INTRODUCTION

EVERY English-speaking person should know the general terms and the leading facts of English grammar.

I.

WORDS

The Parts of Speech. — A child who is beginning to talk does not say "I want my mamma;" "I like to hear that dog bark;" "The monkey-man has come with his organ." He merely says "mamma," "bow-wow," "monkey-man." The single word he uses calls attention to the person or thing that he is thinking of, but it does not express a complete thought. To say anything definite which is not a command or an entreaty, two words, at least, are needed.

When I say "Hero barks," I mean that what barks is called "Hero," and that what "Hero" does is to "bark."

Hens cackle.	Chanticleer crows.
Snow fell.	Truth prevails.

We see at a glance that the first word in each of these examples differs in kind from the second word. The first names something; the second asserts something about the thing named. Words which name things are called NOUNS; words which assert or declare something about the things named are called VERBS.

Instead of saying "Hero barks; Hero howls," I may say "Hero barks; he howls." By using "he" instead of "Hero," I avoid repetition and save space.

Hens cackle; *they* roost.

Chanticleer crows; *he* flaps *his* wings.

Snow fell; *it* drifted.

Truth prevails; *it* triumphs.

In these examples, the words in italics stand in place of nouns. Words which stand in place of nouns are called PRONOUNS.

If I say "A dog is barking," I speak of any dog that happens to be barking. If I say "The dog is barking," I speak of some particular dog.

A hen lays eggs.

Chanticleer is *an* upstart.

The snow is falling.

The truth shall be told.

In these examples, *a* or *an* speaks of any one of a class; *the* points to some particular one or to a particular group or class. "A" or "an" is called the INDEFINITE ARTICLE; "the," the DEFINITE ARTICLE.

When I say "The black dog is barking," I use "black" to indicate a peculiarity of the dog, — a quality which distinguishes him from dogs not black.

These hens lay *white* eggs.

Chanticleer is a *bold* upstart.

The *soft*, *white* snow is falling.

The *plain* truth shall be told.

In these examples, the words in italics, except *these*, tell what kind of "eggs," "snow," "upstart," "truth," is spoken of. *These* limits "hens" to the particular hens spoken of. Words added to nouns in order to describe them or to limit their meaning are called ADJECTIVES.

When I say "The black dog barks furiously," I use "furiously" to tell how the dog barks.

Hens lay *daily*.

Chanticleer crows *very boldly*.

Perfectly white snow is falling.

The truth shall be *plainly* told.

In these examples, the words in italics qualify or limit the words with which they are joined in sense. Words added to verbs, to adjectives, to other words of the same kind as themselves, or to groups of words, to qualify or limit their meaning, are called ADVERBS.

When I say "The black dog barks furiously at strangers," I use "at" to show the connection between "barks" and "strangers."

Hens lay daily *in* spring.

Chanticleer crows *with* ardor.

Snow is falling *through* the air.

The truth shall be told *by* me.

In each of these examples, the word in italics shows the connection between some word or words that precede and a noun or pronoun that follows. Words so used to connect other words are called PREPOSITIONS.

Among the more common prepositions are: Across, after, against, amid or amidst, among or amongst, at, before, behind, beneath, beside, besides, between, beyond, but, by, concerning, during, except, excepting, for, from, in, into, inside, notwithstanding, of, off, on or upon, outside, over, past, respecting, round or around, since, through, throughout, till or until, to, towards, under, with, within, without.

Sometimes two or more words together are used as prepositions. Such are: According to, as for, as to, because of, by dint of, by the side of, by way of, for the sake of, in front of, in respect to, in spite of, on account of, on this side, on that side, out of.

When I say "The dog barks and howls," I use "and" to connect the verbs "barks" and "howls."

Hens cackle *because* they are frightened.

Chanticleer crows *but* does not flap his wings.

Snow fell *though* it was very cold.

Truth is to be spoken at all times *and* in all places.

In these examples, the words in italics connect words or groups of words. Words so used to connect words or groups of words are called CONJUNCTIONS.

When conjunctions connect words, these words must be alike; they must belong to the same class: prepositions may connect words of different classes. The principal function of conjunctions is to connect groups of words.

Among the more common conjunctions are: And, because, but, either and or, for, if, lest, neither and nor, notwithstanding, since, than, that, though or although, till or until, unless, yet.

