

209424

NEW MANUAL
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR
FOR
INDIAN
MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

A REVISED EDITION
OF
"THE MANUAL OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

LONDON:
The Christian Literature Society for India.

All Rights Reserved.

1898.

ADVANCED ENGLISH GRAMMAR
FOR
INDIAN HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS;
WITH

Numerous Exercises and University Examination Questions.

Differences in structure between English and the Indian Vernaculars are frequently pointed out, and Students are cautioned against the mistakes into which they are most apt to fall. Corresponding Sanskrit Roots are given under Derivation.

300 pp. 12mo. Price, 14 As.

TO THE TEACHER.

PERHAPS no branch of instruction is worse taught than Grammar. A commencement is often made with dry definitions and rules, which are not thoroughly explained, and which the pupils do not know how to apply. The memory alone is exercised.

The teacher should begin with simple oral lessons. The *idea* should be given before the *term*. Thus, instead of commencing with the definition, "A Noun is the name of a person, place, or thing," let the pupils be asked to mention names of persons, places, and things. Show that these are all *names*, and then let it be explained that they are called *Nouns* in Grammar. The definition may afterwards be committed to memory.

In 1876, the Examiners in English made the following complaints regarding many of the candidates who presented themselves at the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University :—

"In the ability to quote the formal rules of *grammar* from the class book there was no general deficiency. Many, however, would apparently have learnt the rule, but would quote it short of the one important word, or would slightly alter the form of this word so as to make utter nonsense of their answers. This proves that the how and the why of the rule had never been grasped. When it came to applying the rule and giving examples of its use there was a great falling off.

"Students seem to need warning that a mechanical learning by rote of rules of syntax without practice in applying them, a knowledge of the words of the grammar and an ignorance of their practical force, is an utterly barren acquirement. The parsing was badly done throughout."

"The questions that required the correction of sentences involving common errors of *idiom* were very badly answered. The examples selected were of mistakes which are heard daily in the class room, and which must have been made many times in almost every teacher's hearing. . . . It is tolerably certain that many mistakes in everyday speech in school are allowed to pass unnoticed. These errors are nearly all of one kind, consisting of a rendering of vernacular phrases, word for word, into unidiomatic English. Those that recur oftenest are not many in number. They could easily be corrected in one day's lesson, and the right expression learnt once for all."

In the following treatise, differences in the structure of English and the Indian Vernaculars are frequently pointed out, and examples are given of the most common mistakes. Great help, however, will be derived from the REV. W. McMORDIE's *Studies in English*, Surat Mission Press.

The **Manual of English Grammar** was originally compiled many years ago by the REV. W. GRANT, M.A., of Madras. It has since been repeatedly revised, after an examination of the best English and American treatises on the subject. The aid received from the works of MORRIS, BAIN, ANGUS, SMITH and HALL, MEIKLEJOHN, DANIEL, McMORDIE, BASU, NESFIELD, ROWE and WEBB, deserves special acknowledgment.

The **New Manual of English Grammar** is intended specially for Middle Schools. Some subjects, as Derivation and Prosody, not required, have been transferred to the **Advanced Grammar** for High Schools and University Students; while Etymology and Syntax have received fuller treatment than in the *Manual of English Grammar*.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	7
ORTHOGRAPHY	8
ETYMOLOGY	12
THE NOUN	14
THE ADJECTIVE	28
THE PRONOUN	39
THE VERB	48
THE ADVERB	79
THE PREPOSITION	83
THE CONJUNCTION	86
THE INTERJECTION	88
THE SAME WORD USED FOR DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH	89
SYNTAX	93
SUBJECT AND VERB	99
THE NOUN	101
THE ADJECTIVE	106
THE ARTICLE	111
THE PRONOUN	116

	PAGE
THE VERB	123
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.	136
REPORTED SPEECH	138
THE ADVERB	145
THE PREPOSITION	149
THE CONJUNCTION	160
THE INTERJECTION	162
PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES	162
ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES	165
THE SIMPLE SENTENCE	165
THE COMPLEX SENTENCE	174
THE COMPOUND SENTENCE	180
WORD-BUILDING	184
FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS	186
PRIMARY DERIVATIVES	188
SECONDARY DERIVATIVES	190
ENGLISH PREFIXES	190
ENGLISH SUFFIXES	191
FORMATION OF DERIVATIVES	193
COMMON MISTAKES OF INDIAN STUDENTS	196
EXAMINATION QUESTIONS	199

NEW MANUAL

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. INTRODUCTION.

WE make known our thoughts by **Spoken** and **Written Language**.

Language comes from a word meaning the *tongue*. *Spoken* language was before *written* language.

Spoken Language is made up of *sounds*.

The sounds made in speaking are said to be *articulate*; while those made by dogs, &c., are called *inarticulate*. *Articulate* means *jointed*. Articulate sounds join together. Man alone is able to speak.

Written Language is made up of **letters**, which stand for sounds.

Sounds, or letters, having a meaning, form **Words**.

Two or more words having a full meaning, form a **Sentence**.

Sentence comes from a word meaning *what one thinks*.

GRAMMAR explains the proper use of language.

Grammar comes from a word meaning a *letter*.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches us to speak and write the English language correctly.

The three principal divisions of Grammar are **ORTHOGRAPHY**, **ETYMOLOGY**, and **SYNTAX**.

Orthography treats of *letters*; **Etymology**, of *words*; and **Syntax**, of *arranging words in sentences*.

Prosody, treating of *poetry*, is a fourth division of Grammar.

EXERCISES.

How do we make known our thoughts? What is the meaning of the word from which language comes? Which was first—*spoken* or *written* language? Of what is *Spoken Language* made up? What are the sounds made in speaking called? What are those made by dogs said to be? Why are articulate sounds so called? Of what is *Written Language* made up? What are *Words*? What is a *Sentence*? What does *Grammar* explain? What does *English Grammar* teach? What are the three principal parts of Grammar? Of what does Orthography treat? Of *Etymology*? *Syntax*? *Prosody*?

2. ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the forms and sounds of letters, and the right way of spelling words.

Orthography means *correct writing*.

CAPITALS AND SMALL LETTERS.

A **Letter** is a mark which stands for a simple sound.

The letters of any language are called its **Alphabet**. The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

The word **Alphabet** comes from *Alpha*, *beta*, the first two Greek letters. It is like A, B, C.

Letters have two forms—**capitals** and **small letters**.

Capitals comes from a word meaning *head*.

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

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 above are called *Roman* characters. Others, named *Italics*, are sometimes used to point out emphatic or important words. In the Bible, however, they denote that there are no words answering to them in the original.

Words intended to be very emphatic are often printed in **SMALL CAPITALS**.

Words should begin with capitals in the following situations:—

1. The first word of every sentence.
2. The first word of every line of poetry.

3. The first word of a *direct* quotation.¹
4. The names of the Supreme Being.
5. All proper names, whether nouns or adjectives.
6. The title of a person or of a book ; as, Her Majesty, Macaulay's *History of England*.
7. Common names personified, or spoken of as persons ; as, "O Death !"
8. Names of the days of the week and of the months of the year.
9. Any important word ; as, the "Reformation."
10. The words *I* and *O*.
11. Single letters standing for words ; as, B.A., M.A.

EXERCISES.

What does *Orthography* teach ? What is a *Letter* ? What are the letters of a language called ? From what does the word *Alphabet* come ? How many letters does the English alphabet contain ? What two forms have English letters ? For what are *Italics* generally used ? How are very important words sometimes printed ? When should words begin with *Capitals* ?

Correct the errors in the use of Capital Letters in the following sentences :

when socrates was Building himself a House at athens, being asked by one that observed the littleness of the Design, Why a man so eminent would not have an abode more suitable to his dignity : "i shall think Myself sufficiently Accommodated," replied he, "If i shall see that narrow Habitation filled with real friends."

anne, queen of great britain and ireland, ascended the Throne on the 8th of March, 1701 ; and Died on the 1st of august, 1714. her Reign was rendered remarkable by the Victories of the duke of marlborough on the continent of europe, And the union Between england and scotland.

. these are Thy Glorious Works, parent of Good !
 .almighty, Thine this universal frame !

the st. george Arrived at kingstown From liver-Pool on tuesday evening at Eight o'clock, and will Sail at six O'clock on thursday morning.

¹ A *quotation* is the repeating of something said or written by another. It is *direct* when the name of the author is mentioned ; as, Franklin says, "Help yourselves."

i am monarch of all i Survey,
 my right there is none to Dispute ;
 from the Centre all round to the sea,
 i am Lord of the Fowl and the Brute.
 o solitude ! Where are the charms,
 that Sages have seen in thy face ?
 better Dwell in the midst of alarms,
 than Reign in this Horrible Place.

hear the words of solomon, the Wise King of Israel : "fear god, And keep his Commandments; For this is the whole Duty of Man."

3. VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

Letters are divided into VOWELS and CONSONANTS.

A **Vowel** is a letter which can be sounded by itself.

A **Consonant** is a letter which cannot be sounded without the help of a vowel.

Vowel comes from a word which means *sounding* ; *Consonant*, from a word which means *sounding together*.

The Vowels are, **a, e, i, o, u**, with **w** and **y** when they do not begin a syllable. The remaining letters, with **w** and **y** when they begin a syllable, are **Consonants**.

The vowels have different sounds, long, short, &c. ; as, *a* in *tame*, *man*, *far*, *fall*.

The letters *w* and *y* are sometimes called *Semi-vowels* or *Half-vowels*, as they are used both as vowels and consonants.

Letters which are not sounded are said to be *silent* ; as, *g* in *sign*.

The English Alphabet is very defective. The same letter often stands for different sounds ; the same sound is represented by different letters ; letters are sometimes silent, as in *know*. Some letters, as **c**, **q**, and **x** are unnecessary : **c** may be represented by **s** or **k**, **q** by **kw**, and **x** by **ks**.

Two vowels sounded together form a **Diphthong**.

Diphthong, pronounced *dip'-thong* or *dif'-thong*, means *two sounds*.

When both vowels are heard, it is called a **proper Diphthong** ; as, *oy* in *boy*. When only one vowel is heard, it is called an **improper Diphthong** ; as, *eo* in *people*.

Three vowels sounded together form a **Triphthong** ; as, *iew* in *view*, or *eau* in *beauty*.

Triphthong, pronounced *trif'-thong* or *trip'-thong*, means *three sounds*.

EXERCISES.

How are letters divided? What is a *Vowel*? What is a *Consonant*? What do the words *Vowel* and *Consonant* mean? Name the vowels. When are *w* and *y* vowels and when consonants? How do vowels differ in sound? What are *w* and *y* sometimes called? When are letters said to be *silent*? What are the defects of the English alphabet? What is a *Diphthong*? What is a *Proper Diphthong*? What is an *Improper Diphthong*? What is a *Triphthong*?

Point out the **Vowels, Consonants, Proper and Improper Diphthongs, and Triphthongs**, in the following words:—

How, why, two, yew, window, yellow, sweetly, cow, eye, ewe, bear, buoy, house, laugh, heard, honour, piece, clean, coward, twitch, away, moan, row, yesterday, awful, hyssop, easy, beautiful, league, believe, view, thousand, noise, boy, feud.

Name six words in which **w** is a vowel, and six in which it is a consonant.

Name six words in which **y** is a vowel, and six in which it is a consonant.

Mention six words containing **Proper Diphthongs**, and six containing **Improper Diphthongs**.

4. SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A **Syllable** is as much of a word as can be sounded at once.

In every syllable there must be at least one vowel.

A **Word** is an articulate sound, having some meaning.

A **Prim'itive Word** is one in its simplest form; as, *large, good*.

A word of this kind is sometimes called a **root**.

A **Deriv'ative Word** is one that is formed from some simpler word; as, *larger, goodness*.

Primitive comes from a word meaning *first*; *Derivative* means *drawn from*.

A **Simple Word** is not made up of other words; as, *pen*.

A **Compound Word** consists of two or more simple words; as, *penknife, notwithstanding*.

A word of one syllable is called a **Mon'syllable**; of two syllables, a **Dissyllable**; of three, a **Trisyllable**; of more than three, a **Polysyllable**.

Monos means one; *dis*, two; *tris*, three; *polys*, many.

Accent is the stress of the voice upon a certain *syllable* ; as, *dif'-fer*.

Em'phasis is the stress of the voice upon an important *word*.

In writing, it is often necessary to divide words. Observe the following rules :—

1. Divide according to pronunciation ; as, ru-in.
2. Separate compound words into the simple words of which they are composed ; as, pen-man.
3. Keep the root whole in derivative words ; separate grammatical prefixes and endings ; as, re-form-er.
4. Never divide words of one syllable, or letters of the same syllable.

Compound words should not be divided, except where it is necessary at the end of a line ; thus, *likewise* should not be written *like wise*.

EXERCISES.

What is a *Syllable* ? What must there be in every syllable ? What is a *Word* ? What is a *Primitive Word* ? What is a *Derivative Word* ? What is a *Simple Word* ? What is a *Compound Word* ? How are words named according to the number of their syllables ? What is *Accent* ? What is *Emphasis* ? Repeat the rules for the division of words into syllables.

Divide the following words into syllables :

Reflection, turmoil, embarrass, dungeon, builder, rejoice, annoy, leopard, marriage, honest, treaty, neighbour, notion, sensual, justice, tuneful, symptom, unanimous, antiquity, foliage, salvation, musician, flexible, extension, condition, incomprehensible, condescend, river, lesson, continent, promises.

5. ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY treats of the arrangement of words into classes, their derivation, and the changes they undergo.

Etymology means an account of the *true origin of words*.

• The changes in the forms of words are called **Inflections**.

Inflection, or *inflexion*, comes from a word meaning to *bend in*. Thus, *man* may be changed to *men* ; *write*, to *wrote*.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The different classes into which words are divided are called **Parts of Speech**.

There are **eight** parts of speech, namely, the **Noun**, the **Adjective**, the **Pronoun**, the **Verb**, the **Adverb**, the **Preposition**, the **Conjunction**, and the **Interjection**.

The **Article** is sometimes reckoned as a distinct part of speech, but it is an **Adjective**.

The articles are *a* or *an* and *the*. The word *article* means *little joint*. Articles are always joined to nouns.

A **NOUN** is the name of a person, place, or thing ; as, *boy, Madras, book, sweetness, stone*.

Noun comes from a word meaning *name*.

An **ADJECTIVE** is a word which qualifies a Noun ; as a *good* man ; *four* boys.

Adjective means *thrown to*. It is a word *put to* or used with a Noun to tell of what kind it is.

A **PRONOUN** is a word used in place of a Noun ; as, If Rama is here, tell *him* to come.

Pro means *for*.

A **VERB** is a word which declares or tells something ; as, I *am* ; the man *works*.

Verb means *word*. There cannot be a sentence without a verb.

An **ADVERB** is a word which qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb ; as, speak *correctly* ; a *very* large mango ; you write *too* quickly.

Ad means *to*.

A **PREPOSITION** is a word placed before a Noun or a Pronoun to show how it stands to some other thing ; as, A house *on* a hill.

Preposition comes from a word meaning *placed before*.

A **CONJUNCTION** joins words or sentences ; as, Rice and curry ; John went home, *but* James remained.

Conjunction comes from a word meaning *joined together*.

An **INTERJECTION** is a word which expresses some sudden feeling ; as, *Ah ! Alas !*

Interjection comes from a word meaning *thrown between*.

EXERCISES.

Of what does *Etymology* treat? What are the changes in words called? What are *Parts of Speech*? Name the Eight Parts of Speech. What is the *Article*? What is a *Noun*? An *Adjective*? A *Pronoun*? A *Verb*? An *Adverb*? A *Preposition*? A *Conjunction*? An *Interjection*? What are the meanings of the names of the Parts of Speech? Give six examples of each of the Parts of Speech.

6. THE NOUN.

A **NOUN** is the name of a person, place, or thing.

The *name* of anything we can think of, living or lifeless, is a **Noun**. The **THING ITSELF** is not a **Noun**—only its *name*.

Nouns are divided into **FIVE CLASSES**.

I. A **Proper Noun** is the name of only one person or thing; as, John, Madras, India, Monday.

The word *proper* means *own*. A *proper name* is *one's own name*.

II. A **Common Noun** is a name that can be given to all things of the same kind; as, dog, table.

Proper Nouns are used as *Common* when they denote a class or one of the individuals of a class; as, *the Cæsars*, *the Howards*, *the Solomon* of his age.

A *Common Noun* becomes *Proper* when it points out a particular person or thing. It is then preceded by an adjective, generally the definite article *the*; as, *the Earth*.

III. A **Collective Noun** denotes a number of persons or things taken as *one*; as, *army*, *flock*, *crowd*.

Collective comes from a word meaning *gathered together*.

IV. **Material Nouns** denote the names of substances; as, *gold*, *iron*, *stone*, *wood*.

Material comes from a word meaning *matter*; that of which anything is made.

A word may be a **Material** or a **Common Noun**, according to the sense; as, *Rice* is eaten; *Rice* is a plant. In the first sentence "*rice*" is a **Material Noun**; in the second, a **Common Noun**.

V. An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality or action; as, *whiteness*, *love*, *truth*, *reading*.

The word *abstract* means *drawn off*. A quality is always found in a substance ; as *redness* in a rose. But we may *think* of it as apart from its substance. The object itself, as opposed to this, is called a *Concrete Noun* ; as, *rose*, &c.

Abstract Nouns may denote

(a) A quality ; as, *honesty*, *hardness*.

(b) A state ; as, *health*, *sleep*.

(c) A feeling or an action ; as, *pain*, *running*.

(d) Names of arts and sciences ; as, *painting*, *astronomy*.

Abstract Nouns are used as common when they denote the person possessing the quality or the thing to which the action, &c., refers. "Beauty is admired" (abstract) ; "She is a beauty" (common).

Abstract Nouns are chiefly formed from :—

1. *Adjectives* ; as, *wise*, *wisdom* ; *idle*, *idleness*.
2. *Nouns* ; as, *friend*, *friendship* ; *thief*, *theft*.
3. *Verbs* ; as, *see*, *sight* ; *think*, *thought*.

EXERCISES.

What is a *Noun* ? Is a *horse* a *Noun* ? How many classes of Nouns are there ? What is a *Proper Noun* ? What is a *Common Noun* ? When are *Proper Nouns* used as *Common* ? When are *Common Nouns* used as *Proper* ? What is a *Collective Noun* ? What does *Collective* mean ? What are *Material Nouns* ? What is the meaning of *Material* ? Give an example of a word used both as a *Material* and *Common Noun*. What is an *Abstract Noun* ? What is the meaning of *Abstract* ? What is the opposite of *Abstract* ? What does a *Concrete Noun* denote ? Name the principal classes of *Abstract Nouns*. From what are *Abstract Nouns* chiefly formed ? Give examples.

Point out the *Nouns* in the following sentences, mentioning to which classes they belong :

China is a country in Asia. The Earth is warmed by the rays of the sun. Govind told the truth. Gold is a precious metal. The police dispersed the crowd. London is the largest city in the world. The teas in the market to-day are inferior. Sunday is the first day of the week. Health is wealth. The people were divided in their opinions. Righteousness exalteth a nation. The fleet sailed yesterday. The teacher is a man of learning. The judge dismissed the jury. The officer joined his regiment.

Write out six examples of each of the five classes of Nouns. •

7. INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS.

Nouns have Gender, Number, and Case.

