinate elements, which enter into the formation of sentences; namely,

Principal.  
1. Subject.  
2. Predicate.  

Subordinate.  
3. Attribute to subject.  
4. Modifying word to predicate.

These four elements answer to the four kinds of notional words before referred to; namely,


Remark.—When the predicate is a transitive verb, it is necessary that the object to which the action relates should be stated; as,

wise  men  employ  their talents  rightly.

The object, however, introduces no new element into the sentence; but is expressed by exactly the same forms of speech as the subject.

SECT. II.—EXPANSION OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

1. The Phrase.

Besides employing the pronoun instead of the noun, we may form a phrase consisting of two or more words, and use it in place of the noun, either as a subject or object to the sentence.

Thus, in place of the sentence, 'Anger is madness,' we could say, 'To be angry is to be mad,' where we have substituted a phrase in the infinitive mood for each of the nouns in the first sentence.

In like manner we might say, 'Being angry is being mad,' where we have substituted a participial phrase for the same nouns in each instance.'
These participial forms are most extensively used, in the English language, in place of nouns, though retaining, at the same time, some of the qualities of the verb.

The essential element of the verb, indeed, that of having the power of affirmation, they do not possess; but they retain the power of expressing action, and of taking one or more objects after them. They are used most frequently with prepositions, forming thus a large series of useful prepositional phrases; but they are not unfrequently employed without prepositions, to take the place of the subject or the object in a sentence.

Examples.

In place of Subject. 1. Doing his duty is the delight of a good man.
In place of Object. 2. Benevolence implies doing good to all mankind.
3. I am tired of walking.
4. He is never weary of reading his books.
5. In coming up the lane, I met William.
6. The necessity of being prepared for every emergency is unquestionable. &c. &c. &c.

With Prepositions.

In the great majority of cases these participial forms correspond in meaning with the Latin gerund.

1. The noun, then, in the structure of sentences, can be expanded into infinitive and participial phrases.

Again, in place of the adjective, we may also employ a phrase.

Thus, for the sentence, 'Wise men are happy;' we may say, 'Men of wisdom are happy;' where the adjective is turned into a prepositional phrase.

Or we might say, 'Men pursuing wisdom are happy;' where we have substituted a participial phrase for the adjective.

2. The adjective, therefore, in the structure of sentences, can be expanded into prepositional and participial phrases.

Lastly, in place of the adverb, we may make use of a phrase also; as, He acted wisely. He acted with wisdom.

3. Thus the adverb also may be expanded into an equivalent prepositional phrase.

The verb can also be expanded into the copula and the attribute. Thus,

He raves, may be expanded into
He is a maniac; or,
He is of unsound mind.
2. The Subordinate Sentence.

The Noun, the Adjective, and the Adverb, in addition to being expanded into phrases, may be further expanded into subordinate sentences. Thus, in the three sentences,

1. Anger is madness;
2. To be angry is madness;
3. That a man should be angry is madness;

we have three forms of the subject—1st, as a noun; 2dly, as noun-phrase; 3dly, as a noun-sentence.

Again, in the three sentences,

1. The wise man is happy;
2. The man of wisdom is happy;
3. The man who is wise is happy;

we have three forms of the attribute—1st, as an adjective; 2dly, as an adjective-phrase; 3dly, as an adjective-sentence.

Lastly, in the three sentences,

1. He acts wisely;
2. He acts with wisdom;
3. He acts as a wise man should act;

we have three forms of the modifying term—1st, as an adverb; 2dly, as an adverbial-phrase; 3dly, as an adverbial-sentence.

From the above explanations, we see how the primary elements of the sentence may be expanded into elements of a second and of a third degree; those of the first degree consisting of words, those of the second of phrases, those of the third of subordinate sentences.

All sentences, however complex, consist of these elements either in their simple or expanded forms.

The following Table will give a complete view of the component parts of sentences, arranged according to the principle just explained:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
<th>Subordinate Parts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Predicate.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE SUBORDINATE SENTENCE.