Some words — *e. g.*,[1] after, before, however, nevertheless, still, when, while — serve partly as conjunctions, partly as adverbs.

Sometimes two or more words together are used as a conjunction. Such are: As long as, as soon as, as well as, in order that, not only . . . but also, so that.

Both prepositions and conjunctions are called CONNECTIVES.

When I say "Sh! the dog barks," I use "sh" as I might use a gesture, to impose silence.

Oh! listen to the cackling of the hens!

Hurrah! the snow is falling.

Chanticleer crows very early, *alas!*

Fie, fie! you did n't tell the truth.

In these examples, the words, or rather cries, in italics are thrown in to express feeling. Words of this class are called INTERJECTIONS.

In English, then, there are nine kinds of words, — *nouns, verbs, pronouns, articles, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions,* and *interjections.* These nine kinds of words are called PARTS OF SPEECH. Taken together, they make up the language.

It must not be supposed that there is a hard and fast line between each part of speech and every other, — that a noun is always a noun, a verb always a verb, etc.

[1] *Exempli gratiâ,* — for example.

(1) *Iron* is a useful metal. (2) The girls will *iron* the starched clothes to-morrow. (3) As strong as *iron* bands.

In (1) *iron* is the name of a metal; it is therefore a noun. In (2) *iron* tells what the girls will do to the clothes; it is therefore a verb. In (3) *iron* tells what kind of bands are spoken of; it is therefore an adjective.

(1) He was *in* the room, and went out of it. (2) He went *in* and *out* before the Lord. (3) The *ins* and *outs* of politics.

In (1) *in* is a preposition; in (2) *in* and *out* are adverbs; in (3) *ins* and *outs* are nouns.

(1) Nobody was there *but* me. (2) I was there, *but* nobody else was. (3) *But* me no *buts.*

In (1) *but* is a preposition, in (2) a conjunction, in (3) a verb and a noun.

To find out what part of speech a given word is, we must find out what it means in the place where it stands, and what relation it bears to the other words with which it is connected.

The parts of speech may be divided into two classes, — those that do, and those that do not, suffer changes of form; that is, those that are, and those that are not, spelled sometimes in one way and sometimes in another. These changes of form are called INFLECTIONS. The parts of speech that have inflections are nouns, pronouns, verbs, and, to a very limited extent, adjectives and adverbs. Those that do not have inflections are articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

As compared with many other languages, or with Anglo-Saxon and Early English, our language has very few inflections.

Nouns. — When I say "Hero barks," I use the noun "Hero" to distinguish one dog from other dogs. When

I say "The dog barks," I use a noun which does not distinguish one dog from other dogs.

Julia is knitting.	The *girl* is knitting.
Rome was not built in a day.	The *city* was not built in a day.
Mount Adams rises before us.	The *mountain* rises before us.

Julia, Rome, and *Mount Adams* are nouns that distinguish individual persons or things from others of their class. *Girl, city,* and *mountain* are nouns that do not distinguish individual persons or things from others of their class. Nouns that are the names of individual persons or things are called PROPER NOUNS. Nouns that are the names of any of the persons or things of a class are called COMMON NOUNS.

There are, of course, many Julias and several Romes in the world; but each Julia and each Rome has a proper name, and each of these names is a proper noun.

When I say "The army is on the march," I speak of a collection of soldiers, etc., forming one body.

The *mob* was noisy.	The *fleet* sailed away.

Mob is the name of a collection of human beings; *fleet* is the name of a collection of vessels. Names of collections of persons or things are called COLLECTIVE NOUNS. All nouns (whether proper, common, or collective) that name persons or things are called CONCRETE NOUNS.

When I say "Boyishness is the characteristic of boys," I use "boyishness" to name something which I think of as belonging to boys, but which I cannot perceive by my senses.

Julia's *industry* is amazing.	The *grandeur* of Mount Washington overwhelms one.
Rome is famous for *antiquity*.	

Industry is a quality belonging to Julia; *antiquity,* to Rome; *grandeur,* to Mount Washington. As we can think of these qualities apart from the persons or things to which

they belong, we can give them names. All nouns that name qualities or attributes are called ABSTRACT NOUNS.

The inflections of nouns are called DECLENSIONS.