GENDER.

Gender is that form of the Noun which shows whether what is spoken of is *male, female, or neither*.

There are two sexes—the *male sex* and the *female sex*.

The *names* of males are of the *Masculine Gender*; the *names* of females are of the *Feminine Gender*. The *names* of things without life are *Neuter*; that is, neither Masculine nor Feminine.

The word *Gender* means *kind or class*. It belongs only to words. A *man* is of the male sex; the word *man* is of the Masculine Gender. *Masculine* comes from a word meaning *male*; *Feminine*, from a word meaning *woman*; *Neuter* means *not either*.

Words applied to both sexes are said to be of the *Common Gender*; as, *parent, child, friend, servant*.

Collective Nouns, though denoting living beings, are *Neuter*; as, *crowd, multitude*.

Young children and the lower animals are usually spoken of as *Neuter*.

Things without life are sometimes spoken of as if they were persons; as, "O gentle Sleep!" They are then said to be *personified*.¹ Such nouns are regarded as Masculine or Feminine.

Things remarkable for strength, courage, greatness, &c., are regarded as males; as, the Sun, Death, War, Time, &c.

Things giving the idea of beauty, fertility, gentleness, &c., are regarded as females; the Moon, the Earth, Hope, Virtue, &c. A sailor calls his ship "she."

EXERCISES.

How are Nouns inflected? What is *Gender*? What is the distinction between *Sex* and *Gender*? What Nouns are *Masculine*? What Nouns are *Feminine*? What Nouns are *Neuter*? Give the meanings of the terms *Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter*. When is a Noun said to be of the *Common Gender*? Of what Gender are *Collective Nouns*? Of what Gender are young children and the

¹ Made persons.

lower animals supposed to be? When are Neuter Nouns considered as Masculine or Feminine? What things are regarded as Males? What are looked upon as Females?

Write in four columns six Masculine Nouns, six Feminine Nouns, six Neuter Nouns, and six of the Common Gender.

Give six examples of Personified Nouns.

8. Gender—continued.

There are three ways of distinguishing Gender :—

I. By a different Word ; as,

Bachelor maid,	Horse, stallion ² mare
spinster ¹	Husband wife
Boar sow	King queen
Boy girl	Lord lady
Brother sister	Man woman
Buck doe	Milter (fish) spawner
Bull cow	Monk nun
Bullock, ox, or	Nephew niece
steer heifer	Papa' mamma'
Cock hen	Ram, wether ³ ewe
Colt filly	Sir, or sire... .. madam,
Dog bitch	dame ⁴
Drake... .. duck	Sire (father of dam (mother
Earl countess	colt) of colt)
Father mother	Sloven slut
Friar sister	Son daughter
Gander goose	Stag hind
Gentleman... .. lady	Uncle... .. aunt
Hart roe	Wizard witch

II. By a different Ending.

1. By adding *ess*.

Abbot, abbess	Ambassador, ambassadress •
Actor, actress	Ar'biter, arbitress
Adulterer, adulteress	Author, authoress, or author

¹ *Spinster* means a female spinner. In law it denotes an unmarried woman. In Old English *ster* was much used as a feminine suffix or ending.

² *Horse* is used for both genders. *Stallion* is used only for the male not castrated.

³ *Wether* means a castrated sheep.

⁴ *Dame* may be used for a noble lady, for the mistress of a family or of a school for young children.

Baron, bar'ness	Marquis, marchioness
Benefactor, benefactress	Master, mistress
Ca'terer, cateress	Mayor, mayoress
Chanter, chantress	Murderer, murderess
Conductor, conductress	Negro, negress
Count, count'ess	Patron, patroness
Dauphin (daw'fin), dauphiness	Peer, peeress
Dea'con, dea'coness	Poet, poetess, or poet
Duke, duchess	Priest, priestess
Elector, electress	Prince, princess
Emperor, empress	Prior, prioress
Enchanter, enchantress	Prophet, prophetess
Giant, giantess	Protector, protectress
God, goddess	Shepherd, shepherdess
Governor, governess	Songster, songstress
Heir, heiress	Sorcerer, sorceress
Host, hostess	Tiger, tigress
Hunter, huntress	Traitor, traitress
Jew, Jewess	Tutor, tutoress
Lad, lass	Vi'scount, viscountess
Lion, lioness	Votary, votaress

The ending *ess* was taken from the French.

Governess now means a tutoress or instructress.

Songster is usually applied to birds. *Singer* is now used both for men and women.

2. By other endings.

Administrator	administratrix	Hero	heroine
Director	directrix, or directress	Joseph	Josephine
		Paul	Pauline
Exec'utor	executrix	Landgrave	landgravine
Testa'tor	testatrix	Margrave	margravine
Widower	widow	Alexander	Alexandrina
Beau (bo)	belle (bel)	Czar	czarina (za-ré'-na)
Fox	vixen	Sultan	sulta'na

Trix is used in a few Nouns taken directly from the Latin. *En* was an old English feminine ending. *Vixen* now means a bad-tempered woman.

III. By placing a word before or after.

1. By placing a word before.

Bull-calf	cow-calf	Male-child	female-child
Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	Male-servant	female-servant
He-ass (jack-ass)	she-ass	Man-servant	maid-servant
He-goat	she-goat	Man-kind	woman-kind

2. *By placing a word after.*

Bridegroom	bride	Milk-man	milk-maid
Foster-father	foster-mother	Pea-cock	pea-hen
Gentle-man	gentle-woman	Step-father	step-mother
Grand-father	grand-mother	Step-son	step-daughter
Land-lord	land-lady	Washer-man	Washer-woman

Widower and bridegroom are formed from the feminine. *Groom* denotes *man*.

EXERCISES.

What are the three ways of distinguishing Gender ?

What is the GENDER of—king, duck, shepherd, beauty, heart, flock, woman, widower, boy, companion, lady, uncle, Mary, virtue, master, bride, husband, witness, aunt, head, parent, wisdom, Charles, prince, empress, Belfast, cousin, nun ?

What is the FEMININE of—hero, nephew, lord, stag, abbot, marquis, hart, duke, sultan, host, ram, brother, testator, male-child, giant, wizard, executor, beau, monk, bullock, viscount, margrave, carl, director, he-goat, sloven, buck ?

Give five examples of each of the three ways of distinguishing Gender.

Let the pupils question each other on the Gender of Nouns.

9. NUMBER.

NUMBER shows whether one is meant, or more than one. When a Noun denotes *one* thing, it is said to be of the **Singular Number**. When a Noun denotes *more than one*, it is said to be of the **Plural Number**.

Singular means *one*; *Plural*, *more*. The difference in the Numbers is usually shown by a change in the form of the word.

GENERAL RULE.—The **Plural** is generally formed by adding **s** to the **Singular**; as, pen, pens; boy, boys.

SPECIAL RULES.—1. Nouns ending in **s**, **sh**, **ch** soft, **x** or **z**, form the Plural by adding **es**; as, loss, losses; bush, bushes; watch, watches; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.

The vowel **e** is added to such words, because they could not otherwise be properly pronounced.

When **ch** has the sound of **k**, **s** only is added; as monarch, monarchs.

2. Most Nouns in *o* add **es** to the Plural; as, buffalo, buffaloes; echo, echoes; hero, heroes; mango, mangoes; negro, negroes; potato, potatoes.

A few Nouns in less common use ending in *o*, with all words ending in *oo* and *io*, add *s* only; as, canto, cantos; grotto, grottos; quarto, quartos; bamboo, bamboos; folio, folios; nuncio, nuncios.

3. *Y* after a consonant is changed into **ies**; but not after a vowel; as city, cities; day, days; journey, journeys.

Nouns ending in **quy** take *ies*; as, obsequy, obsequies.

Proper names in **y** do not usually change the **y**; as, Henry, Henrys; Mary, Marys. But *Henries* and *Maries* are also used. Grammarians differ on this point.

4. Most Nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into **ves** in the Plural; as, calf, calves; half, halves; life, lives; wolf, wolves.

But Nouns in *ief*, *oof*, *ff*, *rf*, usually take *s* only; as, chief, chiefs; grief, griefs; hoof, hoofs; roof, roofs; serf, serfs.

Exceptions: *thief* makes *thieves*; *fife*, *fifes*; *strife*, *strifes*. *Staff* has often *staves*, but its compounds follow the general rule; as, *flagstaffs*. *Scarf* has *scarfs* and *scarves*; *wharf* has *wharfs* and *wharves*.

EXERCISES.

What does *Number* show? What are the two Numbers? What does the *Singular* denote? What does the *Plural* denote? How is the Plural generally formed? What nouns form the Plural by adding *es*? Why is the letter *c* added to such words? How does *ch* hard form the Plural? How do most Nouns in *o* form the Plural? What are the exceptions? When does *y* remain unchanged in the Plural, and when is it changed? How do Nouns in *f* or *fe* form the Plural? Which Nouns ending in *f* usually take *s* only? What are the exceptions? Mention six Nouns that form the Plural by adding *es*. Mention six Nouns in which *y* is unchanged in the Plural, and six in which it is changed. Name six Nouns that change *f* into *v* in the Plural, and six which do not change *f* into *v*.

10. Number—*continued.*

5. Some Nouns form their Plural by a vowel change ; as, *man, men* ; *woman, women* ; *foot, feet* ; *goose, geese* ; *tooth, teeth* ; *louse, lice* ; *mouse, mice*.

Coachman has *coachmen* ; Dutchman, Dutchmen ; Englishman, Englishmen ; but German has Germans ; Norman, Normans ; Brahman has Brahmins, and Mussalman, Mussalmans ; but in these cases the terminations are not the English word *man*.

6. A few Nouns form their Plural in *en* ; as, *ox, oxen* ; *child, children*.

The two foregoing cases are old Plurals. The Plural of *cow* was formerly *kine*. *Cows* is now generally used.

7. Some Nouns are the same in both Numbers ; as, *deer, sheep, swine, salmon, cannon, species*.

The number is shown by other words in the sentence.

In reckoning, the Nouns, *yoke, head, pair, dozen, score, hundred, &c.*, are used in the Plural without *s* ; as, *five head of cattle, two dozen, &c.* In expressions like *10,000 foot, 1,000 horse*, the noun soldiers is understood.

8. Some Nouns have different meanings in different Numbers :—

Singular.

Good, *welfare*.
Iron, *the metal*.
Force, *strength*.
Air, *atmosphere*.
Spectacle, *sight*.

Plural.

Goods, *property*.
Irons, *fetters made of iron*.
Forces, *army*.
Airs, *behaviour*.
Spectacles, *glasses for the eyes*.

9. Some Nouns have two Plurals with different meanings :—

Beef, *beefs* (kinds of beef), *beeves* (oxen) ; Brother, *brothers* (sons of the same father), *brethren* (of the same society) ; cloth, *cloths* (kinds of cloth), *clothes* (dress) ; die, *dies* (stamps for coining), *dice* (for play) ; fish, *fish* (kind), *fishes* (number) ; genius, *geniuses* (very clever persons), *genii* (spirits) ; index, *indexes* (to a book), *indices* (signs in algebra) ; pea, *peas* (separate seed), *pease* (collection) ; penny, *pennies* (separate coins), *pence* (collective) ; shot, *shot* (the number of balls), *shots* (the number of times fired).

10. Proper, Material, and Abstract Nouns have no Plurals except when they are used as Common Nouns.

Proper Nouns take a Plural when they apply to several persons ; as, the Cæsars. Material Nouns have Plurals when different *sorts* are meant ; as, wines, oils. Abstract Nouns have Plurals when they denote different acts of the quality named ; as, He has many virtues. In such cases the Nouns are used as common.

Furniture, information, and some other words are not used in the Plural. This applies to *abuse*, when used in the sense of bad language.

EXERCISES.

By what change do some Nouns form the Plural ? Give examples and exceptions. What Plural ending do some Nouns take instead of *s* or *es* ? Give examples. Name six Nouns which are the same in both Numbers. Give six examples of Nouns with two Plurals having different meanings. Mention four Nouns having different meanings in different Numbers. What Nouns are generally used only in the Singular ? When do Proper, Material, and Abstract Nouns take the Plural ? What is the meaning of *wines, oils* ?

11. Number—continued.

11. Some Nouns have no Singular form.

These are generally the names of things of more parts than one ; as, bellows, pincers, scissors, spectacles, clothes, trousers. The following are other examples :—annals, billiards, Commons (House of), dregs, measles, oats, nuptials, proceeds (of a sale), vitals.

12. Some Nouns, Plural in form, are generally treated as Singular.

Such are the names of certain sciences derived from the Greek ; as, ethics, hydrostatics, mathematics, mechanics, optics, physics, politics. *News* is singular.

13. Some Nouns, Plural in form, are used in both Numbers according to the sense ; as, series, species. Means, pains, alms and riches, properly Singular, are now generally Plural.

14. The Plural of Compound Nouns is generally formed by inflecting the principal Noun ; as, *maid-servants, sons-in-law, major-generals*.

The sign of the Plural is generally put on the last word when it ends in *-ful*, or when its meaning is incomplete till the whole is known ; as, *spoonfuls*, *three-per-cents*. Some compound Nouns have both the words inflected ; as, *men-servants*, *women-servants*, *knights-templars*, *lords-justices*.

We may say either the *Miss Browns* or the *Misses Brown*. In addressing letters the second form is used.

15. The Plural of letters and arithmetical figures is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s* ; as, *B.A.'s* ; *5's*.

16. Many Nouns taken from other languages keep their own Plurals.

(1.) Nouns ending in *is* change the *is* into *es* ; as, *axis*, *axes* ; *basis*, *bases* ; *crisis*, *crises*.

(2.) Nouns ending in *um* or *on* change *um* and *on* into *a* in the plural ; as, *datum*, *data* ; *phenomenon*, *phenomena*.

(3.) Most Nouns in *us* change *us* into *i* ; as, *focus*, *foci*. But *genus* has *genera*.

(4.) Nouns ending in *ex* or *ix* change them into *ices* ; as, *apex*, *apices* ; *appendix*, *appendices*, and *appendixes*.

(5.) Formula has *formulae* ; cherub, *cherubim* ; seraph, *seraphim* ; beau, *beaux* (*bōz*) ; monsieur, *messieurs* ;¹ bandit, *banditti*.

The present tendency is to reject foreign plurals ; cherubs, formulas, bandits, &c., are also used.

Some foreign Nouns are used only in the Plural ; as, *aborigines*, *antipodes*, *archives*, *literati*, *minutiae*.

EXERCISES.

Name six Nouns used only in the Plural. Mention six Nouns, Plural in form, but *generally* treated as Singular. Mention Nouns used in both numbers. How are the Plurals of Compound Nouns generally formed ? How is the Plural of letters and arithmetical figures formed ? How do many Nouns from other languages form the Plural ? How do foreign Nouns in *is* form the Plural ? Nouns in *um* or *on* ? Most Nouns in *us* ? Name an exception. Nouns in *ex* or *ix* ? Give the Plurals of formula, seraph, &c. Mention some foreign Nouns used only in the Plural.

Form the Plural of the following Nouns, and give the rule for each :

Man, cap, table, tax, leaf, hoax, hero, stone, princess, queen, foot, lash, wolf, arch, hobby, nuncio, cargo, folio, deer, mass, copy,

¹ Pronounced *mōs-yur* ; *mesh-yerz*.

monarch, study, ray, sex, loaf, coach, shirt, bunch, watch, half, penny, negro, buffalo, child, sky, couch, delay, lynx, beauty, peach, woe, knife, calf, ally, thief, volcano, genius, heresy, attorney, staff, distaff, stomach, valley, journey, wife, self, box, echo, joy, ass, sheriff, tetrarch, essay, sow, ox, sheaf, fish, cross, baby, kiss, army, story, tyro, money.

Father-in-law, basis, appendix, mouthful, bandit, maid-servant, governor-general, formula, crisis, court-martial, erratum, cherub, M.A., phenomenon, beau, Miss Fraser, man-servant, monsieur, seraph, genus, knight-templar, apex, datum, nebula, arcanum, oasis, alumnus, lord-justice.

Spell the Singular of:—Shelves, cities, attorneys, mice, sheep, scissors, churches, potatoes, dice, indexes, loaves, bunches, mangoes, sons-in-law, measles, brethren, chimneys, teeth, griefs, toes, deer, children, news, geniuses, genii, soliloquies, bellows, ponies.

Let the Pupils question each other on the Plural of Nouns.

12. CASE.

CASE is that form of the Noun which shows its relation to some other word in the sentence.

English Nouns have three principal Cases : the **Nominative**, **Possessive**, and **Objective**.

The **Nominative** names the Agent, or one who does something ; as, Govind brought a slate.

Nominative comes from a word which means *naming*.

The **Possessive** denotes the *possessor* or owner ; as, Rama's book.

The **Objective** denotes the *object*, or that to which something is done ; as, Krishna caught a *bird*.

The Nominative and Objective are *alike* in form.

The two Cases are known by their position or the sense. The Nominative generally comes *before* the verb, and the Objective *after* it ; as, Rama struck Govind: To find the Nominative, ask a question by putting *who* or *what* before the verb, and the answer will be the Nominative. When a Noun in the Objective is governed by a verb, it answers to the question formed by putting *whom* or *what* before the verb and its subject. Thus, *Who* struck Govind ? Rama (Nominative). *Whom* did Rama strike ? Govind (Objective).

The Possessive is formed by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* to the Nominative; as, Joseph's.

Apostrophe means *turned away*. It is so named because it shows that something has been left out. In Old English the Possessive ended in *es*. The *e* was left out, and an *apostrophe* was put in its place.

The Possessive is now the only case which changes its form.

Possession is often expressed by *of*; as, The book of Rama.

When the Plural ends in *s*, the Possessive is formed by adding only an *apostrophe*; as, *books'*. When the Plural does not end in *s*, the Possessive is formed as in the Singular; as, *men's*.

Only the *apostrophe* is added when the plural ends in *s* to avoid too many hissing sounds. For the same reason, the letter *s* is sometimes omitted in the singular, especially before "*sake*;" as, "*Moses' rod*;" "*for conscience' sake*." But it is added in St. James's, Chambers's Journal, &c.

The Possessive is generally used only with living beings or personified objects.

We may say "*the fox's tail*," but not "*the house's roof*." In the latter case the preposition *of* is used instead of the inflection; as, "*the roof of the house*." *Of* is also used with Compound Nouns in the plural; as, "*the estates of my brothers-in-law*."

Nouns denoting time or space or dignified objects may take the *apostrophe* and *s*; as, "*a day's journey*," "*a stone's throw*," "*the court's decree*."

Collective Nouns, even when denoting living beings, cannot take the Possessive case. We cannot say "*the multitude's uproar*."

EXERCISES.

What is *Case*? Name the principal Cases of English Nouns. What does the *Nominative* express? What is the meaning of the word *Nominative*? What does the *Possessive* denote? What is understood by the *Objective*? What two Cases are alike in form? How is the *Nominative* known? How the *Objective*? How is the Possessive Singular generally formed? What does the word *apostrophe* mean? Why is it so named? What has been left out? What is the only Case that changes its form? How is Possession often expressed? How is the Possessive Plural formed? Why is

s sometimes omitted? What is used instead of the Possessive in the case of inanimate objects? What are the exceptions to this? What case do Collective Nouns not take?