Having taken a survey of the elements of which all sentences consist, we proceed to explain the different kinds of sentences in detail.

SECT. III.—THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A sentence is called simple when it contains only one finite verb.

1. Of the Subject.

By the subject of a sentence is meant that respecting which any affirmation is made; as, Moses died.

When the subject consists of a single word or phrase, with or without the article, we call it a simple subject; when attributes of any kind are added to define its signification more fully, we call it an enlarged subject.

A. The Simple Subject.

The simple subject is a word or phrase standing in the nominative case, and answering to the question who? or what? as,

What is agreeable? Reading good books is agreeable.

If the subject consist of a word merely, with or without the article, that word must be either

1. A noun; as, Pompey fell; Walking is healthy; or,
2. A word used in place of a noun; as,
   (a) A pronoun; He fell bravely.
   (b) An adjective; The wise are happy.

If the subject consist of a phrase (or element of the second degree) it must be either

1. An infinitive phrase; as, to walk is healthy; or,
2. A participial phrase; as, walking in the fields is healthy.

Remarks.—1. In an imperative sentence, the subject thou or ye is often omitted, though it is still involved in the use of the verb; as, Go (thou) home; hasten (ye) into the town.
   2. In the case of impersonal verbs, the subject is indefinite, and its place is occupied by the pronoun it; as, It rains.
   3. There is yet a third exceptional form, viz. when a sentence begins with it as the subject, and the explanation of what is implied in this subject follows the predicate in a kind of apposition phrase or sentence; as,

It now happened that, Robert returned from Palestine; i.e. It, viz. that Robert returned from Palestine, now happened.

4. Participial and infinitive phrases used as subjects, may retain their full government as verbs; as drinking water is healthy; to do good is our duty.
B. The Enlarged Subject.

When one or more attributes are added to the simple subject, it is said to be enlarged; as, The beneficent wisdom of the Almighty is visible everywhere.

The word wisdom, in the above sentence, is sometimes called the grammatical subject, while the whole expression, 'The beneficent wisdom of the Almighty,' is called the logical subject. Grammatically speaking, the word wisdom is the nominative case to the verb is; but logically speaking, the affirmation is made not respecting wisdom generally, but respecting the beneficent wisdom of God.

Sometimes the assertion would be quite untrue if made of the grammatical subject only, but may be quite correct when made of the logical subject; as, Good men are always respected.

The subject is enlarged by any kind of expression that can stand as a complement to the noun.

By a complement to the noun, we mean any attributive word or words which either limit or qualify its meaning.

1. Complements to the noun of the first degree are the following:—

   (1.) The adjective; as,
   
   A cheerful disposition lightens labour.
   These men are truly noble.

   (2.) The noun in apposition; as,
   
   Charles the king was beheaded in 1649.
   William the Conqueror died in 1087.

   (3.) The noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as,
   
   Becket's death caused great consternation.
   His reputation had been great.

Remarks.—1. The participle is used as a complement of the first degree, but then it is strictly equivalent to an adjective; as, The dying man revived.

2. The adverb of place or time is sometimes employed as a complement to the noun; as, The church here is very fine. In such instances, here, there, &c., are evidently used as equivalents for the phrases, in this place, in that place.

3. When the subject expresses measure or quantity, it can take an adverb as a complement; as, Nearly a pound was missing. Almost a dozen were present. Perhaps it might be more correct, however, to consider these adverbs as qualifying the adjective 'a' in the sense of one.

2. Complements to the noun of the second degree are—

   (1.) The prepositional phrase; as,
   
   A man of virtue is trusted even by his enemies.
   The method of smelting iron is very curious.
   The thirst for gold is degrading.
(2.) The participial phrase; as,

William, having conquered Harold, ascended the throne.
Remotely from towns he ran his godly race.

Remarks — 1. Under the prepositional phrase may be classified that peculiar form of expression which is called participial. As, One of the most remarkable events took place in this reign. Three of my friends were absent.