Declensions show (1) the number of things denoted by the noun, and (2) the relations between the noun and other words.

When I say "The dog barked at the cats," I mean that one dog barked at two or more cats.

A *boy* is a strange creature.	*Boys* will be *boys*.
The *beaver* lives in a *house*.	*Beavers* live in *houses*.

Boy, beaver, or *house* names but one person or thing; *boys, beavers,* or *houses* names more than one person or thing. Nouns that name but one person or thing are said to be in the SINGULAR NUMBER; those that name more than one, in the PLURAL NUMBER.

In modern English, the majority of nouns form the plural by adding "s" to the singular.

The *bulrush* grows on the banks of the Nile.	Moses was found among the *bulrushes*.
Casabianca was a *hero*.	Plutarch loves *heroes*.
The *sky* was full of clouds.	The *skies* are dark.
Turn over a new *leaf*.	Turn over the *leaves*.

The words in italics represent small classes of nouns which, except for slight variations in spelling, follow the general rule.

She was a true *woman*.	*Women* must weep.
The *ox* is a patient animal.	*Oxen* move slowly.
A *child* is a light in the house.	*Children* are troublesome.
A *mouse* was caught in the trap.	*Mice* have bright eyes.

These peculiar plurals have survived from Early English.

A *penny* saved is a penny gained.	Father gave me ten *pennies*.
	I paid seven *pence* for that.

Chatterton was a *genius.*

Homer and Shakspere were great *geniuses.*

Genii often pop into the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments."

Penny, genius, and a few other nouns have two plurals, each with a separate meaning.

Some nouns, — *e. g.*, "deer," "sheep," "cannon," "heathen," — have the same form in the singular and the plural.

As the meaning of some nouns does not admit a plural, they have none: *e. g.*, "gold," "pride," "redness."

Besides showing the number of the noun, declensions show the relation of the noun to other words.

When I say "Hero bit Fido," I use "Hero" to name the dog that bit, and "Fido" to name the dog that "Hero" bit.

John whipped *William.* *Cats* fight *dogs.*

In each of these examples, the first noun stands in a different relation to the verb from that held by the second noun. The first is called the SUBJECT of the verb, and is said to be in the NOMINATIVE CASE; the second is called the OBJECT of the verb, and is said to be in the OBJECTIVE CASE.

If, instead of saying "Hero bit Fido," I say "Fido bit Hero," I make what was the object the subject of the verb, and what was the subject the object; the meaning is altered by a change in the position of the nouns, not by a change in their form.

John whipped *William.* *William* whipped *John.*
Cats fight *dogs.* *Dogs* fight *cats.*

In each pair of these examples, the change in meaning is caused by a change in order, without any change of form. The nominative case of every noun is identical in form with the objective case.

When I say "Hero's collar is too small," I mean that the collar which belongs to Hero is too small.

A *man's* house is his castle. *Children's* toys are soon broken.
A *lady's* feelings are sensitive. *Ladies'* boots are small.

In these examples, "house" is spoken of as belonging to "a man;" "toys," as belonging to "children;" "feelings," as belonging to "a lady;" "boots," as belonging to "ladies." In other words, "a man" is spoken of as the possessor of a "house;" "children," of "toys;" "a lady," of "feelings;" "ladies," of "boots." *Man's, children's, lady's, ladies'* are said to be in the POSSESSIVE CASE.

As a rule, the possessive case of nouns in the singular number is formed by adding "s" with an apostrophe ('s); but sometimes EUPHONY — pleasant sound — requires the omission of "s." With nouns in the plural number the apostrophe is generally used alone; but when the plural does not end in "s," the rule is to add "s."

These are the only case-forms of English nouns. Relations which many languages express by inflections are expressed in English by the aid of prepositions.

Pronouns. — When I say "I shall go when you come," I use two pronouns that make distinctions of person; "I" stands for the speaker, "you" for the person addressed. Pronouns that make distinctions of person — *I, thou* or *you, he, she, it* — are called PERSONAL PRONOUNS. *I* is said to be in the first person, *thou* or *you* in the second, the others in the third. Personal pronouns are compounded with "-self": *e. g.*, "itself," "myself."