Change the Possessives into Objectives with of:—A man's arm. This boy's sum is not correct. Ladies' shoes. Cowper's Letters. The woman's cries. The flies' stings. The gentleman's horse is dead. Milton's Poetical Works. Four oxen's heads. The soldiers' camp. Charles's affairs. Children's toys. Insects' wings. A nation's tears. Some men's promises.

Put the following into the Possessive form:—The servants of the king. The flowers of autumn. The songs of the girls. The dresses of the boys. The quarrels of the soldiers. The mane of the horse. The colour of the ox. The commanders of the armies. The work of six men. The lesson of Krishna is difficult. The dens of the tigers. John took the slate of William. The wool of the sheep.

13. Case—continued.

When a name consists of several words, the sign of the Possessive is added only to the last; as, William the Conqueror's tomb.

When there are two or more separate Nouns in the Possessive case, the sign is added to the *last word* when *joint possession is meant*; as, "Govind and Krishna's horse" (one horse).

But when *separate possession is meant*, the sign is added to *each Noun*; as "Govind's and Krishna's horses" (two horses).

Both *of* and *'s* are used when one of a number of things of the same kind in possession is expressed; as, "This is a book of Govind's," that is, Govind has many books, and this is one of them.

The giving of the Cases of Nouns is called the **Declension, Declining, or Inflection** of them.

Declension and declining come from words meaning *bending down*. The Nominative was represented by an upright line; the other cases were denoted by slanting lines.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	lady	ladies	man	men	ox	oxen
<i>Poss.</i>	lady's	ladies'	man's	men's	ox's	oxen's
<i>Obj.</i>	lady	ladies	man	men	ox	oxen

Some English Grammarians give the **Vocative**¹ and **Dative** as separate Cases. The **Vocative** is used in calling; as, "*Brother, come.*" It is also called the *Nominative of Address*. The **Dative**² denotes the person *to whom* a thing is given, or *for whom* a thing is done; as, He gave *him* a mango; Make *me* a kite. The Dative generally denotes the *Indirect*³ object; the Objective the *Direct* object.

The Vocative, Dative, and Objective are alike in form.

EXERCISES.

When a name consists of several words, where is the sign of the Possessive placed? Where is the sign of the Possessive placed when *joint* possession is meant? Where when *separate* possession is meant? When are *of* and *'s* used? What is the giving of the Cases of Nouns called? Why was this called their *Declension*? *Decline*—boy, ship, house, child, baby, uncle, goose, Thomas, mouse, fox, calf, gentleman, brother.

How are the Cases increased to five? How is the *Vocative* used? What is it also called? What does the *Dative* denote? What are the *Direct* and *Indirect* Objects?

Spell or write the Possessive Singular and Plural of:—Eagle, fox, sheep, cat, sea, bee, girl, woman, sky, chief, dog, army, goose, deer, thief, fly, hero, niece.

14. Parsing of Nouns.

Parsing means telling the *parts* of speech of words and their relations to other words in the sentence.

Parsing comes from a word meaning *part* (of speech).

In parsing *Nouns*, give 1. *The Kind* (Common, Proper, &c.). 2. *The Number*. 3. *The Gender*. 4. *The Case*. 5. *The Relation to other words*.

The following is an example:—

Rama bought a book.

Rama, Noun, proper, masculine, singular, nominative, subject of *bought*.

¹ From a word which means *calling*. ² From a word which means *giving*.
³ *Indirect* means *not direct*.

Book, Noun, common, neuter, singular, objective, object of *bought*.

Time is saved by omitting the words *gender*, *number*, and *case*.

EXERCISES.

Mention the Number, Gender, and Case of the Nouns in the following Sentences:—

Ships cross the sea. The king sat on his throne. London is the capital of England. The ostrich lays her eggs on the open sand. Give me my pen. Rama built a house in the garden. Carpenter, make me a table. Govind's sister was Krishna's wife. The boy's task was difficult. Peter fell from John's horse. Rama, come here. The master's kindness won the scholar's love. This man's father makes shoes. The crowd followed the king. The master gave a book to each scholar. Honesty is the best policy. Many men have died for conscience' sake. The people were divided in their opinions. Tell John to hear the boys' lessons. When did the postman come with my father's letters? Iron is the most useful metal. Give a dog a bad name and hang him.

Make six sentences, each containing a Nominative, a Possessive, and an Objective.

Make six sentences, each containing a Direct and an Indirect Objective.

Make four sentences, each containing a Vocative.

Parse the Nouns in the Reading Lesson.

15. THE ADJECTIVE.

An ADJECTIVE is a word joined to a Noun to limit or confine its meaning.

The word "strong" joined to "men" shuts out all who are not strong.

An Adjective may qualify another Adjective; as, a *red* hot bar of iron.

An Adjective is used *attributively* when it is joined to the noun which it qualifies; as, a *wise* king.

An Adjective is used *predicatively* when it forms part of the predicate of a sentence; as, the king is *wise*.

Some Nouns are used as Adjectives; as, a *gold* ring.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives may be divided into four principal classes : Adjectives of **Quality**, Adjectives of **Quantity**, **Numeral** Adjectives, and **Demonstrative** Adjectives.

I. Adjectives of **Quality** show the quality or state of the thing named ; as, a *fat* man.

Quality comes from a word meaning of *what kind* ? Most Adjectives belong to this class. They may be divided into **Common** and **Proper**. **Proper** Adjectives are formed from Proper Nouns ; as, *Indian*, *English*.

II. Adjectives of **Quantity** refer to bulk or size. They show *how much* of a thing is meant ; as, *much*, *little*, *some*.

Quantity comes from a word meaning *how much*.

III. **NUMERAL ADJECTIVES** show *how many* are meant or *in what order* ; as, *four*, *first*.

IV. **DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES** *point out* the thing spoken of ; as *this*, *the*.

The above four classes respectively answer the questions : (1) *Of what sort* ? (2) *How much* ? (3) *How many* ? (4) *Which* ?

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

Most Adjectives of Quality have three degrees of **Comparison** : the **Positive**, **Comparative**, and **Superlative**.

The word *degrees* means *steps*. *Comparison* means *placing things together to see how they differ*. *Positive* comes from a word meaning *placed, laid down*. *Superlative* means *carried above others*.

The **Positive** expresses the *simple* quality ; the **Comparative**, a *higher* or *lower* degree of the quality ; the **Superlative**, the *highest* or *lowest* degree ; as, *kind*, *kinder*, *kindest* ; *kind*, *less kind*, *least kind*.

The **Comparative** is used when *two* objects are compared ; the **Superlative** when there are *more than two*.

Proper Adjectives are not compared ; nor **Common** Adjectives of Quality which do not allow of change ; as, *golden*, *circular*, *right*, *left*, *weekly*, &c.

EXERCISES.

What is an *Adjective*? What may Adjectives qualify besides Nouns? When is an Adjective used *attributively*? When *Predicatively*? What words are sometimes used as Adjectives? Name the four principal classes of Adjectives. What do Adjectives of *Quality* show? What is the meaning of the word from which *quality* comes? Into what two classes are Adjectives of *Quality* divided? How are Proper Adjectives formed? What do Adjectives of *Quantity* show? What is the meaning of the word from which *quantity* comes? What do *Numeral* Adjectives show? How are *Demonstrative* Adjectives used? What does *Demonstrative* mean? What questions do such Adjectives answer? Name the *Degrees* of *Comparison*. Explain the terms *Degrees*, *Comparison*, *Positive*, and *Superlative*. What does the *Positive* express? The *Comparative*? The *Superlative*? When is the *Comparative* used? When the *Superlative*? What Adjectives of *Quality* are not compared?

Place an *Adjective* before each of the following *Nouns*:—Desk, ball, kite, pictures, sea, mountain, garden, cloth, mangoes, soldier, journey, peacock, river, sparrow, princes, uncle, girl, father, road, table, house.

Name the *Adjectives* in the *Reading Lesson*, stating the *Nouns* they qualify.

16. Rules of Comparison.

Adjectives of *one* syllable are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the *Positive*; as, hard, harder, hardest.

When the *Positive* ends in *e*, the letters *r* and *st* only are added; as, wise, wiser, wisest.

When the *Positive* ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed into *i* before *er* and *est*; as dry, drier, driest.

If a vowel precedes *y*, it is not changed into *i*; as, gay, gayer, gayest.

If the *Adjective* ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled, as, red, redder, reddest. But if it ends in two consonants, or has two vowels before the final consonant, the latter is not doubled; as, thick, thicker, thickest; weak, weaker, weakest.

Adjectives of more than two syllables, and most Adjectives of two syllables, are compared by prefixing **more** and **most**, or **less** and **least**; as, beautiful, *more* beautiful, *most* beautiful; diligent, *less* diligent, *least* diligent.

Adjectives of two syllables ending in **e**, **ow**, or **y**, may also be compared like Adjectives of one syllable; as, able, *abler*, *ablest*; narrow, *narrower*, *narrowest*; happy, *happier*, *happiest*.

EXERCISES.

How are Adjectives of one syllable generally compared? When are **r** and **st** only added? How are Adjectives of one syllable ending in **y** compared? When is the final consonant doubled? How are Adjectives of two or more syllables compared? What are the exceptions?

Tell, spell, and write the Comparative and Superlative of the following Adjectives:—

Ample, gentle, firm, numerous, indefatigable, calm, sober, merry, cheerful, coy, weary, delicate, large, pretty, rich, rigorous, long, short, excellent, black, tender, gloomy, stern, sly, fat, thin, droll.

Give the Positive of the following Adjectives:— Gentler, wealthiest, slenderer, dimmest, youngest, heavier, clearest, fatter, whitest, serenest, sadder, easiest, duller, gayest, madder, noblest.

17. Rules of Comparison—continued.

Some Adjectives are compared Irregularly¹:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Far	farther	farthest
Forth (<i>adv.</i>)	further	furthest
Fore	former	foremost, first
Good, well	better	best
Hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost
In (<i>prep.</i>)	inner	inmost, innermost
Late	{ later (time) latter (order)	latest last
Little	less, lesser	least
Many (number)	more	most
Much (quantity)	more	most

¹ Not regularly.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Near	nearer	nearest, next
Nigh	nigher	nighest, next
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
Out (<i>adv.</i>)	outer, utter	outmost, utmost
Top (noun)		uttermost
Up (<i>prep.</i>)	upper	topmost
		upmost, uppermost

Better, worse, less, more, come from Positives no longer in use.

Farther is used for the *more* distant of two objects. *Further* means *more* in advance or *additional*.

Later refers to *time*, and is opposed to *earlier*; *latter* denotes *order*, and is opposed to *former*.

Many refers to *number*; *much* to *quantity*.

Older and *oldest* are used of both persons and things; *elder* and *eldest* of persons only, and chiefly with reference to members of the same family.

Some Adjectives have no Positive; as *under*, *undermost*; some have no Comparative; as, *southern*, *southernmost*.

The Superlative may also be expressed by "King of kings;" "bravest of the brave."

The Comparative Degree is generally followed by *than*; as, He is wiser than his brother. But some Adjectives ending in *-ior* are followed by *to*; as, This is superior *to* that. Other Adjectives in *-ior* and some English Comparatives, as, *former*, *latter*, &c., are used simply as Adjectives in the Positive Degree; as, the *interior* parts, the *latter* rain. They do not take *than* or *to* after them.

The syllable *ish* is sometimes added to the Positive, to lessen its signification; as *black*, *blackish*. When the Positive ends in *e*, the *e* is omitted before *ish*; as, *white*, *whitish*.

The Adverb *very* is often prefixed to the Positive to increase its signification by expressing a degree of quality somewhat less than the greatest or Superlative degree; as, *wise*, *very wise*. *Too* is sometimes wrongly used for *very*; as, "Yesterday was too hot," instead of, "Yesterday was very hot."

Double Comparatives or Superlatives are improper; thus, *more stronger* ought to be only *stronger*.

EXERCISES.

Name some Adjectives which are compared irregularly. What do *better*, *worse*, *less*, and *more* come from? How are *farther* and *further* used? How do *later* and *latter* differ? How do *many* and *much* differ? How are *older* and *elder* used? What do some Adjectives want? How is the Superlative sometimes expressed?

By what word is the Comparative followed? What are the exceptions? How is the signification of the Positive sometimes lessened? Spell *white* and *whitish*. Why is the Adverb *very* often prefixed to an Adjective? What word is sometimes wrongly used for *very*? What is wrong in *more stronger*?

Point out the **Adjectives** and name the **Degree of Comparison** in the following sentences:—

London is the largest and wealthiest city in the world. The old man has a sharp knife. The inner garden contains some beautiful plants. I met a blind boy with a white dog. The first prize was won by a little girl. Lead is heavier than silver. He died in the worst inn's worst room. The poor man has a wooden leg. The large black dog has a curly tail. This is a most interesting book. The brave sailor crosses the wild stormy seas. Which of the two is the larger? Which of the three is the finest? This rose is white.

Correct the following Errors:—

He expects to see more happier days. You have got the lesser share. This book is more cheaper than that. Govind is the sharper of the four boys. Autumn is the interestingest season of the year. Tuesday was more cold than Monday. This summer is hotter than the latest. Robert is more taller than William. Solomon was the wisest man; Methuselah was the eldest. Jane is livelier than Mary. This is the beautifulest flower I ever saw. My hat is littler than yours, but his is the littlest of the three. Rama is the negligentest boy in the class. This is the largest of the two, but that is the most beautiful.

Mention six Adjectives which cannot be compared.

18. ADJECTIVES OF QUANTITY AND NUMBER.

Adjectives of Quantity refer to *bulk* or *size*; as, *much*, *little*, *great*, *small*, *some*, *any*.

Little means *hardly any*; as, "I have *little* money." *A little* means *some*, as, "I have *a little* money."

Numeral Adjectives refer to *number*; as, *four*, *many*.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES are divided into three classes:

Definite, Indefinite, and Distributive.

I. Definite Numeral Adjectives denote **exact numbers**.

Definite means fixed, exact.

They are divided into three kinds :

1. *Cardinal* Numerals denote *how many* ; as, *ten, four.*

Cardinal comes from a word meaning a *hinge*, that on which a thing turns, the principal part.

2. *Ordinal* numbers denote *what place in order* ; as, *third, tenth.*

Ordinal numbers may also be classed as Demonstrative Adjectives.

3. *Multiplicatives* show how often a thing is repeated.

Multiplicative means *having the power to increase*. Words of this class are formed by adding *-fold, -ble, or -ple* ; as, *threefold, double, triple.*

II. *Indefinite Numeral Adjectives* do not denote any exact number ; as, *all, any, certain, few, many, much, more, most, no, none, several, some, &c.*

Indefinite means *not definite, not fixed.*

All, any, much, no, none, some, &c., denote either *number* or *bulk*, according to the sense.

Any means (1) *one out of many* ; as "*Any body may enter ;*" (2) *some* ; as, "*Did any persons see him ?*"

Few means a small number, and is opposed to *many* ; as, "*I have read few books.*" *A few* means *some*, and is opposed to *none* ; as, "*I have read a few books.*" *The few* means *all* though a small number ; as, "*I have read the few books I have.*" "*Not a few*" is emphatic for *many*.

Several denotes a small number.

None strictly means *not one*.

Many, although plural in meaning, may be joined with a singular noun preceded by *a* ; as, *many a man*. Each is supposed to be taken singly.

• III. *Distributive Numeral Adjectives* denote that things are taken one at a time. They are *each, every, either, neither, several, other.*

Distributive means *giving one by one.*

Each, every, either, neither are joined to singular nouns.

Each means two or more things taken one by one.

Either generally means *one of two* ; but it also sometimes means *each of two* ; as *on either side, on both sides.*

Neither means *not either.*

Every means *all* of a number of things, more than two, taken singly.

Several means *different and each to his own*; as, They went to their *several* homes.

Other means *different from* what has been mentioned. It is sometimes added to *each*, giving it a reciprocal¹ force; as, Be kind to each other. *Another* means *one more*; as, Bring *another*.

EXERCISES.

To what do Adjectives of *Quantity* refer? What is the difference between "little" and "a little?" To what do *Numeral* Adjectives refer? Name the three classes into which they are divided. What do *Definite* Numeral Adjectives denote? Name the three classes into which they are subdivided. What do *Cardinal* Numerals denote? What is the meaning of *Cardinal*? What do *Ordinal* numbers denote? How are they also classified? What do *Multiplicatives* denote? How are they formed? Give examples. What are *Indefinite* Numeral Adjectives? What do some of them denote besides number? Give the meaning of *a few, none, many*. What are *Distributive* Numeral Adjectives? Name them. What is the meaning of *Distributive*? Give the meaning of the *Distributive* Adjective Pronouns.

19. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

The principal **Demonstrative** Adjectives are *a* or *an*, *the*, *this*, *that*, *yon*, *yonder*, *such*.

A or **an** and **the** are called **ARTICLES**.

An **Article** is a word which points to a Noun, and shows the extent of its meaning.

Article comes from a word meaning *a little joint*. Articles are always joined to Nouns or words used as Nouns.

A or **an** is called the **Indefinite** Article, because it does *not* point out *some one* person or thing; as *a* book; that is, *any* book.

The is called the **Definite** Article, because it points out *some one* person or thing; as, *the* queen; that is, the queen of our *own* country; or the queen that was spoken of.

¹ Acting each on the other.

A and **an** were originally *æ* and *ane*, meaning *one*; as *æ* man; *ane* angel. They still express oneness, but not at all forcibly. They are properly Numeral Adjectives.

The is a weaker form of *that*.

A is used before a *consonant*; as, *a* man. **An** is used before a *vowel*, or silent *h*; as, *an* age, *an* hour.

A is used before the long sound of *u*, and before *w* and *y*; as, *a* unit, *a* ewe, *a* week, *a* year. We also say, such *a* one. **An** is used before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an* heroic action; *an* historical account.

A or *an* is employed according as the one or the other is more pleasing to the ear when pronounced along with the word which follows.

EXERCISES.

Name the principal *Demonstrative Pronouns*. Name the *Articles*. What is an *Article*? Why is **a** called the *Indefinite Article*? Why is **the** called the *Definite Article*? When is **a** used? When is **an** used?

Correct the following errors and give the rule:—An coast, an man, an dog, a orange, a ear-ring, an hero, an hook, a army, an youth, an uniform, an tree, an hand, a hour, an history, a end.

Place the Indefinite Article before the following Nouns:—Apple, horse, year, wave, house, hour, ewer, ant, honour, hope, writer, planet, herb, yew, unicorn, hotel.

Explain the differences between the following sentences:—I saw a boy in a field. I saw the boy in a field. I saw a boy in the field. I saw the boy in the field. *Correct*, "Horse kicked man," giving the four ways in which it may be written.

20. The Articles—continued.

A Noun without an Article is generally taken in its widest sense; as, *Man* is mortal; that is, *all mankind*.

As a *General Rule*, the Article is placed before *Common Nouns* in the *Singular*, and left out before *Proper Nouns*; thus, "I saw horse," ought to be, "I saw *a* (or *the*) horse;" "He went to the Calcutta," ought to be, "He went to Calcutta."

Proper Nouns, and *Abstract Nouns* used as *Common*, have *Articles* placed before them; as, "*The Himalayas*" (among mountains); "*The industry of Krishna*."

A or **an** is used before Nouns in the Singular Number only.

A is used before the *plural* in Nouns preceded by such phrases as, *a few, a great many*; as, *a few books*; *a great many apples*.

The is used before Nouns in both Numbers.