2. Under the participial phrase may be classified the participle, preceded by the verb to be, as, This is a thing to be avoided, done, &c. (Lat. eventandum, agendum.)

3. The subject may be enlarged by any number of combinations of the above complements; as,

   Good old red wine is the best.
   Wisdom, a crown and ornament both to young and old, is never to be despised.
   A man of wisdom, truth, and goodness is highly esteemed.
   Caesar, having conquered Gaul, disciplined his legions, and equipped his fleet, sailed over to Britain.
   Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world; and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable princess, happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects, little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her.

Sometimes we find several different subjects, and those perhaps enlarged subjects, where there is only one predicate expressed; as,

   Not rural sights alone, but rural sounds
   Exhilarate the spirits.

With each of these subjects the same predicate is to be understood, though it is only expressed once.

The case in which the subject is enlarged by an adjective sentence, will be explained in the next section.

2. Of the Predicate.

The Predicate asserts respecting the subject:—

1. What it is, . . . Silver is white.
3. What is done to it, . . . Corn is ground in a mill.

Forms of the Predicate.

The predicate is formed by an element of the first, or of the second degree.

1. When the predicate is formed by an element of the first degree,
it always consists of some particular voice, mood or tense of a finite verb; as,

The bell tolls. You should not deceive me. The property was injured.

2. The predicate may be expanded into a phrase (or element of the second degree), by separating the finite verb into the copula, and some other parts of speech following it; as,

He rejoices—may be expanded into—He is joyful.

The predicate, thus expanded, may consist of the verb to be, followed by—

1. An adjective; as, Man is mortal.
2. A noun; as, Europe is a continent.
3. An adverb; as, Caesar was there.
4. A phrase; as, He is of sound mind.

The predicate is sometimes expanded even into an element of the third degree, by uniting the verb to be with a sentence; as,

The purse was where I left it.

Remark.—The verb to be, when used as the copula, only expresses a relation between two notions, and, consequently, requires a relational word after it, in order to form a complete predicate. If, however, it is used as an equivalent of the verb to exist, it may form a predicate by itself; as, God is, i.e. exists. In this case, however, the sentence is usually preceded by the adverb there; as, There is a God.

3. On the Completion of the Predicate.

When the verb does not suffice to convey an entire notion of the action which we affirm of the subject, it requires to be completed; as, William defeated.

Here, evidently, an incomplete idea is conveyed, until we specify whom he defeated, namely, Harold. The word Harold is, therefore, called 'the completion of the predicate.'

The word or words which form the completion of the predicate are usually termed the Object, and the grammatical relation existing between the predicate and its various completions is called the Objective relation.

Transitive verbs are completed by adding a noun, or something equivalent to a noun, in the objective case. Besides this, however, there are several intransitive verbs, which often require completion. Of this kind are the verbs become, seem, grow; as, He became a wise man; he seemed an idler; he grew tall. In these cases, the completion is spoken of the subject, and must be in the same case.
Forms of the Object.

There are various ways in which the affirmation conveyed by the verb is completed.

1. A predicate consisting of an ordinary transitive verb is completed by simply expressing the object to which the action directly relates; as, God governs the world.

2. Some verbs, however, do not complete the sense of the predicate without another term being expressed besides the direct object; as,

- She added mental refinement to personal beauty.
- Edward left him the crown.
- Antony accused Brutus of ingratitude.

Objects, then, are either direct or indirect.

1. Direct Object.

The direct object is a word [or phrase] standing in the objective case and answering to the question whom? or what?

- Whom did he call? He called his son.
- What did he find? He found his pencil.

The direct object can be expressed by precisely the same forms of speech as the subject, i.e.

1. By a noun, . . . . The ox draws the plough.
2. By a pronoun, . . . . The ox draws it easily.
3. By an adjective, . . . . We honour the good.
5. By a participial phrase, . . . . He enjoys walking in the fields.

As the direct object is always a noun or something equivalent to it, it may, of course, take any of the complements of the noun for its enlargement; as,

- The baker makes good bread.
- Charity covereth a multitude of sins.
- All followed Peter the Hermit. &c. &c.