When I say "This is my book and that is yours," I use the pronouns "this" and "that" to point out, or show, what books are meant. *This* and *that* are called DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

When I say "Who is there?" I use the pronoun "who" to ask a question. Pronouns that are used to ask questions — *who, which,* and *what* — are called INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

When I say "The man (or, He) who has just called is my brother," I use the pronoun "who" to refer to "man" (or, "he"), and to introduce words which limit "man" (or, "he"). When I say "His voice, which is so agreeable, is weak," I use the pronoun "which" to refer to "voice," and to introduce words which describe "voice." Pronouns — *who, which, what, that* — which thus refer or relate to nouns or pronouns, and join to them words which limit or describe, are called RELATIVE PRONOUNS. *As* is a relative pronoun after "such," "many," or "same": *e. g.*, "Take such things as are needed." The noun or pronoun to which a relative pronoun relates is called the ANTECEDENT of the relative. The antecedent of a relative may be several words, if these words, taken together, are used as a noun.

Other pronouns are: *each other, one another*, which are sometimes called RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS; *each, either, neither*, which are sometimes called DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS; *some, any*, either alone or in compounds, — *e. g.*, *some one, any one, something, anything, somebody, anybody, somewhat*; compounds of *every* and *no* with *one, thing*, and *body*; and *all, aught, naught, both, few, many, none*, and *one*.

The inflections of pronouns, like those of nouns, are called declensions. The declensions of pronouns, like those of nouns, comprise changes of form that indicate number and those that indicate case; but in pronouns these changes are more numerous and more marked than in nouns.

When I say "I think we shall go," "I" stands for the speaker alone, "we," for the speaker and some other person or persons.

Thou art the man.	*Ye* are my children.
He has gone to Paris.	*They* have gone to Paris.
She is a charming girl.	*They* are charming girls.
It is bitter to the taste.	*They* are bitter to the taste.
I must have a good *one*.	He gave me two poor *ones*.
This is a good book.	*These* are good books.
That is a spirited horse.	*Those* are spirited horses.

I, thou, he, she, it, one, this, and *that* stand for but one person or thing, and are therefore in the singular number. *We, ye, they, ones, these*, and *those* stand for more than one person or thing, and are therefore in the plural number.

These pronouns and their compounds are the only ones that have one form for the singular and another for the plural.

When I say "I liked her, but she did n't like me," I use "I" and "she" as subjects, and "her" and "me" as objects, of "liked" and "did n't like."

We enjoyed the play.	The play amused *us*.
He is a good servant.	John pleases *him*.
They are going away.	The journey tires *them*.
Who is coming?	*Whom* will you invite?
She *who* is good is happy.	She *whom* her conscience approves is happy.

In each pair of these examples, the same pronoun appears in the nominative case as subject of the verb, and in the objective case as object of the verb; in each, the objective case of the pronoun differs from the nominative in form. *We* becomes *us; he, him; they, them; who* (interrogative) and *who* (relative), *whom*. These, with *I* and *me, she* and *her*, are the only pronouns that have one form for the nominative and another for the objective case.

When I say "This is my book," or "This book is mine," I use "my" or "mine" to say that the book belongs to me.

We have bought *our* tickets.	These tickets are *ours*.
You have lost *your* hat.	That hat is *yours*.
He has found *his* boat.	The new boat is *his*.
She has torn *her* new dress.	My dress is worse than *hers*.
See that bird! It has broken *its* wing.	
Did they bring *their* baskets?	I think these boxes are *theirs*.

Who knows *whose* turn will come next?	*Whose* is it?
The man who was here just now is the man *whose* horse ran away yesterday.	

The pronouns *my, our, your, his, her, its, their,* and *whose* refer to the possessor, and are therefore in the possessive case.

Mine, ours, yours, his, hers, and *theirs* are the forms which the possessive pronouns take when used alone. *Whose* (interrogative) has but one form, whether used alone or in connection with a noun. "Its" and "whose" (relative) are never used alone.

As *my, our, your, his, her, its,* and *their* are used in connection with nouns, they are sometimes called Possessive Adjectives. *Whose* also, when used in the same way, may be termed an adjective.

Verbs. — When I say "Thomas picks," I use a verb which requires an object to complete the sense: *e. g.*, "berries." When I say "Thomas sleeps," I use a verb which does not require an object to complete the sense.