In the phrase "*The more I know him,*" *the* is an adverb, representing a different word equal to *by that*.

A fuller account of the use of the Articles is given under SYNTAX.

The Demonstrative Adjectives, **this** and **that**, have plural forms, **these** and **those**.

This and **these** are applied to persons or things near at hand, or last named; **that** and **those** to persons or things at a distance in time or place.

That is a Relative Pronoun when it can be turned into *who* or *which*; a Demonstrative Adjective when it is placed immediately before a Noun expressed or understood—or when its place can be supplied by *the*.

This and *that* are sometimes classed as Adjective Pronouns.

Yon and **yonder** are applied to things at a distance. They are now mostly confined to poetry. **Yonder** is properly an Adverb.

Such means *so-like, like that*.

EXERCISES.

How is a Noun without an Article to be generally understood? What is the General Rule for inserting and omitting the Articles? When may the Article be used before Proper Nouns? Before which Number is **a** used? When may **a** be used before Plural Nouns? Before which Number is **the** used? Which Demonstrative Adjectives have Plural forms? How are *this* and *that* used? When is *that* a Relative Pronoun, when a Demonstrative Adjective? How are *yon* and *yonder* used? What does *such* mean?

21. ADJECTIVES—continued.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

Adjective Pronouns, or **Pronominal**¹ **Adjectives**, are so called, because they can be used either as Adjectives, with the Noun, or as Pronouns for the Noun.

¹ Belonging to or of the nature of a *pronoun*.

They include the **Demonstratives**, *this* and *that*; the **Interrogatives**, *which?* *what?* the **Distributives**, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*; and the **Possessives**, *my*, *thy*, *his*, etc. They will be noticed under PRONOUNS.

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

Adjectives are often used as Nouns; as, the *pure*, the *deep*.

In some cases Nouns may be understood; as pure *persons*, the deep *sea*. But Adjectives are changed into Nouns when they can be used without Nouns, or can be varied by number and case. The following are some examples:

The Bengali language. He speaks Bengali. A Bengali. The Bengalis. In the first example Bengali is an Adjective; in the others it is a Noun. So with the following: A noble king. He is a noble. A noble's privileges. The nobles held out.

Abstract Nouns are sometimes formed from Adjectives by placing the Definite Article before them; as, the *true* for truth, the *beautiful* for beauty.

The following are other examples of Adjectives used as Nouns: secrets, solids, liquids, valuables, natives, mortals.

PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are parsed by mentioning their class, their inflexions, and their relation to other words. Thus: He is a wiser man than his brother.

A Demonstrative Adjective, called the Indefinite Article, belonging to the Noun *man*. *Wiser*, Adjective of quality, Comparative from wise, limiting *man*.

EXERCISES.

Why are Adjective Pronouns, or Pronominal Adjectives, so called? When are they Adjectives? When Pronouns? Name the four classes which they include. How are Adjectives often used? When are they Adjectives? When are they complete Nouns? Give examples. How are Abstract Nouns sometimes formed from Adjectives? Give examples of Adjectives used as Nouns.

1 Asking questions.

Name to which class each of the following Adjectives belongs :—
Wonderful, some, yonder, forty, straight, yellow, first, every, more, this, little, weak, neither, several, short, fresh, other, Persian, each.

Write three Adjectives of each class.

Parse fully the Adjectives and Nouns in the following sentences —

The ripest fruit first falls. Of two evils choose the less. Yonder tree is very high. This flower is the loveliest of all. That green dress is for my younger sister. These mangoes are not yet ripe. The young boy was braver than his elder brother. He brought me several books, some old, some new. The old father was happier than his foolish son. Both boys claimed the prize, but it was not given to either. We have money enough for such a short journey. He was the most famous poet of ancient times. A Russian traveller crossed the highest mountain of the range.

Write sentences showing the difference in meaning between each and either ; all and every ; this and that ; older, oldest, and elder, eldest.

21. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in place of a Noun ; as, Govind is not here ; *he* is in the playground.

One use of Pronouns is to prevent the repetition of Nouns. Instead of "Rama lost Rama's book when Rama was going to Rama's home," we say, "Rama lost his book, when he was going to his home." They also serve other purposes. Some Pronouns have the force of conjunctions, in connecting sentences.

A word is not a Pronoun unless it is used as a substitute for a Noun. In "this book," "that book," *this* and *that* are properly Adjectives.

As the Pronoun stands for a Noun, it always refers to something which has been named. It must also be of the same number, gender, and person as the Noun for which it stands.

The principal classes of Pronouns are **Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative.**

Adjective, Reflexive, Indefinite, Distributive, and Reciprocal Pronouns are other classes.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Personal Pronouns are so called because they name the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of. There are **three** Persons.

The **First Person** denotes the person *speaking* ; as, *I, we, &c.*

The **Second Person** denotes the person *spoken to* ; as, *thou, you, &c.*

The **Third Person** denotes the person or thing *spoken of* ; as, *he, she, it.*

The Pronouns *I* and *thou* imply that one person is speaking to another. Strictly, they are the only *Personal* Pronouns.

He, she, and it are rather *Demonstrative* than *Personal* Pronouns.

There is distinction of *gender* only in the Pronouns of the third person. The *speaker* and the *person spoken to* do not need to be told each other's sex.

Declension of Personal Pronouns.

The Personal Pronouns are thus declined :—

I, First Person, Masculine or Feminine.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative</i>	I	We
<i>Possessive</i>	My or Mine	Our or Ours
<i>Objective</i>	Me	Us

Thou, Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.

<i>Nominative</i>	Thou	Ye or You
<i>Possessive</i>	Thy or Thine	Your or Yours
<i>Objective</i>	Thee	You

He, She, It, Third Person.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Mas.	Fem.	Neu.	All Genders.
<i>Nom.</i>	He	She	It	They
<i>Poss.</i>	His	Her or Hers	Its	Their or Theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	Him	Her	It	Them

EXERCISES.

What is a *Pronoun* ? What is one use of Pronouns ? To what do Pronouns always refer ? How must they agree with the Nouns for which they stand ? What are the principal classes of Pronouns ? Name other classes of Pronouns. Why are *Personal* Pronouns so called ? Explain the three Persons. What are

strictly speaking, the only Personal Pronouns? What are *he*, *she*, and *it* properly? In which Pronoun does the distinction of gender exist? Why? Decline the Personal Pronouns.

Give the Number, Gender, and Case of the following Pronouns:—They, hers, mine, yours, she, him, thine, us, he, me, thou, I, thee, their, its, theirs, you, her, ours, his, it.

Give the Person, Gender, Number, and Case of the Personal Pronouns in the following sentences, and mention the Nouns for which they stand:—My brother's horse is lame; so he has sent it out to graze. As Rama and Hari could not say their lessons, they must repeat them to-morrow. Govind and I are going out; but we shall return soon. Take this food to the boys, and tell them that I brought it for them. Mary has been very good; so she will be allowed to visit her aunt. James hurt himself when he was playing.

Make five sentences with different Personal Pronouns in the Objective Case.

Name the Personal Pronouns in the Reading Lesson, giving their Person, Gender, Number, and Case; and tell the Nouns for which they stand.

22. Pronouns—continued.

Thou is seldom used except in poetry and prayer. Applied to a person, it generally expresses contempt. **You** is used in the singular as a mark of respect. It should have a *plural* verb; *as **You** are a wise man. **Ye** is an old form, now used chiefly in poetry.

It is often applied to living beings whose sex is not marked; as, *infant, dog, ant.*

It may be used not only in place of the name of an object, but instead of a clause of a sentence; as, *To learn his lessons well* is the scholar's duty; or, *It* is the scholar's duty to learn his lessons well. In such expressions as, *It rains, It freezes*, *it* does not stand for either a Noun or a clause of a sentence, but is used to point out the effect of some cause not mentioned.

The Possessive Cases of most of the Personal Pronouns have two forms.

My, thy, her, our, your, their are used when placed *before* their Nouns; as, *My* book, *her* slate.

Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs are used when placed *after* their Nouns; as, This book is *mine*; That slate is *hers*.

Some grammarians call the above *Possessive Adjective Pronouns*, or *Pronominal Adjectives*.

The apostrophe should not be used with *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*. Write *yours*, not *your's*.

The word **own** is sometimes added to the Possessive case to render it more emphatic or forcible ; as, It is *your own* fault.

The word **self** is added to the personal pronouns to form **Reflexive Pronouns**. They are **Myself, thyself, yourself, himself, herself, and itself**, with their plurals, **ourselves, yourselves, and themselves**.

Reflexive comes from a word meaning to *bend back*. Reflexive Pronouns denote the coming back of an action upon the doer. They are used when a person *does something to or for himself* ; as, "I hurt *myself*."

Reflexive Pronouns are also used for emphasis ; as, "*He himself* did it."

They have only the Nominative and Objective Cases, which are alike in form.

EXERCISES.

How is *thou* used ? Why is *you* often used for *thou* ? When *you* is used in the singular, in what number must the verb be ? How is *ye* chiefly used ? How is *it* applied ? When are *my, thy, &c.*, used, and when *mine, &c* ? What do some Grammarians call *my, mine, &c.* ? What should not be used with *hers, &c.* ? Why is *own* sometimes added to the Possessive case ? How are the *Reflexive Pronouns* formed ? Name them. What is the meaning of *Reflexive* ? What do Reflexive Pronouns denote ? What are their two uses ? Which cases do they have ?

Parse the following sentences :—Is this your book ? That book is yours. My dog is gentle ; it will not bite you. I myself saw him. Is the field ours ? Wash yourselves, before you leave. I am, yours obediently. Let them come themselves if they wish their money. This land is not theirs. Is it your own property ?

Supply Personal Pronouns :—She brought me () copy. After the servants had done () work, the master sent () away. You should not take Rama's mango : it is (), not (). Take this letter and post (). Govind is waiting ; tell () to come in. A tree is known by () fruit.

Make four sentences each with one of the following words : *yours, theirs, its.*

Make four sentences each containing a Reflexive Pronoun.

23. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative Pronouns are so called, because they point out (as with the finger) whatever is *spoken about*, and are used instead of it.

The principal Demonstrative Pronouns are, *he, she, it, this, and that*, with their Plurals.

He, she, and it are generally called **Personal Pronouns**, because they point out the Third person as distinct from the First and Second ; but they are properly *Demonstrative Pronouns*.

This and that, with their plurals **these and those**, are **Adjectives** when they are followed by a Noun or require some Noun to be understood after them ; as, I take *this* place ; you take *that*—place understood. They are **Pronouns** when they are used instead of Nouns previously mentioned, and cannot have Nouns after them ; as, "To be or not to be—*that* is the question."

This refers to something near at hand or last mentioned ; **that** to something at a distance or not last mentioned.

Some Demonstrative Pronouns are called **Indefinite** because they do not point any particular subject, but persons or things in general ; as, *one, none, other, another, such, same, &c.*

One is the adjective *one* used as a pronoun. It can be used for any person or for a particular person. As a Pronoun it can be put in the possessive case and can take a plural form ; as, One can do what one likes with *one's* own ; Bring some big *ones*.

None is a shortened form of *not one*. It is used when the noun to which it refers is omitted ; as, There is *none*.

Other and another are used both as **Adjectives** and as **Pronouns**. As **Pronouns** they may be declined ; as, Do not laugh at another's pain.

Such is used as a Pronoun when it stands for a Noun ; as, If you are a friend, show yourself *such*. It may be used for either number.

EXERCISES.

Why are Demonstrative Pronouns so called? Name the principal. Why are *he*, *she* and *it* often called Personal Pronouns? What are *this* and *that* properly? When are they Adjectives and when Pronouns? Why are some Demonstrative Pronouns called *Indefinite*? Name the principal. Which of the Indefinite Pronouns may be declined? Of what is *none* a shortened form? When is it used? How are *other* and *another* used? When is *such* a Pronoun?

Parse the following sentences, distinguishing Adjectives from Pronouns:—

None but the brave deserve the fair. One can hardly believe his statement. This is yours; that is mine. There is none that doeth good; no, not one. That is not to be touched. He took the one; I took the other. Some men are better than others. Such as go down to the sea. This box is larger than that. Bear ye one another's burdens. It was such a night as this. Let another praise thee, and not thine own mouth. This book belongs to that boy. Both were young, but one was beautiful. That is a fine house.

Make three sentences showing the use of the pronoun *one*.

Make sentences containing the pronouns *none*, *other*, *another*, *such*.

24. Relative Pronouns.

A **RELATIVE** Pronoun is so called because it *relates* or *refers* to some word *going before*, called the **Antecedent**. It also joins sentences or parts of sentences like a Conjunction; as, The student *who* passed is here.

Relative comes from a word meaning *carried back*. A Relative Pronoun carries back our thoughts to some word going before it in the sentence. *Antecedent* means *going before*. Other Pronouns refer to Nouns; but Relative Pronouns differ in having the force of Conjunctions.

The **RELATIVE PRONOUNS** are **who**, **which**, **that**, and **what**. **As** and **but** are also employed as Relatives.

Relative Pronouns have the singular and plural alike.

Who is either masculine or feminine; *that* is masculine, feminine, or neuter; *which* is now neuter; *what*, as a Relative Pronoun, is always neuter.

That and *what* are not varied by case. *Who* and *which* are thus declined :—

<i>Sing.</i> and <i>Plur.</i>		<i>Sing.</i> and <i>Plur.</i>	
<i>Nom.</i>	Who	<i>Nom.</i>	Which
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose	<i>Poss.</i>	Whose
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom	<i>Obj.</i>	Which

Who is used of persons ; as, The man *who* came.

Which is used of the lower animals and things without life ; as, The dog *which* barks ; the book *which* was lost.

It was formerly used like *who* ; as, Our Father *which* art in heaven.

That is applied both to persons and things.

That is now used instead of *who* or *which* :

(a) After the superlative degree of Adjectives ; as, This is the best picture *that* I ever saw.

(b) After two antecedents, one requiring *who* and the other *which* ; as, The boy and the dog *that* you saw.

(c) As the restrictive, limiting or defining Relative ; as, The book *that* I bought is lost. *Who* or *which* connects two co-ordinate¹ or independent sentences ; as, I met a man *who* told me. Take care of the book *which* will be of great use to you.

What is equal to *that which*. It is used only for things.

It is used when the Antecedent is omitted ; as, This is what he wanted (= the thing *that*).

Who, which, and what are combined with *so* and *ever* to form **Compound² Relatives** ; as, **whoso, whoever, whosoever, whatsoever, and whichsoever.**

As is used as a relative after the adjectives *such* and *same*. It is applied to both persons and things.

But is a Relative when it means *that not*. It is used after *no, not, none*, or other negative. It is sometimes called the *Negative³ Relative* ; as, There was no woman *but* wept.

When, where, whence, with their compounds, are sometimes used as Relative Pronouns. They are called **Adverbial Relatives**. As, "I came *when* I was wanted ;" "This is *where* I found it ;" "He returned to the place *whence* he came."

¹ Holding the same rank—not depending on another.

² Mixed ; not simple.

³ Denying.

EXERCISES.

Why is a *Relative* Pronoun so called? What is the meaning of *Relative*? What is the meaning of *Antecedent*? How do Relatives differ from other Pronouns? Name the Relative Pronouns. What are their Genders? Decline the Relative Pronouns. How are the Relative Pronouns applied? When is *that* used instead of *who* or *which*? What is the meaning of *what*? When is *what* used? What are the Compound Relatives? When is *as* a Relative? To what is it applied? When is *but* a Relative? After what word is it used? What is it sometimes called? What are the *Adverbial* Relatives?

Name the Relative Pronouns and their Antecedents in the following sentences :—

He met the man whom I saw yesterday. We cannot always get what we wish. He returned the book which I lent him. Avoid the faults into which you see others fall. He whom thou lovest is sick. A boy who is attentive is sure to excel. Attend to what is told you. Name the places through which you passed. Solomon was the wisest man that ever lived.

Supply the omitted Pronouns in the following sentences :—

He has forgotten he said yesterday. That man is not a friend I can trust. There were none present pitied him. Avoid such think lightly of the truth. This is the boy gained the prize. He gets he asks. Is that the man name is so honoured? These are the books I bought.

Make two sentences showing the difference between who and which.

Make three sentences with that as a Relative.

Make two sentences with what as a Relative.

25. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, ETC.

The INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are **who**, **which**, and **what**. They are used in asking questions.

Interrogative means asking questions.

Who is applied to *persons*, and is *indefinite*. "Who did it?" supposes complete ignorance of the person.

Which applies to *persons* as well as *things*. It refers to one out of a definite number; as, "Which will you have?"

What is applied to *things*, and is *indefinite*; as, "What did you get?"

When **what** refers to persons, it is followed by a noun ; as,
What man said so ?

Who is he ? asks a person's name, &c.

Which is he ? asks the person meant in a group.

What is he ? asks a person's employment, &c.

Whoever, whichever, and whatever, are **Compound Interrogatives**.

The **DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERAL ADJECTIVES, each, every, either, neither,** are sometimes used as Pronouns.

Distributive, as already explained, denotes that things are taken one at a time. They are Adjectives when they qualify Nouns, and Pronouns when used instead of Nouns.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS denote acting in return. They are **each other and one another**.

Reciprocal means *backward and forward*.

Each other properly refers to *two* persons or things ; as, Rama and Govind loved *each other*.

One another refers to *more than two* persons or things ; as, The boys pelted *one another*.

PARSING OF PRONOUNS.

In parsing Pronouns give 1. *The Kind* ; 2. *Person* ; 3. *Number* ; 4. *Gender* ; 5. *Case* ; 6. *Syntax*.

" We saw the person whom you named."

We—1st personal pronoun, common gender, plural, nominative, subject to the verb *saw*.

Saw—Verb.

The—Definite article, qualifying person.

Person—Noun, common, singular, common gender, objective, governed by *saw*.

Whom—Relative pronoun, singular, common gender, agreeing with its antecedent person, objective, governed by *named*.

You—2nd personal pronoun, plural, common gender, nominative, subject to the Verb *named*.

Named—Verb.

EXERCISES.

Name the *Interrogative* Pronouns. How are they used ? What is the meaning of *Interrogative* ? How is *who* used ? How is

which applied? How is *what* used? Name the *Compound Interrogatives*. Name the *Distributive Pronouns*. What is the meaning of *Distributive*? When are they Pronouns, when Adjectives? Name the *Reciprocal Pronouns*. What does *Reciprocal* mean? How are the Reciprocal Pronouns used? In *Parsing Pronouns*, what particulars should be given?

Parse the Pronouns in the following sentences:—Is that book yours? Yes, my uncle gave it me. Whom shall we ask to help us? They shared each other's sorrows. Whose is this image? Be ours the praise; be theirs the shame. Govind, who was at school, wrote a letter to his father. This is what I wanted. What did he wish? These are all the exercises which were written. Every heart knows its own sorrows. The children played with each other in the fields near our house. You must prepare yourself for your examination. The dog is theirs; I cannot tell what has become of it. What have you done with the rupee which I gave you?

Supply Pronouns:—You learn. The books we read. pen is this? do you like? discovered America? is it good for? is that man? Whether do you wish or? - Do not say you know to be untrue. The two brothers should seek good. Is the man I sent for? To did you give the bird I bought? mangoes are these? I know were present, and was said.

Make three sentences with who as a Relative Pronoun, and three with who as an Interrogative Pronoun.

Make three sentences with what as a Relative Pronoun, and three with what as an Interrogative Pronoun.