2. Indirect Object.

The indirect object is a secondary completion, which must be added to certain classes of verbs in order to express adequately the whole sense of the predicate.
1. The indirect object may consist of another noun or pronoun in the objective case; as,
   The people made Edward king.
   I call a miser a poor man.
   She made him her heir.

Remarks.—This is called, by the German grammarians, the factitive object, since the verb to make (Lat. facio) is the type of that whole class of verbs which admit of this construction.

1. Sometimes the factitive adjective is used in place of the second noun; as,
   Alfred rendered his kingdom secure and happy.
   The judge pronounced him innocent.

2. After verbs of considering, the particle as is generally inserted before the second object; as,
   All regarded Socrates as a wise man.

3. Sometimes, also, the factitive noun takes the prepositions for and to; as,
   We took him for a philosopher.
   The fire reduced the house to ashes.

2. The indirect object may consist of a noun or pronoun with a preposition.

Ex. 1. The prince gave a large dowry to his daughter.

When the indirect object takes the preposition to, it is called by some grammarians the dative object; by others, the personal object.

Remark.—1. The pronouns him, thou, me, &c. were originally forms of the dative case, so that they are now used for the dative object without the preposition to; as,
   He gave me permission.
   He taught me geography.

2. We may also explain here the anomalous case of an object following the passive verb; as, I was taught geography.
   This can happen only when an active verb has two objects, and one of them become the subject of it in its passive form, while the other object remains to enlarge the predicate as before.

Ex. 2. Brutus accused Caesar of ambition.

When the indirect object takes the preposition of before it, it is called by some grammarians the genitive object.

Many adjectives take the genitive object for their completion; as,
   Napoleon was capable of great exertion.
   Nero was guilty of murder.

3. The indirect object, when it implies action, is often expressed by an infinitive or a participial phrase; as,

Ex. 1. The general forced him to serve.
   I counsel you to wait patiently.
THE COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

Many verbs, particularly those which imply perceiving, knowing, feeling, &c., take the infinitive as an indirect object without the particle 'to'; as,

\[ \text{We heard the thunder roll.} \]
\[ \text{We saw the ship sink in the waves.} \]

Ex. 2. We saw him struggling with the enemy.
Ex. 3. I feel myself impelled to this course.
Ex. 4. They accused Jugurtha of bribing the senate.

4. Many intransitive verbs and adjectives take an indirect object only; as,

\[ \text{Pyrrho despaired of truth.} \]
\[ \text{We never speak of this subject.} \]
\[ \text{He is always mindful of your promise.} \]
\[ \text{I am ready to start.} \]
\[ \text{We are tired of waiting.} \]

Remarks.—1. In all the above instances, the completion of the predicate is expressed by means of objective cases (or expressions equivalent to them), with or without a preposition. There is one form, however, in which the predicate is completed by means of the nominative, and that is when the factitive notion is expressed by means of a neuter or passive verb; as,

\[ \text{Harold became king.} \]
\[ \text{The beggar was made a prince.} \]

Here the words king and prince are completions in the nominative case.

2. Verbs of the middle voice, such as to weigh, to measure, &c. take a correlative noun in the objective case for their completion; as,

\[ \text{The loaf weighs four pounds.} \]
\[ \text{The table measures six feet round.} \]

3. There is a case of frequent occurrence in which we have an objective case followed by the infinitive mood; as, I told him to come; I wish you to go. These are really cases of the double or the complex object. In the phrase I told him to come, we have him as the dative object, and to come as the direct object. In the phrase I wish you to go, the object of my wish is not you, nor the action of going. But what I wish is you to go; hence the whole expression may be taken as a complex object to the verb wish.

4. Extension of the Predicate.

The predicate of a sentence, in addition to being completed, may also be extended, for the purposes of modification, by words which express any circumstances of time, place, manner; as,

\[ \text{The eagle flies swiftly.} \]
\[ \text{William was here yesterday.} \]

The predicate is extended—

1. By an adverb; as,

\[ \text{Leonidas died bravely.} \]
2. By a word or phrase equivalent to an adverb; as, "
(a) By a prepositional phrase—
The eagle flies with great swiftness.