The men *are raising* the barn.	We *rise* early at our house.
They *have laid* the foundation of the house.	The boy *was lying* on the grass.
Did John *set* the clock?	I like to *sit* under the trees.
I *sent* him to *buy* a hat.	Little birds must learn to *fly*.

The italicized verbs in the first column have an object. Those in the second column have no object. Verbs that require an object to complete the sense are called Transitive Verbs. Verbs that do not require an object to complete the sense are called Intransitive Verbs. Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively.

The inflections of verbs are called Conjugations. Some

of these inflections correspond to differences in the subject of the verb.

When I say "I dream," I couple one form of the verb with a subject which is in the first person. When I say "Thomas (or, He) dreams," I couple another form of the verb with a subject which is in the third person. The relation between subject and verb is so close that we speak of a verb as in this or that person: *e. g.*, the First Person, the Third Person, etc.

With the great majority of verbs, the only change of form that corresponds to a change in the subject occurs in the third person singular of the verb when used of present time: *e. g.*, "He loves" or "hates," "She weeps" or "laughs." All the other persons (except the second person when the subject of the verb is "thou") have the same form as the first person singular.

Some inflections of the verb correspond to changes in the meaning of the verb itself. Of these, some serve to fix the *time* of the action or state spoken of.

When I say "I live in Albany," I speak of present time; when I say "I lived in Washington last winter," I speak of past time.

We *move* once a year.	We *moved* last week.
The boat *drifts* with the tide.	The boat *drifted* out to sea.
She *sings* well.	She *sang* that song well.
Bees *sting*.	The bee *stung* me.
He *drives* very fast.	He *drove* home in the rain.
You always *come* at six o'clock.	You *came* none too soon.
The farmer's boy *brings* the milk.	The farmer *brought* the milk this morning.
We *buy* our clothes.	We *bought* a new suit for John.
The grocer *sells* cheese.	He *sold* forty pounds yesterday.
Sometimes I *run* to school.	I *ran* to school to-day.

Move, drifts, sings, sting, drives, come, brings, buy, sells,

and *run* refer to present time. Verbs that refer to present time are said to be in the PRESENT TENSE. *Moved, drifted, sang, stung, drove, came, brought, bought, sold,* and *ran* refer to past time. Verbs that refer to past time are said to be in the PAST or PRETERITE TENSE.

As these examples show, the preterite tense of some verbs is formed by the addition of "-d" or "-ed" to the present; of others, by an internal change. The majority of verbs form the preterite in "-d" or "-ed," and are called REGULAR VERBS. The others are called IRREGULAR VERBS. In Early English, the latter class was larger than it is to-day.

When I say "I have lived in Washington," I speak of past time, but I use a form of the verb which shows that the action spoken of is at present completed.

We *have sold* our land.
The miller *has ground* the corn.
Our neighbors *have moved.*
Have you *made* a whistle ?

Have sold, has ground, have moved, and *have made* refer to an action or a state begun in the past and at present completed, and are said to be in the PERFECT TENSE.

The perfect tense differs from the present and the preterite in one important respect: it consists of two words instead of one. The second of the two, and the more important, — *e. g., sold, ground, moved,* or *made,* — is called a PARTICIPLE, a word which will be defined later. The first of the two — *e. g., have* or *has* — helps to make a form of the verb. Verbs used in this manner as helps or aids are called AUXILIARY VERBS.

The auxiliary verbs in most frequent use — and no verbs are more commonly spoken and written — are "be" and "have" in their various forms; others are "may," "can," "will" or "shall," "might," "could," "would" or "should," "must," and "do."

When I say "I shall take the train," I speak of future time.

You *will break* that cup.
Richard *will come* next week.
We *shall lose* our supper.
Our friends *will entertain* us.

Will break, will come, shall lose, and *will entertain* refer to future time. Verbs that refer to future time are said to be in the FUTURE TENSE.

If I say "Next spring I shall have spent a winter in Washington," I use a form of the verb which shows that the action of which I speak is thought of as completed in the future.

By that time you *will have learned* to sing.
Before winter, my brother *will have taught* me to play.
Before another year begins, we *shall have crossed* the ocean.
Then the birds *will have flown.*

Will have learned, will have taught, shall have crossed, and *will have flown* refer to actions that are thought of as completed in the future. Verbs so used are said to be in the FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

If I say "I had landed by noon," I speak of a time in the past before some other past time.