Make four sentences containing Demonstrative Pronouns, and four containing Indefinite Pronouns.

Parse the Pronouns in your Reading Lesson.

26. THE VERB.

A **Sentence** is any number of words having a full meaning; as, "Dogs bark."

Every sentence consists of two parts—the **Subject** and the **Predicate**.

The **Subject** is the person or thing spoken of.

The **Predicate** is what is said about the Subject.

Thus in the sentence, "Dogs bark," *Dogs* is the subject, and *bark* the Predicate.

The Predicate is always a *Verb*.

A VERB is a word which declares or tells something.

Verb comes from the Latin *verbum*, a *word*; because it is the most important word in a sentence. There can be no sentence without a Verb.

That which is spoken of, is called the **Subject** of the Verb. *That to which some thing is done*, is called the **Object**.

To find the subject, put *who* or *what* before the Verb; the answer will be the subject. To find the Object, put *whom* or *what* after the Verb.

A Verb declares of its subject that *it does something*, or *has something done to it*; or, *is something*.

Verbs are divided into two great classes,—**Transitive** and **Intransitive**.

A **Transitive** Verb denotes action passing from the *doer* to an *object*; as, He *struck* the table.

Transitive means *going beyond*.

An **Intransitive** Verb expresses an action that does not go beyond the *doer*; as, We *walk*.

Intransitive means *not transitive, not going beyond*.

Some Transitive Verbs may become Intransitive by expressing the action *generally*; as, Fire *burns*; I *hear*.

Some Intransitive Verbs are turned into Transitive by adding prepositions to them; as, She *laughed at* him.

Verbs of this class are sometimes called **Prepositional** Verbs.

Some Transitive Verbs take *two* objects after them, one of the *thing* and one of the *person*, distinguished as the *direct* and *indirect* objects.

In the sentence, I gave *him* a *rupee*, the *direct* object is *rupee*; *him* is the *indirect* object. The prepositions *to* or *for* are generally understood.

Incomplete Verbs are those which require some other word to give a complete sense; as, *be, seen, become, appear, &c.*

"He seems," does not express a complete sense. A noun or adjective in apposition with the subject is required; as, He seems a stranger.

EXERCISES.

What is a *Sentence*? Of what two parts does every sentence consist? What is the *Subject*? What is the *Predicate*? What part of speech is the *Predicate*? What is a *Verb*? What is the meaning of *Verb*? Why is the *Verb* so called? What is the *Object* of a *Verb*? How are the subject and object known? What does a *Verb* declare? Into what two great classes are *Verbs* divided? What is a *Transitive Verb*? What does *Transitive* mean? What is an *Intransitive Verb*? What does *Intransitive* mean? How may some *Transitive Verbs* become *Intransitive*? How are some *Intransitive Verbs* turned into *Transitive*? What two objects do some *Verbs* take after them? What prepositions are generally understood? What are *Incomplete Verbs*?

Tell whether the following *Verbs* are *Transitive*, *Intransitive*, or *Incomplete*:—Gopal runs. The man shot a crow. Krishna spoke quickly. The girl reads her book. He laughed at it. Bring the book. She required two days to complete the work. He rode on a white horse. We commenced yesterday. Govind broke the chair. Tea grows in Assam. The wind blows strongly. He looks a king. The poor man broke his leg. She is a teacher. Boys learn their lessons. He became great.

Write six sentences having *Transitive Verbs*, six with *Intransitive Verbs*, and three with *Incomplete Verbs*.

26. INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB.

Verbs are inflected for **Voice**, **Mood**, **Tense**, **Number**, and **Person**.

VOICE.

VOICE shows whether the subject of a *Verb* acts or is acted upon.

There are two **Voices**—the **Active** and **Passive**.

The **Active Voice** denotes that the subject of the *Verb* acts; as, He wrote a letter.

The **Passive Voice** denotes that the subject of the *Verb* is acted upon; as, A letter was written by him.

Passive comes from a word which means to suffer.

The *object* in the Active Voice becomes the *subject* in the Passive Voice.

When the *agent* is chiefly noticed, the Active Voice is used, and when the *Object*, the Passive Voice.

There are no inflections in English that show the Passive Voice. To make the change, the Verb "to be" is needed, which is therefore called an *auxiliary* or helping Verb. The agent in the Passive Voice has the word *by* before it, either expressed or understood.

Verbs which take *two* objects after them in the Active Voice, can take *one* in the Passive; as :

Active.
I gave him a rupee.

Passive.
A rupee was given him by me;
He was given a rupee by me.

Intransitive Verbs have no object, and therefore have no Passive Voice.

But Intransitive Verbs, with Prepositions, used as Transitives, have the Passive Voice; as, He was laughed at by all.

EXERCISES.

How are Verbs *inflected*? What does *Voice* show? What are the two Voices? Explain the difference between the Active and the Passive Voice. What is the meaning of the word *Passive*? What changes take place in the *Object* and *Subject*? When is the Active Voice used and when the Passive? How is the Passive Voice expressed in English? What word is prefixed to the agent? What can Verbs which take two objects in the Active Voice take in the Passive? Which Verbs have no Passive Voice? How may Intransitive Verbs have a Passive Voice?

Change the Verbs in the following sentences from the Active to the Passive Voice :—I called him. Cain killed Abel. He stole a mango. She loves her father. I saw an owl. He rang the bell. A snake bit the man. Hari brought a chair. John wrote a letter. Our habits make us slaves. He showed him his lessons. She gave us some mangoes. We promised him five rupees.

Change the Verbs in the following sentences from the Passive to the Active Voice :—Rama was beaten by Govind. The English were conquered by the Normans. Many have been ruined by gambling. Such mistakes are made by beginners. The remainder was devoured by vultures. The slate was broken by Krishna. War was declared against France by Prussia. Rama's bullock was killed by a tiger. A present was bought for him by his father.

27. Mood.

Mood shows the *mode* or *manner* of the action expressed by the Verb.

There are Four Moods—**Indicative**, **Subjunctive**, **Imperative**, and **Infinitive**. To these may be added the **Gerund** and the **Participle**.

The **Indicative** Mood simply declares a thing, or it asks a question ; as, *He runs* ; *Who knows* ?

Indicative means *pointing out*.

The **Subjunctive** Mood is so called because it is *subjoined* to some other sentence. It states a thing *conditionally* or as depending upon something else ; as, *I will go if he come* ; *were* he here, he would tell you.

Subjunctive means *joined under*. Uncertainty is generally supposed. It usually follows such words as *if*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, &c., but these are not a part of the Verb. Its use is dying out in modern English.

The **Imperative** Mood commands, advises, or entreats ; as, *Do this* ; *Forgive* and *forget* ; *Spare* his life.

Imperative means *commanding*.

The Imperative is the root of the Verb from which the other parts are derived.

The **Infinitive** Mood simply names the action, and is not limited by time, person, or number ; as, *To write*.

Infinitive means *without end*. It is not properly a *Mood*, but is a Verb used as a Noun. The preposition *to* is usually prefixed, and is hence called the *sign*, or mark, of the Infinitive. It may be either in the nominative or in the objective case.

The name **Potential Mood** has been given to such forms as, *He can read* ; *She may go* ; but it is now generally given up. *Can* is in the Indicative ; *read* is in the Infinitive. *To* is left out after *can*, *may*, &c. *Potential* means *having power*.

The Infinitive of *purpose*, or the *indirect object*, is called the **Gerundial Infinitive** ; as, *He came to learn*. The verbal Noun ending in *-ing* is also called the **Gerund** ; as, *Gambling* is hurtful.

The word *Gerund* means *carrying on*. It denotes the doing of that which the verb signifies.

The *Participle* is so called because it partakes of the properties of the Verb and the Adjective ; as, I saw a boy *running*.

Participle means *sharing, taking part*.

As Verbs, Participles imply action ; as Adjectives, they qualify Nouns. Participles are *Verbal Adjectives*. Gerunds are *Verbal Nouns*. Nouns in *-ing* must be distinguished from Participles in *-ing* ; a large *building* (Noun) ; *building* a house (Participle).

EXERCISES.

What does *Mood* show ? Name the *Moods*. What does the word *Indicative* mean ? How is the Indicative Mood used ? What does *Imperative* mean ? How is the Imperative Mood used ? Which Mood is the root of the verb ? What does *Subjunctive* mean ? How is the Subjunctive Mood used ? What does *Infinitive* mean ? How is the Infinitive Mood used ? What is called the *sign* of the Infinitive ? In what cases may the Infinitive be ? What was called the *Potential* Mood ? What are the *Moods* of *can* and *read* in the sentence "He can read ?" What is the *Gerundial Infinitive* ? What is called the *Gerund* ? What does the word *Gerund* mean ? What does it denote ? What is the meaning of *Participle* ? Why is the Participle so called ? How do Participles and Gerunds differ ? What do Participles imply as verbs ? What do they do as Adjectives ? What Nouns must be distinguished from Participles ?

*Tell the Voices and Moods of the Verbs :—*Do it yourself. To err is human ; to forgive, divine. I found him reading. Are you fond of writing letters ? If I go, I will let you know. Let him not despond. Forbear to trouble yourself about trifles. I would help you if I could. Had you been present, I should have seen you. I hear that you broke it. The governor refused to comply. I hate lying. You can send him. If that happened, it was a great misfortune. Giving is better than receiving. He can do it if he likes. They came to see the show. I saw him running away. If he were here I should ask him. Rama was taught reading and writing. We should hate lying. I saw him breaking stones.

Make four sentences each with a verb in the Indicative Mood.

Make four sentences each with a verb in the Subjunctive Mood.

Make four sentences each with a verb in the Imperative.

Make four sentences each with a verb in the Infinitive.

Make four sentences each containing a Gerund.

Make four sentences each containing a Participle.

28. TENSE.

TENSE is a change in the verb to express time.

Tense comes from a word meaning *time*.

There are three great divisions of time—**Present**, **Past**, **Future**. The name **Tense** is given to the different forms of Verbs which denote them.

The Verb is the only kind of word which by its own forms can point out time.

The English Verb has only two tenses, the **Present** and **Past**, formed by inflection. The Future is formed by the help of other Verbs.

The **Present** Tense denotes that the action is going on just now ; as, I *love*.

The **Past** Tense denotes that the action took place, or was going on, in time past ; as, I *saw* him ; He *was walking*.

The **Future** Tense denotes that the action is yet to take place. It is formed by means of the verbs *shall* or *will*, followed by the Infinitive ; as, I *shall go* ; he *will go*.

Future means *time to come*.

Each Tense has three forms :

1. An action simply mentioned is said to be **Indefinite** ; as, I *love*, I *loved*, I *shall love*.

2. An action mentioned as still going on is said to be **Imperfect**. It is formed by means of *be* and the imperfect participle ; as, I *am loving*, I *was loving*, I *shall be loving*.

Imperfect means *not perfect*. **Progressive** (moving forward), **Incomplete** (not complete), and **Continuous** (joined together), are other names.

3. An action mentioned as finished is said to be **fect**. It is formed by means of *have* and the participle.

Perfect means *done wholly or completely*.

(a) The **Present Perfect** denotes that the action has just now been completed ; as, *I have loved.*

It is a common mistake in India to use the Present Perfect instead of the Past Indefinite ; as, "I have seen him yesterday," instead of, "I saw him yesterday." Unless the action has just been completed, if the time is mentioned, the Past Indefinite should be used ; as, I have just seen him ; I saw him an hour ago.

(b) The **Past Perfect**, also called the **Pluperfect**, denotes that the action was completed before another action took place ; as, *I had seen him before I met you.*

Pluperfect means more than perfect.

The Past Perfect should not be used unless the other action is mentioned ; as, "I had seen him yesterday," ought to be, "I saw him yesterday."

(c) The **Future Perfect** denotes that the action will be completed before another future action takes place ; as, *I shall have left before you return.*

The Active Voice has a fourth form, called the **Perfect Continuous**. It expresses an action going on up to the present time ; as, *I have been writing.*

It is also called the **Perfect Progressive** or **Incomplete**. It combines the meaning of the Imperfect and Perfect.

TABLE OF TENSES (*Active Voice*).

TENSE.	<i>Indefinite.</i>	<i>Imperfect or Progressive.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Continuous.</i>
Present.	I love	I am loving	I have loved	I have been loving.
Past.	I loved	I was loving	I had loved	I had been loving.
Future.	I shall love	I shall be loving.	I shall have loved	I shall have been loving.

EXERCISES.

What is *Tense*? What is the meaning of the word from which it comes? What are the three great divisions of Tense? To what is the name *Tense* given? What is the only kind of word which by its own forms can point out time? What Tenses has the English Verb formed by inflection? How are the other Tenses formed? How do the Present and Past Tenses differ? What does the Future Tense denote? How is it formed? How many forms has each Tense? Name them. When is an action said to be *Indefinite*? When *Imperfect*? What does *Imperfect* mean? How is the Imperfect formed? What other names are given to it? Explain their meaning. When is an action said to be *Perfect*? How is the Perfect Tense formed? Name the three forms of Perfect Tenses. What does the *Present Perfect* denote? What common mistake is made about it? When should the Present Perfect and when the Past Indefinite be used? What does the *Past Perfect* denote? What is it also called? What is the meaning of *Pluperfect*? When should the Past Perfect not be used? What does the *Future Perfect* denote? What fourth form has the Active voice? What does it express? What is it also called? Why? Give the different Tenses according to the Table.

Point out the Verbs and give the Tenses:—I shall send it tomorrow. You asked me what I was doing. I had filled it before it burst. I shall have great pleasure in going with you. He met me when I was walking. I shall have completed it before tomorrow. We have written that we are coming. If you should see Krishna, tell him that I want to speak to him. Shall I come down, and will you give me leave? If the sick man be sleeping, do not awake him. You came to ask me what I have been doing.

Correct the following where necessary:—Last month I have bought a house. Is this correct? There had been a storm yesterday. I went to see him in the evening. I have spent all my money before I have received your letter. The mail has not yet arrived. He had studied for six months before he left. I have arrived this morning. I had seen him do it.

Make sentences exemplifying each of the Tenses.

29. NUMBER AND PERSON.

The Verb, like the Noun, has **two NUMBERS, Singular and Plural**; as, *He loves, they love.*

Distinct forms for the Plural are found only in the verb **to be**; as, *I am, we are; I was, we were.*

PERSON is a change in the Verb, showing whether its subject is the speaker, the person or persons spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of; as, *I love*, *first person*; *Thou lovest*, *second person*; *He speaks*, *third person*.

The Plural has no endings to mark Person. The Person is known by the subject.

The **PRESENT TENSE** of the verb *bring* is thus inflected:—

Singular.

Plural.

1st Per. I bring

1st Per. We bring

2nd Per. Thou bringest

2nd Per. You bring

3rd Per. He brings or bringeth

3rd Per. They bring

The Pronouns are no part of the Verb. The ending in **est** or **st** of the Second Person Singular is seldom used—the Second Person Plural being applied even to one individual. The Third Person Singular Present has **s**, or **es**, and the old form **eth**. These endings belong only to the Indicative Mood.

EXERCISES.

What *Numbers* have verbs? What is the only verb with distinct forms for the Plural? What is Person? Which Number has no endings to mark Person? How is the Person known? Inflect the Present Tense of the verb *bring*. What ending is seldom used? What are the endings of the third Person Singular? Inflect the Present Tense of the verbs, *grow*, *mend*, *drive*, *hate*.

Let the pupils question each other on the Number and Person of Verbs.

30. CONJUGATIONS.

The giving of the Moods, Tenses, and other parts of a Verb is called its **CONJUGATION**.

Conjugation means *yoking* or *joining together*.

Verbs are divided into two classes, according to the way in which they form the Past Tense (Indefinite), called **Strong and Weak Verbs**.

A **Strong Verb** changes the vowel of the present tense in the past tense. Nothing is *added* to the present to make it past. Thus, in *write, wrote*, the vowel is changed, but nothing is added. Strong Verbs are sometimes said to belong to the *Old Conjugation*.

A **Weak Verb** adds *d* or *t* to the present. Thus, *love, loved; spend, spent*. Weak Verbs are sometimes said to belong to the *New* or *Modern Conjugation*.

Some weak verbs seem to belong to the strong conjugation, because they change the vowel, as, *teach, taught, seek, sought, say, said*; but they are weak because they add *d* or *t* for the past tense. There are also weak verbs which change the vowel, and make no addition; as, *meet, met; feed, fed*. Such verbs in Old English had terminations which have been lost.

Verbs which form the past tense by adding *d* or *ed* are sometimes called **Regular** verbs. Those which do not thus form the past tense are said to be **Irregular**. Though not strictly correct, the distinction is much more easily understood than that between Strong and Weak verbs.

Weak verbs are sometimes divided into **Irregular Weak** verbs, like *beseech, besought*, and **Regular Weak** verbs, like, *love, loved*.

Some Verbs have both forms. Thus, *shear, shored, shorn*, has also *sheared, sheared*.

EXERCISES.

What is the *Conjugation* of a verb? What is the meaning of the word *Conjugation*? Into what two conjugations are verbs divided? How are they distinguished? How are *Strong* verbs known? What other name is given them? How are *Weak* verbs known? To what conjugations are they also said to belong? Why do some weak verbs appear to belong to the strong conjugation? What verbs are said to be *Regular* and *Irregular*? How are weak verbs sometimes divided? What have some verbs?

Name ten Strong and ten Weak Verbs.

31. LIST OF STRONG VERBS.

Formerly the perfect participle of these verbs always ended in *-n* or *-en*; in some this termination has been

lost. Verbs to which *r* is prefixed have also weak forms.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide	abode	abode	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Arise	arose	arisen	Freeze	froze	frozen
Awake	awoke	awoke	Get	got	got, gotten
Bear	bore	born	Give	gave	given
(bring forth)			Go	went	gone
Bear	bore	borne	Grind	ground	ground
(carry)			Grow	grew	grown
Beat	beat	beaten	<i>r</i> Hang	hung	hung
Beget	begat	begotten	Hide	hid	{ hidden, hid
Begin	began	begun	Hold	held	{ held, holden
Behold	beheld	{ beheld (beholden)	Know	knew	known
Bid	{ bade, bid	{ bidden, bid	Lie	lay	lain
Bind	bound	bound	Ride	rode	ridden
Bite	bit	bitten, bit	Ring	rang	rung
Blown	blew	blown	Rise	rose	risen
Break	broke	broken	Run	ran	run
Chide	chid	{ chidden, chid	See	saw	seen
Choose	chose	chosen	Seethe	<i>r</i> sod	sodden
Cleave	{ clove, cleft	{ cloven, cleft	Shake	shook	shaken
Cling	clung	clung	<i>r</i> Shave	shaved	shaven
Come	came	come	<i>r</i> Shear	shore	shorn
Crow	crew	{ crown, crowed	Shine	shone	shone
Dig	dug	dug	Shoot	shot	shot
Do	did	done	<i>r</i> Show	showed	shown
Draw	drew	drawn	Shrank	shrank	shrunk
Drink	drank	{ drunk, drunken	Sing	sang	sung
Drive	drove	driven	Sink	sank	{ sunk, sunken
Eat	ate	eaten	Sit	sat	sat
Fall	fell	fallen	Slay	slew	slain
Fight	fought	fought	Slide	slid	{ slidden, slid
Find	found	found	Sling	slung	slung
Fling	flung	flung	Slink	slunk	slunk
Fly	flew	flown	<i>r</i> Sow	sowed	sown
Forbear	forbore	forborne	Smite	smote	smitten
Forbid	forbade	forbidden	Speak	spoke	spoken
Forget	forgot	forgotten	Spin	{ spun, span	{ spun span
			Spit	spat	spat, spit

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Spring	{ sprang, sprung }	sprung	Swing	swung	swung
Stand	stood	stood	Take	took	taken
Steal	stole	stolen	Tear	tore	torn
Stick	stuck	stuck	r Thrive	throve	thriven
Sting	stung	stung	Throw	threw	thrown
Stink	stank	stunk	Tread	trod	{ trodden, trod }
Stride	strode	stridden	Wake	r woke	waked
Strike	struck	struck	Wear	wore	worn
String	strung	strung	Weave	wove	woven
Strive	strove	striven	Win	won	won
Swear	swore	sworn	Wind	wound	wound
r Swell	swelled	swollen	Wring	wrung	wrung
Swim	swam	swum	Write	wrote	written

The foregoing list should be carefully committed to memory. The teacher should question the pupils on the Past Tenses and Past Participles of the Verbs, and the pupils should question one another.