(b) By an adverbial phrase—
He fought most bravely of all.
We travelled very rapidly indeed.

(c) By a noun phrase, used adverbially—
He rides every day.
They fought hand to hand.

(d) By a participle, or participial phrase, used adverbially—
The messenger came running.
The church of the village
Stood gleaming white in the morning sheen.

Observations.—The nominative absolute is a species of participial phrase performing the office of modifying the predicate; as,
Spring advancing, the swallows re-appear.

Several of such phrases are not unfrequently combined to express a number of accompanying circumstances, as in the following passage:—
But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distressed,
Me howling winds drive devious—tempest-tossed,
Sails rent, scenes opening wide, and compass lost.

We may notice, under peculiarities of construction, an adverbial usage of the adjective, noun, and participle, as the following—
1. He lived honest, and he died brave.
2. He lived a philosopher, and died, a hero.
3. He lived hoping, and he died despairing.

There can be no doubt that the noun, adjective, and participle, in each of these instances takes the place of an adverbial adjunct, qualifying the force of the verb.

The circumstances which determine more accurately the meaning of the predicate may be classified under the following four heads:—
1. Those relating to time.
2. Those relating to place.
3. Those relating to manner.
4. Those relating to cause.

1. Adjuncts of time, attached to the predicate, are used to specify one of the following ideas:—
(a.) Some particular point or period of time, answering to the question, when? as,
He came yesterday.
I get up at sunrise.
EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE.

(2.) Duration of time, answering to the question, how long? as,
He suffered for many years.

(3.) Repetition, answering to the question, how often? as,
The sea ebbs and flows twice a-day.

2. Adjuncts of place, attached to the predicate, are also used to
express three ideas:—

(1.) Rest in a place, answering to the question where? as,
He lives in Paris.

(2.) Motion to a place, answering to the question, whither? as,
The ship sails for London.

(3.) Motion from a place, answering to the question whence? as,
Learning came from the East.

3. Adjuncts of manner, attached to the predicate, are used to
express the following ideas:—

(1.) Manner, properly so called, answering to the question how? as,
Birds fly quickly.

(2.) Degree, answering to the question, how much? or in what
degree?
Wellington’s army was wholly exhausted.

(3.) Instrument, answering to the question, with what?
William Rufus was shot with an arrow.

(4.) Accompanying circumstances; as,
Kempfentl felt went down with twice four hundred men.

4. Adjuncts of cause, attached to the predicate, are used to ex-
press ideas such as the following:—

(1.) Ground or reason; as,
He died from hunger.

(2.) Condition; as,
With diligence he will succeed.

(3.) Purpose; as,
The eye was made for seeing.

(4.) Motive; as,
He acted from jealousy.

(5.) Material; as,
Cloth is made of wool.
Various other shades of this idea might be here enumerated. The utmost that can be done here is to make a rough classification. The only other idea, perhaps, which needs distinct mention is that of causality adversatively considered.

Columbus set sail, notwithstanding the tempest.

We have now gone through all the possible elements of the Simple Sentence, and find that they consist of—

I. Two fundamental parts, viz. Subject and Predicate.

II. Three subordinate parts, viz. 1. The Attribute to the Noun; 2. The Completion of the Predicate; and, 3. The Extension of the Predicate.

But any of these subordinate parts, again, may have words and phrases still further dependent on them; and those words and phrases may, in their turn, govern others; so that, taking the subject and the predicate as the basis, we may have various parts of a sentence at one, two, three, and even four or more removes from the primary elements; there being still only one subject and one affirmation in the whole.

Example.

Decius, tired of writing books adapted to the learned only, chose a popular question, with many points of practical interest in it, for the purpose of bringing into useful exercise all the depth and clearness of thought accruing from habits of mind long cherished by philosophical studies.

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