You *had sailed* when the letter arrived.
I asked Jack if he *had lost* a knife.
We *had started* before it began to rain.
They *had gone* several miles before they found out their mistake.

Had sailed, had lost, had started, and *had gone* refer to actions completed in the past before some other past time. Verbs so used bear a relation to the preterite similar to that which the perfect bears to the present tense. They are said to be in the PAST PERFECT or PLUPERFECT (more than perfect) TENSE.

Some inflections show the *manner* in which verbs are used.

When I say "Haste makes waste," I use the verb to assert something about "haste." When I say "If I were hasty, I should waste time," I use "were" to show that I am naming a condition under which my time would be wasted.

It *is* necessary to lie in bed.
Are you *going* away?
I *feel* so strongly that I cannot help mentioning the fact.

If it *be* necessary, I will lie in bed.
If I *were* you, I should go away.
Were it not that I feel strongly, I should not mention the fact.

Is and *feel* make, or help to make, an assertion; *are going* asks a question. Verbs used in a manner which simply points out, or indicates, the meaning, are said to be in the INDICATIVE MODE or MOOD. *Be, were,* and *were* introduce conditional statements, which are joined in a subordinate manner (subjoined) to the principal assertion, so as to limit or qualify it. Verbs so used are said to be in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

When I say "Make haste slowly," I tell you (the person or persons addressed) what to do. When I say "I like to play," I use the verb "to play" to say what I like to do.

Go to the ant.
Love me little, *love* me long.
Strike, but *hear* me.
Be kind to the children.

It began *to grow* dark.
The men tried *to guard* us.
Little birds must learn *to fly*.
It is natural for foxes *to be* sly.

Go, love, strike, hear, and *be* ask or order you (the person or persons addressed) to do or to be something. Verbs so used are said to be in the IMPERATIVE MOOD. *To grow, to guard, to fly,* and *to be* name an action or a situation without limitation as to person or number. Verbs so used are said to be in the INFINITIVE MOOD. The infinitive has two forms, — the simple or present infinitive, *e. g., to see;* and the perfect infinitive, *e. g., to have seen.* The infinitive is not a mood in the sense in which the indicative, the subjunctive, and the imperative are moods; for it does not show

the manner in which the verb is used. For convenience, however, it is usually called a mood.

These moods — the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and (with the qualifications mentioned) the infinitive — are recognized as such in all books on grammar.

Other moods are recognized in some books, but not in others. Some writers mention a *conditional* mood, — *e. g.*, "If it *should* rain, I should stay at home;" others, a *potential* mood, — *e. g.*, "I *may* stay at home;" others, an *emphatic* mood, — *e. g.*, "I *do* want to go." There seems, however, to be no stronger reason for recognizing these forms of expression as moods of English verbs than there is for recognizing an *optative*, — *e. g.*, "Oh that I *had* wings like a dove!" "*Would* that he were here," "God *save* the queen;" or a mood of *determination*, — *e. g.*, "I *will* do it," "You *shall* do it;" or an *obligatory* mood, — *e. g.*, "You *should* (ought to) go," "We *must* go."

Participles[1] are always classed with verbs; but they have much in common with adjectives and with nouns. They are called PARTICIPLES, because they partake of the nature of more than one part of speech.

If I say "Taking the advice of their leaders, they stayed indoors," I treat "taking" like a verb, for I give it an object, — "the advice of their leaders;" and I also treat it, in connection with the words with which it is grouped, like an adjective.

When I say "It is raining," I use "raining" as a part of the verb.

So *saying*, I threw him his pocket-book.
Shame, *being* naturally timorous, keeps company with Virtue.
The fear of *offending* his uncle kept him quiet.

My little family were gathered round a charming fire, *telling* stories of the past, and *laying* schemes for the future.
Drawing me aside, he disclosed his plan.

[1] See page 14.

Saying, being, telling, laying, and *drawing* are part verb, part adjective. Each refers to a time which is present in relation to the time denoted by the verb. Words so used are called PRESENT PARTICIPLES.

Offending is a participial form which is a verb in that it takes an object, and a noun in that it depends upon a proposition. Words so used are called VERBAL NOUNS, *nouns verbal,* or *gerunds.*

When I say "Taken at his own estimate, he is a great man," I use "taken" as part of an adjective phrase. When I say "It has rained," I use "rained" as part of the verb.