32. LIST OF WEAK VERBS.

The following Verbs belong to the Weak Conjugation, in addition to the large class which form their past tense and past participle by adding -d or -ed.

CLASS I.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bereave	bereft	bereft	r Dream	dreamt	dreamt
Beseech	besought	besought	r Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
Bleed	bled	bled	Feed	fed	fed
Blend	blended	blent	Feel	felt	felt
Breed	bred	bred	Flee	fled	fled
Bring	brought	brought	r Gild	gilt	gilt
r Build	built	built	r Gird	girt	girt
r Burn	burnt	burnt	Have	had	had
Buy	bought	bought	Hear	heard	heard
Catch	caught	caught	Hew	hewed	r hewn
r Cloth	clad	clad	Keep	kept	kept
Creep	crept	crept	r Kneel	knelt	knelt
r Crow	crew	crowed	Lay	laid	laid
r Curse	curst	curst	Lead	led	led
r Dare	durst	dared	r Leap	leapt	leapt
Deal	dealt	dealt	r Learn	learnt	learnt

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Leave	left	left	Shoe	shod	shod
Lend	lent	lent	r Show	showed	shown
r Light	lit	lit	Sleep	slept	slept
r Load	loaded	laden	r Smell	smelt	smelt
Lose	lost	lost	r Sow	sowed	sown
Make	made	made	Speed	sped	sped
Mean	meant	meant	r Spell	spelt	spelt
Meet	met	met	Spend	spent	spent
r Melt	melted	molten	r Spill	spilt	spilt
r Mow	mowed	mown	r Strew	strewed	strewn
Rend	rent	rent	Sweep	swept	swept
r Rive	rived	riven	r Swell	swelled	swollen
r Saw	sawed	sawn	Teach	taught	taught
Say	said	said	Tell	told	told
Seek	sought	sought	Think	thought	thought
Sell	sold	sold	Weep	wept	wept
Send	sent	sent	r Work	wrought	wrought
Shave	shaved	shaven			

CLASS II.

Verbs of this Class have the three Parts alike.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Bet	bet	bet	Read	read	read
Cast	cast	cast	Rid	rid	rid
Cost	cost	cost	Set	set	set
Cut	cut	cut	Shed	shed	shed
Hit	hit	hit	Shut	shut	shut
Hurt	hurt	hurt	Slit	slit	slit
r Knit	knit	knit	Split	split	split
Let	let	let	Spread	spread	spread
Put	put	put	Thrust	thrust	thrust

EXERCISES.

Give the Past Tense and Past Participle of the following Verbs:—
 Bring, swell, leap, bleed, lay, weep, melt, build, catch, kneel,
 bereave, bet, keep, gird, hit, work, sow, sell, rive, let, mow,
 clothe, dream, sleep, speed, cost, feel, hear, leave, light, tell.

Let the pupils question one another on Strong and Weak Verbs and their Conjugations.

33. CONJUGATION WITHOUT AUXILIARIES.

The following is the inflection of the Weak Verb **To love**, without the help of other Verbs:—

Present Tense.

Love

*Past Tense.*Loved¹*Perfect Participle.*

Loved

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I love
2. Thou lovest
3. He loves

Plural.

1. We love
2. You love
3. They love

Past Tense.

1. I loved
2. Thou lovedst
3. He loved

1. We loved
2. You loved
3. They loved

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Love thou

2. Love ye, or you

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To love

GERUNDS.

Loving

To love

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect, Loving**Perfect, Loved*The Strong Verb **To Write** is thus inflected :—*Present Tense.*

Write

Past Tense.

Wrote

Perfect Participle.

Written

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I write
2. Thou writest
3. He writes

Plural.

1. We write
2. You write
3. They write

¹ *Loved* is a short form of *love-did*.

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------|
| 1. I wrote | 1. We wrote |
| 2. Thou writest | 2. You wrote |
| 3. He wrote | 3. They wrote |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|---------------|---------------------|
| 2. Write thou | 2. Write ye, or you |
|---------------|---------------------|

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To write.

GERUNDS.

Writing

To write

PARTICIPLES.

*Imperfect, Writing**Perfect, Written*

The English Verb has only a small number of inflections. *Write* has seven forms; *write, writest, writes, writing, written, wrote, wrotest*. Regular Verbs have only six forms: *love, lovest, loves, loved, lovedst, loving*.

The above are, strictly speaking, the only Conjugations of the English Verb; but the Moods and Tenses of Latin Verbs are represented by the aid of other Verbs.

EXERCISES.

Inflect the Verb *To love* without the help of other Verbs. Inflect the Verb *To write*. How many inflections has the Strong Verb *Write*? Name them. How many inflections have Weak Verbs? How are the Moods and Tenses of Latin Verbs represented in English? Inflect similarly the Verbs *serve, call, grieve, learn, smite, strive, walk, fight, give*.

Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following sentences:—You walked. They move. I go. He wishes. We cry. Thou laughest. Run you. We praised. You ordered. Tell him to come. I called. Thou turnest. Stop. He came to shoot. They like hunting. You run. The horse fell. They went to beg. I saw him writing.

34. AUXILIARY VERBS.

Only the Present and Past Tenses are expressed by the Verb itself. Additional Tenses are formed by the help of other Verbs, called *Auxiliaries*, viz.: *Be, Have, Shall, and Will*.

Auxiliary means helping. Such verbs are frequently used, and are of great importance.

Do, May, and Can would be ranked as auxiliaries, if the *Emphatic* and *Potential* Moods were admitted into the Conjugation of the Verb.

Some of the Auxiliaries are also used as principal Verbs.

To Be.

Present Tense.
Am.

Past Tense.
Was.

Perfect Participle.
Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>
1. Person I	am	1. Person We	are
2. „ Thou	art	2. „ You	are
3. „ He, she or it, is		3. „ They	are

PAST TENSE.

1. I	was	1. We	were
2. Thou	wast	2. You	were
3. He	was	3. They	were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. If I	be	1. If we	be
2. If thou	be	2. If you	be
3. If he	be	3. If they	be

PAST TENSE.

1. If I	were	2. If we	were
2. If thou	wert	2. If you	were
3. If he	were	3. If they	were

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
2. Be, or be thou	2. Be, or be ye, or you

INFINITIVE MOOD.

To be

GERUNDS.

Being To be

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being *Perfect, Been*

Inflections with the Auxiliary "To be." The *Passive Voice* is formed by joining the perfect participle of a verb to the verb "be" throughout; as, he *is* loved, *to be* loved, *being* loved.

The **Progressive** form of the Active Voice is formed by similarly joining the present participle ; as, *I am loving*.

To Have.

Present Tense.

Have.

Singular.

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

Past Tense.

Had.

PRESENT TENSE. Plural.

1. We have
2. You have
3. They have

Perfect Participle.

Had.

PAST TENSE.

- | | | | |
|---------|-------|---------|-----|
| 1. I | had | 1. We | had |
| 2. Thou | hadst | 2. You | had |
| 3. He | had | 3. They | had |

IMPERATIVES.

Have (thou) Have (ye, you)

INFINITIVE.

To have.

PARTICIPLES.

Having Had

Inflections with the Auxiliary "To Have." Followed by the perfect participle of another verb, "have" forms the Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses ; as, *I have written, I had written.*

EXERCISES.

What Tenses only are expressed by the verb itself ? How are the other Tenses formed ? What are these verbs called ? What is the meaning of *Auxiliary* ? Name the Auxiliary Verbs. What other verbs might be classed as auxiliary ? How are some of the Auxiliary Verbs also used ? Inflect the verb *to Be*. What inflections are formed by means of *to Be* ? Inflect the verb *to Have*. What inflections are formed by means of the verb *to Have* ?

*Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs :—*You have. If they be. Thou hast. Be ye. Whose book is this ? Thou hadst a rupee. Being. We were there. If we were. Have thou. He ought to have it. He had a ball. I have another.

Let the pupils question each other in naming parts of the Auxiliary Verbs be and have, and in telling parts which are mentioned.

35. AUXILIARY VERBS—continued.

Shall and Will have only the Present and Past Tenses of the Indicative Mood.

ETYMOLOGY.

Shall.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	
1. I	shall
2. Thou	shalt
3. He	shall

<i>Plural.</i>	
1. We	shall
2. Ye, or you	shall
3. They	shall

PAST TENSE.

1. I	should
2. Thou	shouldst
3. He	should

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

Will.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I	will
2. Thou	wilt
3. He	will

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

PAST TENSE.

1. I	would
2. Thou	wouldst
3. He	would

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

Inflections with Shall and Will:—**Shall** and **Will** are employed to form the Future tenses of verbs ; as, *I shall go, he will go.*

Mistakes in the use of **SHALL** and **WILL** are very common. The following remarks should be carefully studied.

Shall originally means *obligation*, what one *ought to do* ; will means *wish*, what a person is *willing* to do.

Shall retains its primary meaning in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural ; as, *Thou shalt not kill ; he shall surely die.* Besides commanding and threatening, it also *promises* ; as, *He shall be blessed.*

Shall is only an auxiliary of the future in the first person, and in interrogative sentences in the second person ; as, *Shall you go ?* It is an independent verb in the second and third persons.

Shall, in the First Person Singular and Plural, simply states that something will happen ; as, *I shall go home.* It does not denote any *wish* on the part of the speaker. On the other hand, **will** in the First Person implies that the action is dependent upon the will of the speaker. *I will go home,* denotes that it is my own wish to go.

Will in the Second and Third Persons usually means simple futurity, without any reference to the wish of the agent. *He will be punished,* simply states what will happen.

Further directions about the use of **shall** and **will** are given under Syntax.

EXERCISES.

What are the only parts of *shall* and *will*? Inflect *shall*. Inflect *will*. What inflections of the verb are formed with *shall* and *will*? What are the primary or first meanings of *shall* and *will*? In what person does *shall* retain its primary meaning? Give examples. Besides commanding and threatening, what does *shall* also do? What does *shall* mean in the First Person, Singular and Plural? What does it not imply? What does *will* in the First Person imply? What is the meaning of "I *will* do it?" What does *will* usually mean in the Second and Third Persons? What does "He *will* be punished" mean?

Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs:—Will you do it? Shall I send it? Thou shalt not kill. The dogs will bark. He should not have done it. The cat will catch the mouse. I shall go to Calcutta. I will go to Calcutta. He will suffer for it. You should not hurt him. They would not take the money.

Name the Principal Verbs and Auxiliaries in the following sentences:—We shall sail to-morrow. He has lost his book. You should not do that. I have a horse. We were staying with him. Will you come with me? He is a great coward. Shall I send for him? Will you tell them? You should not go.

36. COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB TO LOVE, WITH AUXILIARIES.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind. Love. Past, Loved. Perf. Part. Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite*.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
1. I	love	1. We love
2. Thou	lovest	2. You love
3. He loves, or loveth		3. They love

PRESENT *Imperfect, or Progressive.*

1. I am	loving	1. We are	loving
2. Thou art	loving	2. You are	loving
3. He is	loving	3. They are	loving

PRESENT *Perfect.*

1. I	have loved	1. We have	loved
2. Thou	hast loved	2. You have	loved
3. He has, or hath	loved	3. They have	loved

PRESENT *Perfect Continuous*.¹*Singular.*

1. I have been loving
2. Thou hast been loving
3. He has been loving

Plural.

1. We have been loving
2. You have been loving
3. They have been loving

PAST *Indefinite*.

1. I loved
2. Thou lovedst
3. He loved

1. We loved
2. You loved
3. They loved

PAST *Imperfect, or Progressive*.

1. I was loving
2. Thou wast loving
3. He was loving

1. We were loving
2. You were loving
3. They were loving

PAST *Perfect*.

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

1. We had loved
2. You had loved
3. They had loved

PAST *Perfect Continuous*.

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

1. We had been loving
2. You had been loving
3. They had been loving

FUTURE *Indefinite*.

1. I shall love
2. Thou wilt love
3. He will love

1. We shall love
2. You will love
3. They will love

FUTURE *Imperfect*.

1. I shall be loving
2. Thou wilt be loving
3. He will be loving

1. We shall be loving
2. You will be loving
3. They will be loving

FUTURE *Perfect*.

1. I shall have loved
2. Thou wilt have loved
3. He will have loved

1. We shall have loved
2. You will have loved
3. They will have loved

FUTURE *Perfect Continuous*.

1. I shall have been loving
2. Thou wilt have been loving
3. He will have been loving

1. We shall have been loving
2. You will have been loving
3. They will have been loving

¹ The *Perfect Continuous* expresses an action going on up to the present time.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite.**Singular.*

1. If I love
2. If thou love
3. If he love

Plural.

1. If we love
2. If you love
3. If they love

PRESENT *Imperfect.*

1. If I be loving
2. If thou be loving
3. If he be loving

1. If we be loving
2. If you be loving
3. If they be loving

This is the old form of the Subjunctive. If I *am* loving is now generally used.

PRESENT *Perfect.*

1. If I have loved
2. If thou have loved
3. If he have loved

1. If we have loved
2. If you have loved
3. If they have loved

PRESENT *Perfect Continuous.*

1. If I have been loving
2. If thou have been loving
3. If he have been loving

1. If we have been loving
2. If you have been loving
3. If they have been loving

PAST *Indefinite.*

1. If I loved
2. If thou lovedst
3. If he loved

1. If we loved
2. If you loved
3. If they loved

PAST *Imperfect.*

1. If I were loving
2. If thou wert loving
3. If he were loving

1. If we were loving
2. If you were loving
3. If they were loving

PAST *Perfect.*

1. If I had loved
2. If thou hadst loved
3. If he had loved

1. If we had loved
2. If you had loved
3. If they had loved

PAST *Perfect Continuous.*

1. If I had been loving
2. If thou hadst been loving
3. If he had been loving

1. If we had been loving
2. If you had been loving
3. If they had been loving

FUTURE *Indefinite.*

1. If I should love
2. If thou wouldst love
3. If he would love

1. If we should love
2. If you would love
3. If they would love

FUTURE *Imperfect*.*Singular.*

1. If I should be loving
2. If thou wouldst be loving
3. If he would be loving

Plural.

1. If we should be loving
2. If you would be loving
3. If they would be loving

FUTURE *Perfect*.

1. If I should have loved
2. If thou wouldst have loved
3. If he would have loved

1. If we should have loved
2. If you would have loved
3. If they would have loved

FUTURE *Perfect Continuous*.

1. If I should have been loving
2. If thou wouldst have been loving
3. If he would have been loving
1. If we should have been loving
2. If you would have been loving
3. If they would have been loving

IMPERATIVE MOOD.¹

2. Love, or love thou

2. Love, or love ye, or you

INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Indefinite, To love**Perfect, To have loved**Imperfect, To be loving**Perfect Continuous, To have been loving*

GERUNDS.

*Nom. and Obj., Loving**Dative, To love*

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Loving *Perfect, Loved*² *Compound Perfect, Having loved*
Perfect Continuous, Having been loving

EXERCISES.

Give the first persons singular and plural of all the tenses of the Verb *To love*. Let the pupils question each other on the parts of the Verb *To love*.

*Give the Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following:—*I have been walking. You commanded. We shall leave. I am going. He has departed. If I write. I shall have sent. Love (you) your enemies. You had returned. If I have examined. Having defeated. You had been sleeping. ✓ He ought to love him. Look before you leap. I am making the box. Rama has been speaking. They will have arrived. I shall go next week. You may do it. He can remain. I see a boy riding. He likes reading. Lying is base. If he come, I will go with him.

*Conjugate:—*Hate, write, call, propose, bring, steal, give, keep, sell, finish, please, make.

¹ Some Grammarians add a Future Tense, *Thou shalt love, You shall love*.

² Some Grammarians omit this Participle; some call it the *Past Participle*; others call it the *Passive Participle*.

37. PASSIVE VOICE.

The **Passive Voice** is formed by adding the Perfect Participle of a *Transitive* Verb after the Verb *To be* in all the Moods and Tenses; thus:—

TO BE LOVED.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Ind., *Am loved* Past, *Was loved*
 Perfect Part., *Been loved*

The Passive Voice is much more frequently used in English than in the Indian vernaculars.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am loved	1. We are loved
2. Thou art loved	2. You are loved
3. He is loved	3. They are loved

PRESENT *Imperfect.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am being loved	1. We are being loved
2. Thou art being loved	2. You are being loved
3. He is being loved	3. They are being loved

PRESENT *Perfect.*

1. I have been loved	1. We have been loved
2. Thou hast been loved	2. You have been loved
3. He has been loved	3. They have been loved

PAST *Indefinite.*

1. I was loved	1. We were loved
2. Thou wast loved	2. You were loved
3. He was loved	3. They were loved

PAST *Imperfect.*

1. I was being loved	1. We were being loved
2. Thou wast being loved	2. You were being loved
3. He was being loved	3. They were being loved

PAST *Perfect.*

1. I had been loved	1. We had been loved
2. Thou hadst been loved	2. You had been loved
3. He had been loved	3. They had been loved

FUTURE *Indefinite*.*Singular.*

1. I shall be loved
2. Thou wilt be loved
3. He will be loved

Plural.

1. We shall be loved
2. You will be loved
3. They will be loved

FUTURE *Perfect*.¹

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved | 1. We shall have been loved |
| 2. Thou wilt have been loved | 2. You will have been loved |
| 3. He will have been loved | 3. They will have been loved |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I be loved | 1. If we be loved |
| 2. If thou be loved | 2. If you be loved |
| 3. If he be loved | 3. If they be loved |

PRESENT *Perfect*.

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. If I have been loved | 1. If we have been loved |
| 2. If thou have been loved | 2. If you have been loved |
| 3. If he have been loved | 3. If they have been loved |

PAST *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I were loved. | 1. If we were loved |
| 2. If thou wert loved. | 2. If you were loved |
| 3. If he were loved. | 3. If they were loved |

PAST *Imperfect*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. If I were being loved | 1. If we were being loved |
| 2. If thou wert being loved | 2. If you were being loved |
| 3. If he were being loved | 3. If they were being loved |

PAST *Perfect*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I had been loved | 1. If we had been loved |
| 2. If thou hadst been loved | 2. If you had been loved |
| 3. If he had been loved | 3. If they had been loved |

FUTURE *Indefinite*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I should be loved | 1. If we should be loved |
| 2. If thou wouldst be loved | 2. If you would be loved |
| 3. If he would be loved | 3. If they would be loved |

FUTURE *Perfect*.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. If I should have been loved | 1. If we should have been loved |
| 2. If thou wouldst have been loved | 2. If you would have been loved |
| 3. If he would have been loved | 3. If they would have been loved |

¹ The Progressive Form is rarely used in the Passive. The Past Perfect Continuous, the Future Imperfect, and the Future Perfect Continuous are wanting.