Seen from a distance, it looked like a face.

The flag, *torn* by the wind, hangs in shreds.

Wearied by the long journey, she hoped for an hour's rest.

The horses, *terrified* by the lightning, started to run.

Seen, torn, wearied, and *terrified* are part adjective, part verb. They refer to past time, or to a time which is past in relation to the time denoted by the main verb in the sentence. Words so used are called PAST PARTICIPLES.

The *present infinitive,* the *preterite tense,* and the *past participle* are called the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb.

When I say "Our Nine made a good score," my meaning is the same as when I say "A good score was made by our Nine;" but the point of view is different. The words in the first remark are so arranged as to call attention to the persons who "made a good score;" the words in the second remark are so arranged as to call attention to the thing "made." In the first, "our Nine" is both the grammatical subject of the verb and the real subject of the action denoted by the verb; in the second, "a good score" is the grammatical subject of the verb, but is not the real subject of the action.

The farmer *ploughs* the ground.

The ground *is ploughed* by the farmer.

The boy *is picking* cherries.

Cherries *are being picked* by the boy.

Lightning *has struck* that tree.

That tree *has been struck* by lightning.

I *shall see* them.

They *will be seen* by me.

Mary *had curled* the child's hair.

The child's hair *had been curled* by Mary.

In the examples in the first column, the subject of the verb is represented as acting, or active; in those in the second column, the subject of the verb is represented as acted upon, or passive. When the subject of a verb is represented as acting, the verb is said to be in the ACTIVE VOICE; when the subject of a verb is represented as acted upon, the verb is said to be in the PASSIVE VOICE.

Adjectives. — In modern English, no adjectives use inflections to express case or gender; and the only adjectives which use inflections to express differences of number are "this" and "that": *e. g.,* "*This* book is interesting, but *these* books are dull;" "*That* child is idle, but *those* children are industrious."

With these exceptions, every adjective has but one kind of inflection: COMPARISON.

If I say "Sugar is sweet, molasses sweeter, honey sweetest," I use "-er" and "-est" to mark the degree in which the objects compared possess the quality spoken of.

Will's eyes are *bright,*
Maud's are *brighter,*
Jack's are *brightest* of all.

John is a *happy* boy,
Richard is even *happier,*
Tom is the *happiest* boy I know.

In each of these examples, the termination "-er" indicates that one of two persons or things possesses the quality spoken of in a higher degree than the other; and the termination "-est," that one of three or more persons or things possesses the quality spoken of in a higher degree than any of the others. The adjective in its original form is said to

be in the POSITIVE DEGREE, the adjective in "-er" in the COMPARATIVE DEGREE, the adjective in "-est" in the SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.

A few adjectives — *e. g.*, *good, bad, ill, far, fore, hind, late, little, many, much, nigh, old* — form the comparative and the superlative degree irregularly.

A great many adjectives, including some in two syllables and almost all in more than two syllables, have no inflections, but form the comparative and the superlative with "more" and "most": *e. g.*, "The dog is *sagacious*, the horse still *more sagacious*, the elephant the *most sagacious* of quadrupeds."

Adverbs. — A few adverbs have the inflection called comparison: *e. g.*, *badly* or *ill, worse, worst; well, better, best; fast, faster, fastest; often, oftener, oftenest; quick, quicker, quickest; soon, sooner, soonest.*

Many adverbs form the degrees of comparison with "more" and "most": *e. g.*, *usefully, more usefully, most usefully.*

Articles. — Articles are sometimes classed with adjectives; but they differ from adjectives in the fact that they have no degrees of comparison, and that they serve purposes peculiar to themselves.

Prepositions, Conjunctions, and **Interjections.** — These three parts of speech have no inflections.

II.

SENTENCES

WHEN we say "Hero barks," we use, as has already been said, the word "Hero" to name something, and the word "barks" to say something about what is named. Neither "Hero" nor "barks" by itself expresses a complete

thought; but "Hero barks" does express a complete thought. If, instead of "Hero barks," we say "The black dog makes a great noise," we use "the black dog" to name something, and "makes a great noise" to say something about what is named.

I.	II.
The man	asked for water.
I.	II.
A rustic bridge	spans the hurrying stream.
I.	II.
A blue-eyed girl	was standing at the window.
I.	II.
The chief of the tribe	was a tall, manly fellow.

In each of these examples, the word or group of words marked I. names the person or thing spoken of, and the word or group of words marked II. says something about the person or thing named. Taken together, the words marked I. and those marked II. express a complete thought. Words that express a complete thought constitute what is called a SENTENCE. In every sentence, the word or group of words which names that about which something is said is called the SUBJECT; and the word or group of words which says (predicates) something of the subject is called the PREDICATE.

The subject, whether composed of one word or of twenty, does not by itself express a complete thought. The predicate, whether composed of one word or of twenty, does not by itself express a complete thought.

The subject of a sentence must be a noun or the equivalent of a noun. The predicate must contain a verb expressed or understood. The verb may constitute the whole predicate, — *e. g.*, "Hero *barks*," — or it may serve simply to connect the principal part of the predicate with the subject: *e. g.*, "The child *is* little more than ten years old." The verb "is" by itself says nothing, but it forms a connecting

link between the word "child" and the words "little more than ten years old." A verb so used to connect the subject with the words which describe it is called a COPULA.

Sentences, whether long or short, which contain but one subject and one predicate, — *e. g.*, "The man asked for water," — are called SIMPLE SENTENCES.

When I say "Brooks rows pretty well, Cooke rows very well, but Drake is the best oarsman in the boat," I put three sentences into one.

The hero came, he saw, he conquered.	The little birds sang east, and the little birds sang west.

One of these sentences contains three, the other two, complete assertions, each of which might form a simple sentence. Two or more simple sentences put into one make a COMPOUND SENTENCE.

When I say "Though both boats are made of wood, Brooks's, which was built by Smith, is much lighter than Cooke's, which was built by Robinson," I make but one principal assertion, — that Brooks's boat is much lighter than Cooke's. The other assertions in the sentence are subordinate.

As I was crossing the field, I. I saw a brown rabbit, which I shot at sight.	I. We heard no more of him till he wrote from Japan that he was about to start for New Zealand.

In each of these examples, the group of words marked I. contains the principal assertion, that on which the other assertions depend. A sentence constructed in this complicated fashion is called a COMPLEX SENTENCE. We may make a compound sentence by joining together complex sentences, or complex and simple sentences.

In compound and complex sentences, each group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate is called a CLAUSE. A clause which might stand alone is called INDEPENDENT; one which requires another clause to complete the meaning is called DEPENDENT. Two clauses of the same rank or order are called COÖRDINATE; a clause that is dependent on another, or inferior to it, is called SUBORDINATE.

In any sentence, a group of words that forms an expression by itself, but that does not contain both a subject and a predicate is called a PHRASE: *e. g.*, "At the window," "At sight."

A complete sentence may be known by the fact that it begins with a CAPITAL LETTER and ends with a FULL STOP, or PERIOD (.), an EXCLAMATION POINT (!), or an INTERROGATION POINT (?). By these simple devices a reader is told when a new sentence begins and when it ends.

Sometimes, in order to spare the reader a monotonous succession of short sentences, a skilful writer puts several such sentences between two periods, separating them from one another by semicolons (;) or colons (:).

In the construction of all but very short sentences, punctuation plays an important part. Properly managed, it helps the reader to get at the meaning of what is written or printed; for it serves to separate words that do not belong together, and to unite words that do.

III.

PARAGRAPHS

IN "The Mill on the Floss," George Eliot writes: —

> Tom rowed with untired vigor, and with a different speed from poor Maggie's. The boat was soon in the current of the river again, and soon they would be at Tofton.
>
> "Park House stands high up out of the flood," said Maggie. "Perhaps they have got Lucy there."

Each of these groups of sentences constitutes what is called a PARAGRAPH. A paragraph may contain but one

sentence, or, as in the examples given above, it may contain two sentences; but usually it contains more than two. The first line of a paragraph begins a little farther from the edge of the page than the other lines: it is — to use printers' language — INDENTED. In printed books, this rule is, for the sake of novelty, sometimes departed from, the beginning of the paragraph being indicated in some other way. In manuscript, paragraphs should always be indented.

PART I.

WORDS