THE VERB.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. Be thou loved

2. Be ye or you loved

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present, To be loved

Perfect, To have been loved

GERUNDS.

Nom. and *Obj.*, Being loved *Dative*, To be loved

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Being loved

Perfect, Been loved
Having been loved

Compound Perfect,

EXERCISES.

How is the Passive Voice formed and inflected? Inflect the Verb *To be loved*. Name the second persons singular and plural of each of the tenses. Let the pupils question each other in naming parts of the Verb.

Conjugate the following Verbs in the Passive Voice:—Praise, follow, blame, slay, forgive, conquer, shake, reward.

Tell the Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following sentences:

Thou art praised. Thou canst love me. Gopal was beaten by Krishna. She will love them. Having hated. We should love all men. Thou shalt love thy neighbour. You were loved. Remember my advice. We must learn our lessons. They had been forgotten. Thou shalt be rewarded. If he be called, he will come. He should be punished. He was informed of it. They might have loved their friends. Temperance preserves health. Honesty is the best policy. No one has yet reached the North Pole. Had anything occurred, he would have written.

Put the following sentences first into Past, and secondly into Future Tenses:—The sun sinks below the horizon. The grain is ready to be cut. At the change of the monsoon, it thunders and lightens terribly. The general has taken his departure. I am going to school. It is impossible for me to do it.

38. RULES FOR THE INFLECTIONS OF THE TENSES.

1. Verbs ending in **ss**, **sh**, **ch**, **x**, or **o**, form the third person singular of the Present of the Indicative by adding **es**; as (dress) he *dresses*; (march) he *marches*; (go) he *goes*, &c.

2. Verbs ending in **y** change **y** into **i**, before the terminations **est**, **es**, **eth**, or **ed**, but not before **ing**; as (try),

triest, tries, tried, trying ; but **y** with a vowel before it is not changed into **i** ; as (*pray*), *prayest, prays* or *prayeth, prayed, praying*, &c.

3. Verbs accented on the last syllable, and Verbs of one syllable ending in a single consonant after a single vowel, double the final consonant before the terminations **eth, est, ed, ing, &c.**, but never before **s** ; as (*cut*), *cutteth, cuttest, cutting, cuts* ; (*forget*), *forgettest, forgetting, &c.* ; (*repeat*), *repeatest, repeating, &c.*

EXERCISES.

How is the third person Singular Indicative formed ? When is **y** changed into **i** in the inflections of Verbs ? When is the final consonant doubled before **est, &c.** ?

Write the second and third persons Singular of :—*Catch, grind, hope, destroy, injure, crave, pass, err, hunt, tug, sob, attend, differ, apply, copy, betray.*

39. ADDITIONAL VERBS USED AS AUXILIARIES.

Some verbs in frequent use are thus conjugated :—

To Do.

Present Tense.
Do.

Past Tense.
Did.

Perfect Participle.
Done.

<i>Singular.</i>	PRESENT TENSE.	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I do		1. We do
2. Thou doest or doth		2. You do
3. He does, doeth or doth		3. They do

	PAST TENSE.	
1. I did		1. We did
2. Thou didst		2. You did
3. He did		3. They did

IMPERATIVE, **Do.**

INFINITIVE, **To do.**

PARTICIPLES.

Imperfect, Doing.

Perfect, Done.

Go has **went** in the Past Tense, and **Gone** in Participle.

The following verbs are more or less defective wanting in some parts :—

May.

<i>Singular.</i>	PRESENT TENSE.	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may		1. We may
2. Thou mayest		2. You may
3. He may		3. They may
	PAST TENSE.	
1. I might		1. We might
2. Thou mightest		2. You might
3. He might		3. They might

Can.

	PRESENT TENSE.	
1. I can		1. We can
2. Thou canst		2. You can
3. He can		3. They can
	PAST TENSE.	
1. I could		1. We could
2. Thou couldst		2. You could
3. He could		3. They could

May means *to be allowed, to be possible; chance; as, I may go; he may come.* Placed before its subject, it expresses a wish; as, *May you prosper!* **Can** expresses *power; as, I can do it.* May and can were formerly used to form what was called the **Potential Mood**.

Must expresses *necessity.* It does not change for Tense, Number, or Person. It is used only in the Indicative.

To express past time, the verb which follows must be put in past time; thus:—

Present. I must see.
Past. I must have seen.

Ought is the past tense of the verb *owe*, to have. It is used as a present to express *duty.* When past time is expressed, ought is joined to a perfect infinitive; as, *I ought to have done it.*

Quoth means *said.* It is used only in the first and third persons in the past tense, and precedes its subject; as, *quoth he.*

EXERCISES.

~~Conjugate~~ *do, may, and can.* What are *Defective Verbs?* What *do may and can want?* How do they differ in meaning?

What Mood were they formerly used to form? What does *must* express? What forms has it? From what does *ought* come? How is it now used in the *present*? How is it made to express past time? What is the meaning of *quoth*, and how is it used?

Give the Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, and Number of the Verbs in the following sentences :

I must not do it. Can you lend me your knife? He ought to do his duty. My father told me that I might go. "Bring it to me," quoth he. You may go to-morrow. I could give the money if I wished. Did you tell him to come? You can get it next week. I did not see him.

40. VARIOUS FORMS OF VERBS.

The **EMPHATIC** Form is used to give more force, as a person raises his voice in speaking. It consists in placing the Infinitive of the Verb after *do* or *did*; thus :—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Emphatic.

- | | | |
|--------------------|------|-----------------|
| 1. I do | love | 1. We do love |
| 2. Thou dost | love | 2. You do love |
| 3. He does or doth | love | 3. They do love |

Past Emphatic.

- | | | |
|---------------|------|------------------|
| 1. I did | love | 1. We did love |
| 2. Thou didst | love | 2. You did love |
| 3. He did | love | 3. They did love |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|
| 2. Do thou love | 2. Do ye, or you love. |
|-----------------|------------------------|

The Emphatic Form is confined to the Tenses without Auxiliary Verbs.

The **INTERROGATIVE** Form is used in asking questions. It consists in placing the nominative between the auxiliary and the Verb; thus, *Shall I go?*

If there is no auxiliary, *do* or *did* is usually placed before the nominative; thus, *Do I write well? Did you hear him?*

An Interrogative sentence may also be formed by placing the Verb before its subject; as, *Lovest thou me? Said he not so?*

This old form is now seldom used, except in poetry, and with the Verb *To be*; as, *Is he here?*

A polite request may be made in the Interrogative form; as, "Will you have the goodness to do so and so?"

The position of the Verb and the use of *do* should be carefully noticed. Young students are apt to use sentences like the following:—You were absent yesterday? Why you brought it? Instead of, Were you absent yesterday? Why did you bring it?

The **NEGATIVE FORM** is used in denying. It requires *not* or some other negative.

If there is an *auxiliary*, *not* is inserted *after* it; as, We will *not* get it.

If there is no auxiliary, *do* is usually put before *not*; as, I *do not* wish to go. *Not* is sometimes simply placed after the Verb; as, He spoke *not* a word. *Not* is placed *before* the *infinitive*; as, I told him *not* to come.

Do is *not emphatic* when used in Interrogative and Negative sentences.

EXERCISES.

Why is the *Emphatic Form* used? How is it formed? Conjugate the Verb *do*. To what tenses is the *Emphatic Form* confined? How is the *Interrogative Form* used? How is it formed? If there is no auxiliary, what is usually placed before the nominative? How is an Interrogative sentence sometimes formed in poetry? How may a polite request be made? What mistakes are young students apt to make? How is the *Negative Form* used? What does it require? What rules are given for the position of the *Negative*? When is *do not* *Emphatic*?

Put the following sentences into the **Emphatic Form**:—I like him. He told them. Ask him. I detest tobacco. Bid them go away. The two boys fought. Come with me.

Put the following sentences into the **Interrogative Form**:—I shall go. He is there. We have some mangoes. Your father paid him. You like music. She has finished the book. He has received my letter. They did not understand the question.

Put the following sentences into the **Negative Form**:—He will come. You are fortunate. My brother went away. I am well. Is he afraid? I have finished my exercise. We found them at home. He was shot by the enemy.

Give three examples each of *Emphatic*, *Interrogative*, and *Negative Forms*.

41. CAUSATIVE VERBS, ETC.

CAUSATIVE Verbs are those which mean to *cause* or *make*. Only a few English Verbs have a causal form ; as, *rise*, causal, *raise* ; *fall*, *fell*, *sit*, *set*, *see*, *show*, *lie*, *lay*, &c. ; as, *The tree falls* ; *He felled the tree*.

Some Verbs take a causal sense without any change of form ; as, *Water boils* ; *He boils the water* ; *Govind ran* ; *The doctor ran a needle into the boil*.

Intransitive Verbs become transitive when used in a causal sense.

The causal sense may also be expressed by other words ; as, *I made him do it*.

The name FACTITIVE¹ is given to some Transitive Verbs which take *one* object only, but require some word or phrase to be added to the object to make the sense complete ; as, *The soldiers made him emperor*. *Him* is the object ; *emperor* is added to complete the sense. The addition is called the *Complement*. It may be a noun, an adjective, a participle, a phrase, &c. ; as, *He set him free* ; *They forced him to go*.

Some Intransitive Verbs take objects after them of a similar meaning ; as, *He fought a good fight*. Such objects are said to be *Cognate*, meaning *born together*, or in the Cognate Accusative or Objective.

IMPERSONAL Verbs are used in the third person singular ; as, *it rains*, *it thunders*. In *methinks*, *it* is omitted and the pronoun in the objective is placed before the Verb. The meaning is, *It appears to me*.

Such Verbs are also called *Unipersonal* or *Monopersonal*.

PARSING OF VERBS.

The following is the order to be observed :—1. *Conjugation* (Strong, Weak) ; 2. *Kind* (Transitive, Intransitive) ; 3. *Voice* ; 4. *Mood* ; 5. *Tense* ; 6. *Person* ; 7. *Number* ; 8. *Syntax*.

EXERCISES.

What are *Causative* Verbs ? Give examples of Verbs with a causal form and without it. What do Intransitive Verbs become

¹ Tending to make or cause.

when used in a causal sense? How may the causal sense also be expressed? What are *Factitive Verbs*? Give examples. What is the addition called? What part of speech may it be? What are *Cognate Objectives*? What are *Impersonal Verbs*? Explain *methinks*. What are such Verbs also called? What order is to be observed in parsing Verbs?

Parse the Verbs in the following sentences:—

The gardener will fell the tree. Does it thunder? Tell him to run the horse up and down. He sighed a sigh and prayed a prayer. I thought him a fool. It rained fire and brimstone. He died a happy death. Some children fly kites. You are fighting a shadow. I dare not come. Parliament is still sitting. The flowers would have withered if I had not watered them. He might have passed if he had studied hard. You may take the horse and have a ride. Tell the boy to come to-morrow. He should have gone when you ordered him. His father built him a house. If you go, I shall follow you. To err is human; to forgive, Divine.

42. THE ADVERB.

An ADVERB is a word which qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, Walk *quickly*; it is too large; he studies *very diligently*.

The Adverb is to the Verb what the Adjective is to the Noun.

Adverbs sometimes qualify sentences or phrases;¹ as, *Unfortunately*, he was not at home.

Adverbs may be divided into two classes—*Simple* and *Relative* or *Conjunctive*.²

Simple Adverbs merely qualify words; as, *now*, *soon*, *quickly*.

Most Adverbs belong to this class.

Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs both qualify words and connect sentences; as, He did it *when* all had come.

When not only qualifies the verb *did*, but joins the two sentences. A *Conjunctive Adverb* should be distinguished from a *Conjunction*. The latter simply connects; it does not qualify. They are called *Relative* or *Conjunctive* because they have partly the properties of *Relative Pronouns* and *Conjunctions*.

¹ Parts of sentences; *phrases*, speech. ² Serving to join; *con.*, together, *conj.*, to join.

Adverbs may be divided into different classes :—

1. **Adverbs of Quality** ; as, well, ill. Most Adverbs belong to this class.

2. **Adverbs of Time** ; as,

Afterwards, again, too, already, always, awhile, before, by-and-by, daily, early, ever, hereafter, hourly, immediately, lately, never, now, often, once, presently, seldom, since, sometimes, soon, then, to-day, to-morrow, until, when, while, whilst, whilom, yesterday.

3. **Adverbs of Place** ; as,

Above, afar, aloof, apart, around, aside, asunder, away, backwards, before, behind, below, down, downwards, elsewhere, everywhere, far, first, forth, forward, hence, inward, off, onward, out, outwards, secondly, sideways, upwards, where, within yonder.

4. **Adverbs of Degree or Quantity** ; as,

Almost, also, altogether, enough, especially, exceedingly, hardly, how, little, less, least, much, more, most, nearly, quite, rather, scarcely, sufficiently, too, very, wholly.

5. **Numeral Adverbs** ; as,

Once, twice, firstly, often, frequently, singly, two by two, &c.

6. **Adverbs of Cause and Effect** ; as,

Accordingly, doubtless, hence, likewise, still, thence, therefore, wherefore, why.

7. **Relative or Conjunctive Adverbs** ; as,

When, while, where, whence, why, how, as, then, &c.

8. **Interrogative Adverbs**.

When Relative Adverbs are used to ask questions, they are called **Interrogative Adverbs**.

Other subdivisions have been proposed ; as, **Adverbs of Belief and Disbelief** ; as, yes, no, surely, perhaps, indeed, &c. **Adverbs of Comparison** ; as, so, as, than, &c.

The compounds of *here*, *there*, *where*, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, *hence*, *how*, *thence*, and *when*, are all Adverbs.

EXERCISES.

What is an *Adverb* ? In what do Adjectives and Adverbs agree and differ ? What do Adverbs sometimes qualify ? Into what

two main classes may Adverbs be divided? What are *Simple* Adverbs? What are *Relative* and *Conjunctive* Adverbs? Why are they so called? Into what classes may Adverbs be subdivided? Give examples of each. What other subdivisions of Adverbs have been proposed?

Classify the following Adverbs:—Before, well, once, somewhere, altogether, very, certainly, why, already, aside, enough, hourly, badly, too, inward, sometimes, never, nothing, accordingly, often, where, below, presently, almost, twice, especially, outward, rather.

43. ADVERBS—continued.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.—Many Adverbs admit of comparison like Adjectives. The numerous class ending in **ly** are compared by placing **more** and **most** before them; as, *cautiously, more cautiously, most cautiously*.

Adverbs, the same in form as corresponding adjectives, are compared in the same way; as, *hard, harder, hardest; soon, sooner, soonest*.

A few are compared irregularly:—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Ill, badly	worse	worst
Well	better	best
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Far	farther	farthest
(Forth)	further	furthest
Nigh, near	nearer	next
Late	later	latest, last

The manner in which the above are used shows whether they are Adverbs or Adjectives.

ADVERBIAL PHRASES.—Two or more words having the force of an Adverb form an **Adverbial Phrase**; as, *at last, by and by, now and then, &c.*

FORMATION OF ADVERBS.—Nearly all Adverbs come from other words.

1. Most Adverbs are formed from Adjectives by adding **ly**; as *wise, wisely; useful, usefully*.

ly is shortened from *like*. Adverbs of this class are mostly adverbs of quality.

Adjectives ending in **y** not preceded by a vowel, change **y** into **i** before *ly*; as, pretty, prettily.

Adjectives ending in *le* simply change the **e** into **y**; as, single, singly.

2. Some Adverbs are formed from Nouns; as, *afoot* (on foot), *ashore* (on shore), *across*, *aside*, *betimes*, *weekly*, &c.

3. Some are derived from Prepositions; as, *upwards*, *downwards*, *within*.

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS ADVERBS.—**Nouns**; as, *town* made; *skin* deep. **Pronouns**; as, *none* the worse. **Adjectives**; as, *pretty* good, it looks *strange*. **Prepositions**; as, I told you *before*, come *in*. When Prepositions are not followed by objective cases, they are Adverbs.

PARSING ADVERBS.

In parsing Adverbs state: 1. The part of speech to which it belongs. 2. Its class. 3. The degree of comparison. 4. Its syntax.

EXERCISES.

How are Adverbs in *ly* compared? What Adverbs are compared like Adjectives? Name Adverbs compared irregularly? How may Adverbs be distinguished from Adjectives? What are *Phrase Adverbs*? How are nearly all Adverbs derived? How are most Adverbs formed? From what does *ly* come? How are Adverbs formed from Adjectives ending in *y* not preceded by a vowel? What change is made in Adjectives ending in *le*? Give examples of Adverbs formed from Nouns; from Prepositions? Give examples of Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Prepositions used as Adverbs?

Compare the following Adverbs:—Soon, excellently, much, seldom, near, badly, honestly, loud, early, far.

Form Adverbs from the following words:—Joyful, hasty, laughing, double, brave, rash, terrible, in, like, up, mouth, hopeless, heaven, day, third, large, beautiful, simple, weary, fatal, slow, bad, free.

Classify the Adverbs in the following sentences, and mention the words they qualify:—Never put off till to-morrow what should be done to-day. Think twice before you speak once. Where there is smoke, there is fire. This is pretty good, but not thoroughly good. He is much too slow in his movements. You are yet young enough

to learn English very easily. We lived there long ago. He went once more in vain. No person could have acted more nobly, yet he was sadly disappointed. The virtuous are, in general, happy. Always try to read distinctly. Most men have cause, at last, to lament most bitterly their misimprovement of time.

44. THE PREPOSITION.

A **Preposition** is a word *placed before* a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word ; as, The book is *on* the table.

The noun or pronoun which follows a Preposition is said to be *governed* by it, and is in the *objective* case.

Sometimes a Preposition comes *after* the word which it governs. This is especially the case with the relative pronoun, expressed or understood ; as, *The boy (whom) you spoke of is here.*

Many Prepositions refer to **Place** ; as, *in, on, at, near, above, under, &c.*

Originally, Prepositions referred only to **place** :

Some refer to *rest* in a place ; as, *at, by, in, on.*

Others refer to *motion* to or from a place ; as, *down, from, into, up, &c.*

Some refer to both *rest* and *motion* ; as, *about, above, near, through, under, &c.*

Some Prepositions express **Time** ; as, *before sunset, after ten o'clock.*

The relationship of *place* was transferred to *time*. Some Prepositions refer only to *time* ; as, *during, until, since.*

Other Prepositions denote the **Agent, Cause, or Purpose** ; as, *by, with, through.*

EXERCISES.

What is a *Preposition* ? Why are Prepositions so called ? What is said of the Noun or Pronoun which follows a Preposition ? When does the Preposition follow the word which it governs ? To what do many Prepositions refer ? In what ways do they refer to *place* ? To what was the relationship of *place* transferred ? Mention Prepositions referring only to *time*. What do other Prepositions denote ? Give examples.

Name the Prepositions and tell the words they govern in the Objective Case.—The river issues from a cave, and flows down the side

of the hill. We searched for flowers on yonder bank, From virtue to vice, the progress is gradual. Hold up the flag. Turn over another leaf. A pitcher made of silver. He lives in Calcutta. I came by sea. The bird perched on a tree beside the river. A battle between five lions and six tigers. He sailed round the world. He is above me in the class. He ran across the fields to the tank. Whom is that for? Being amid the crowd, I did not see him. Which book is it under?

45. PREPOSITIONS—*continued.*

Prepositions are divided into three classes :—1. Simple ; 2. Compound ; 3. Phrase Prepositions.

1. The following are **Simple** Prepositions : *at, by, for, in, of, on, out, to, up, with.*

2. **Compound** Prepositions are formed in different ways. A Preposition may be prefixed to an Adverb ; as, *before* (be = by), *behind, beneath, above, within, throughout.* A Preposition may be prefixed to a Noun ; as, *aboard* (on board), *across, around, among, beside, outside, &c.*

3. **Phrase Prepositions** are made up of two or more words ; as, *instead of, on account of, together with, for the sake of.*

Some Participles are used as Prepositions ; as, *concerning, respecting, touching.* *Except* and *save* may now be regarded as Prepositions.

Prepositions are sometimes added to Verbs, the whole forming a *Prepositional Verb* ; as, *boast of, agree to, hope for.*

By the aid of Prepositions, Intransitive Verbs are thus made Transitive. The words should not be parsed separately.

Distinction between Adverbs and Prepositions.—The same words are used sometimes as Adverbs and sometimes as Prepositions. They are to be distinguished according to the manner in which they are used. Prepositions always govern some Noun or Pronoun. Adverbs are not added to Nouns or Pronouns, but modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs. In "Come on," *on* is an

Adverb ; in "The book is on the table," on is a Preposition.

But is a Preposition when it is equal to *except* ; as, None *but* him.

Nigh, near, nearer, next, are sometimes used as Prepositions, or as Adjectives with the Preposition *to* understood ; as, *near* him, or *near* (to) him.

The following is a list of words which are generally Prepositions :

A, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, at, athwart. Before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by. Concerning. Down, during. Except, excepting. For, from. In, into. Near, nigh. Of, off, on, over. Regarding, respecting, round. Save, saving, since. Through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward, towards. Under, underneath, until, up, upon. With, within, without.

EXERCISES.

Into what three classes are Prepositions divided ? Name some *Simple* Prepositions. Name some *Compound* Prepositions. How are they formed ? What are *Phrase* Prepositions ? What part of speech is *concerning*, and how is it used ? What are *Prepositional* Verbs ? What effect have such Prepositions on *Intransitive* Verbs ? How are words used sometimes as Adverbs, sometimes as Prepositions, to be distinguished ? How are Adverbs known from Prepositions ? Give examples of words used both as Adverbs and Prepositions. When is *but* a Preposition ? What Adjectives are sometimes used as Prepositions ? What Preposition may be understood ?

Arrange the following Prepositions into *Simple* and *Compound* :—Among, down, below, into, up, over, beyond, inside, underneath, within, in, from, amidst, without, by, around, through, outside, above.

Mention the Prepositions in the following sentences, and name the words they qualify :—I went instead of him. That is the house I spoke about. According to the latest accounts, he is somewhat better. There was no one there except Rama. He hath eaten me out of house and home. Notwithstanding our entreaties, he would not yield. I must not go on account of the weather. I do not know what to say with reference to the proposal.

Make three sentences with *down, behind, below, within* as Prepositions, and three sentences with them as Adverbs.

46. THE CONJUNCTION.

Conjunctions join sentences and words ; as, *You can go, but I must stay. Two and two make four.*

Conjunctions bear the same relation towards sentences which Prepositions bear towards words.

Relative Pronouns and Conjunctive Adverbs also join sentences together ; as, *I saw the boy who did it ; He came when he was well.* But *who*, besides joining the sentences, has the force of a relative ; *when*, besides joining the sentences, has an adverbial meaning. Conjunctions simply join sentences or words.

Some Conjunctions help to shorten sentences, "Rama and I will come," is equal to "Rama will come and I will come."

Sentences are of three kinds :—

1. *Birds fly*, containing only one subject and one predicate, is called a *Simple* sentence.

2. *Birds fly and fishes swim*, is a *Compound* sentence. It is composed of simple sentences, each independent¹ of the other. Such sentences being of the same rank or order are called *co-ordinate*,² and the conjunction which joins them is called a *co-ordinative conjunction*.

3. In the sentence, *Be diligent lest you fail*, one sentence is *dependent* on the other ; *you fail* is dependent on *Be diligent*. This is called a *Complex*³ sentence. The dependent sentence or clause is called *subordinate*,⁴ and the conjunction *lest* which joins it to the principal sentence is called a *Subordinative Conjunction*.

According to the purpose they serve in a sentence, Conjunctions are divided into **Co-ordinative** and **Subordinative**.

The following are the principal Co-ordinative Conjunctions :—

Accordingly, also, and, besides, but, consequently, further, hence, however, likewise, moreover, nevertheless, notwithstanding, now, only, so, still, then, thus, therefore, well, wherefore, yet.

¹ Not under another. ² Of equal rank. ³ Folded together, not straight.
⁴ Lower in order.

EXERCISES.

What are Conjunctions? How do Conjunctions and Prepositions differ? What other words join sentences? How do Conjunctions differ from Relative Pronouns and Conjunctive Adverbs? How do some Conjunctions shorten sentences? How many kinds of sentences are there? What is a *Simple* sentence? What is a *Compound* sentence? What are the simple sentences they contain called? Why? What are the Conjunctions which unite them called? What is a *Complex* sentence? What is the dependent sentence said to be? Why? What is the Conjunction that joins them called? Into what two classes are Conjunctions divided? Name the principal *Co-ordinative* Conjunctions.

Write ten compound sentences each containing a Co-ordinative Conjunction.

47. CONJUNCTIONS—continued.

The following Conjunctions are for the most part *Subordinative* :—

After, although, as, because, before, are, except, for, if, lest, now, since, than, that, though, till, unless, while.

Correlative Conjunctions.—Some Conjunctions are used in pairs, and are called *correlatives*. Correlatives are words which have a like relation to each other in a sentence.

The following are the most frequently used pairs :—

Either	or :	Either <i>Govind or Krishna may go.</i>
Neither	nor :	Neither <i>Govind nor Krishna may go.</i>
Whether	or :	Whether <i>they go or stay, we will go.</i>
Though	yet :	Though <i>he fell, yet he was not hurt.</i>
Both	and :	Both <i>Govind and Krishna may go.</i>
As	as :	<i>His writing is as good as yours.</i>
So	as :	<i>His writing is not so good as yours.</i>

Forms of Conjunctions.—Conjunctions may also be arranged according to their *forms* :—

1. *Simple* Conjunctions ; as, *and, as, but, for, if, &c.*
2. *Compound* Conjunctions ; as, *however, likewise, nevertheless, therefore, &c.*
3. *Phrase* Conjunctions ; as, *as far as, as though, inasmuch as, lest, in order that, &c.*

Distinction between Conjunctions and Prepositions.
 —The *same* word may be a Preposition or Conjunction according to the manner in which it is used. Thus :—

Rama came after Govind ; *after is a prep.*
Rama came after Govind left ; *after is a conj.*

When such words are followed by nouns or pronouns in the Objective they are *Prepositions* ; when they join sentences together they are *Conjunctions*.

EXERCISES.

Name the principal *Subordinative* Conjunctions. What are *Correlative* Conjunctions ? Name the principal *Correlative* Conjunctions. What are the three forms of Conjunctions ? How are Conjunctions distinguished from Prepositions ?

Write six sentences each containing a subordinative conjunction.

Write six sentences each containing correlative conjunctions.

Point out the conjunctions in the following sentences, mentioning the class to which each belongs :—

You must be silent while the teacher speaks. Except he pay in advance, he will not get it. He must stay till I come. You must not go if it rains. Krishna as well as Govind must go. In order that you may succeed, you must study hard. Your father is not so old as mine. I want neither the one nor the other. Although he called, the servant did not come. You can give me either tea or coffee. I came in order that I might tell him. Govind was there as well as his brother. Expect nothing, lest you be disappointed.

Distinguish Prepositions from Conjunctions in the following sentences :

Bring me a slate and a pencil. I write on a slate with a pencil. You may go either to-day or to-morrow. He made a short, but excellent speech. Neither Govind nor Rama could work the sum. This is a shorter exercise than the last, although it is more difficult. He went from door to door. Within two hours, the train will arrive at Calcutta. Though he is poor, yet he is honest. He is generous as well as rich. Hari went to the magistrate instead of Krishna. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.

THE INTERJECTION.

An **INTERJECTION** is a word used to express some sudden feeling ; as "*Ah!* what shall I do?"

The Interjection is not properly a "part of speech," as it has no grammatical relation to any other word in the sentence.

Interjections have been called word-sentences. Any word used in exclamation is an Interjection; as, *Behold! welcome!* In *Ah me!* some word is understood; as, *pity me.*

The following is a list of the most common Interjections:—

Adieu! ah! aha! alas! avaunt! away! fie! ha! hah! hail! hark! he! ho! hush! hurrah! huzza! lo! O! oh! off! pshaw! pooh! tush!

THE SAME WORD USED FOR DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

Some words, written in the same way, have very different meanings; they often come from different roots. Thus, *well*, from which water is taken, comes from the Old English *well*; and *well*, the adjective, from *wel*.

About.	<i>Prep.</i>	He walked <i>about</i> the room.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is walking <i>about</i> .
Above.	<i>Prep.</i>	He ranks <i>above</i> us.
	<i>Adv.</i>	The <i>above</i> -mentioned book.
After.	<i>Adj.</i>	He died from the <i>after</i> effects.
	<i>Prep.</i>	He ran <i>after</i> the thief.
	<i>Conj.</i>	He ran <i>after</i> the child fell.
All.	{ <i>Adj. used as Noun.</i>	} We lost our <i>all</i> .
	<i>Adj. of Quantity.</i>	He drank <i>all</i> the water.
	<i>Adj. of Number.</i>	He ate <i>all</i> the mangoes.
Another.	<i>Adv.</i>	He is <i>all</i> alone.
	<i>Noun.</i>	Take not <i>another's</i> goods.
	<i>Adj.</i>	Give me <i>another</i> guava.
Any.	{ <i>Adj. of Quantity.</i>	} Have you <i>any</i> rice?
	<i>Adj. of Number.</i>	Are there <i>any</i> coolies about?
As.	<i>Adv.</i>	I cannot go <i>any</i> farther.
	<i>Pronoun.</i>	You are mistaken <i>as</i> I thought.
	<i>Conjunct.</i>	<i>As</i> the rain has ceased, I shall go.
	<i>Conjunct.</i>	} This is not so good <i>as</i> that.
Before.	<i>Adv.</i>	
	<i>Prep.</i>	Address my letters <i>as before</i> .
	<i>Conj.</i>	He stood <i>before</i> the door.
Besides.	<i>Conj.</i>	Come <i>before</i> it is too late.
	<i>Adv.</i>	A rupee was given <i>besides</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	<i>Besides</i> money, he gave food.

Both.	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Both</i> men were there.
	<i>Pro.</i>	<i>Both</i> of them came.
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Both</i> you and I may go.
But.	<i>Rel. Pro.</i>	No voice <i>but</i> could well join.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He comes <i>but</i> once a month.
	<i>Prep.</i>	Who was it <i>but</i> Rama !
	<i>Conj.</i>	Govind left, <i>but</i> Krishna remained.
By.	<i>Adv.</i>	The train has just gone <i>by</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	Rama was beaten <i>by</i> Govind.
	<i>Noun.</i>	The ups and <i>downs</i> of life.
Down.	<i>Adj.</i>	He had a <i>down</i> look.
	<i>Adv.</i>	The sun is <i>down</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	<i>Down</i> the river.
	<i>Conj.</i>	Take <i>either</i> book.
Either.	<i>Pro.</i>	<i>Either</i> of these will do.
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Either</i> John or James told me.
	<i>Adv.</i>	I must go somewhere <i>else</i> .
Else.	<i>Conj.</i>	He is poor, <i>else</i> he would have bought it.
	<i>Conj.</i>	
Enough.	<i>Adj. as Noun.</i>	<i>Enough</i> has been said.
	<i>Adj.</i>	He has money <i>enough</i> .
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is not rich <i>enough</i> .
Even.	<i>Adj.</i>	It stands upon <i>even</i> ground.
	<i>Verb.</i>	You must <i>even</i> the surface.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He has not <i>even</i> written.
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Even</i> a king must die.
Except.	<i>Verb.</i>	You are <i>excepted</i> from the rule.
	<i>Prep.</i>	All came <i>except</i> Krishna.
	<i>Conj.</i>	I shall not go <i>except</i> he comes.
First.	<i>Adj.</i>	He is the <i>first</i> boy in his class.
	<i>Adv.</i>	I <i>first</i> saw him to-day.
For.	<i>Adv.</i>	He was sent <i>for</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	I have not seen him <i>for</i> a long time.
	<i>Conj.</i>	I must go, <i>for</i> it is late.
Half.	<i>Adj. as Noun.</i>	One <i>half</i> is done.
	<i>Adj.</i>	Go at <i>half</i> speed.
	<i>Adv.</i>	The man was <i>half</i> dead.
How.	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>How</i> are you to-day ?
	<i>Conj.</i>	I asked him <i>how</i> he did it.
In.	<i>Adv.</i>	Come <i>in</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	The book is <i>in</i> the box.
Least.	<i>Adj.</i>	This is the <i>least</i> quantity.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is the <i>least</i> attentive in the class.
Little.	<i>Adj. as Noun.</i>	Promise <i>little</i> and do much.
	<i>Adj.</i>	He is only a <i>little</i> boy.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He reads <i>little</i> .

More.	<i>Adj. as Noun.</i>	<i>More</i> has been done than I thought.
	<i>Adj.</i>	Bring <i>more</i> bread.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He will come once <i>more</i> .
Most.	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Most</i> people like him.
	<i>Adv.</i>	I liked him <i>most</i> .
Much.	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Much</i> has been given to him.
	<i>Adj.</i>	Have you <i>much</i> money?
	<i>Adv.</i>	I am <i>much</i> pleased with him.
Near.	<i>Adj.</i>	He is a <i>near</i> relation.
	<i>Verb.</i>	The ship <i>neared</i> the shore.
	<i>Adv.</i>	Come <i>near</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	It is <i>near</i> the bottom.
Needs.	<i>Noun.</i>	Our <i>needs</i> are known.
	<i>Verb.</i>	The ground <i>needs</i> rain.
	<i>Adv.</i>	I must <i>needs</i> go.
Neither.	<i>Adj.</i>	I like <i>neither</i> side.
	<i>Pro.</i>	<i>Neither</i> of them came.
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Neither</i> you nor he can do it.
Next.	<i>Adj.</i>	I live in the <i>next</i> house.
	<i>Adv.</i>	Whose turn is <i>next</i> ?
	<i>Prep.</i>	He sat <i>next</i> me.
No.	<i>Noun.</i>	The <i>noes</i> are in a majority.
	<i>Adj.</i>	I have <i>no</i> money.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is <i>no</i> better.
Now.	<i>Noun.</i>	An eternal <i>now</i> .
	<i>Adv.</i>	He came just <i>now</i> .
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Now</i> , you can do it as well as he.
Off.	<i>Adj.</i>	The <i>off</i> ox is strong.
	<i>Adv.</i>	Why do you run <i>off</i> ?
	<i>Prep.</i>	He fell <i>off</i> his horse.
One.	<i>Noun.</i>	Hence seek your little <i>ones</i> .
	<i>Pro.</i>	Any <i>one</i> may go.
	<i>Adj.</i>	I have but <i>one</i> rupee.
Only.	<i>Adj.</i>	He had an <i>only</i> son.
	<i>Adv.</i>	I have <i>only</i> four annas left.
	<i>Conj.</i>	Do as you like ; <i>only</i> leave me.
Other.	<i>Adj. as Noun.</i>	They leave their wealth to <i>others</i> .
	<i>Adj.</i>	Bring the <i>other</i> book.
Out.	<i>Noun.</i>	The <i>ins</i> and <i>outs</i> (of office).
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is not yet <i>out</i> .
Past.	<i>Noun.</i>	A <i>past</i> that never was present.
	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Past</i> years.
	<i>Prep.</i>	The sick man is <i>past</i> hope.
Right.	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Right</i> is might.
	<i>Adj.</i>	Take the <i>right</i> hand.
	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Every</i> wrong will be <i>righted</i> .

Right.	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>Right</i> noble.
Round.	<i>Noun.</i>	Our daily <i>round</i> of duty.
	<i>Adj.</i>	This is a <i>round</i> hole.
	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Round</i> this plank.
	<i>Adv.</i>	The wheel turns <i>round</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	Go <i>round</i> the garden.
Save.	<i>Verb.</i>	Try to <i>save</i> him.
	<i>Prep.</i>	All <i>save</i> one have left.
Since.	<i>Adv.</i>	Has he been here <i>since</i> ?
	<i>Prep.</i>	He has not come <i>since</i> last week.
	<i>Conj.</i>	I will come <i>since</i> you have asked me.
So.	<i>Adv.</i>	I am <i>so</i> glad.
	<i>Conj.</i>	As you sow, <i>so</i> must you reap.
Some.	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Some</i> bread ; <i>some</i> mangoes.
	<i>Pro.</i>	<i>Some</i> said yes ; others, no.
	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>Some</i> twenty years ago.
Still.	<i>Noun.</i>	The <i>still</i> of the evening.
	<i>Adj.</i>	A <i>still</i> night.
	<i>Verb.</i>	He could not <i>still</i> the storm.
	<i>Adv.</i>	He is <i>still</i> at school.
	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Still</i> , I am not convinced.
Than.	<i>Prep.</i>	<i>Than</i> whom none higher sat.
	<i>Conj.</i>	Richer <i>than</i> wise.
That.	<i>Demon. Adj.</i>	I like <i>that</i> man.
	<i>Rel. Pro.</i>	This is the best <i>that</i> I got.
	<i>Conj.</i>	He said <i>that</i> he would not do it.
Then.	<i>Adv.</i>	He comes now and <i>then</i> .
	<i>Conj.</i>	If he does so, <i>then</i> you may go.
Till.	<i>Prep.</i>	You can stay <i>till</i> next day.
	<i>Conj.</i>	Stay here <i>till</i> you are called.
Too.	<i>Adv.</i>	It is <i>too</i> hot drink.
	<i>Conj.</i>	I, <i>too</i> , am of the same opinion.
Up.	<i>Noun.</i>	The <i>ups</i> and downs of life.
	<i>As Adj.</i>	He went by the <i>up</i> train.
	<i>Adv.</i>	The eagle mounts <i>up</i> .
	<i>Prep.</i>	The cat ran <i>up</i> a tree.
Well.	<i>Adj.</i>	He is now <i>well</i> .
	<i>Adv.</i>	He has been <i>well</i> paid.
	<i>As Noun.</i>	Let <i>well</i> alone.
What.	<i>Inter. Pro.</i>	<i>What</i> does he say ?
	<i>Rel. Pro.</i>	I do not know <i>what</i> you want.
	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>What</i> happy children !
	<i>Inter.</i>	<i>What</i> ! are you here ?
While.	<i>Noun.</i>	Stay a little <i>while</i> .
	<i>Verb.</i>	Don't <i>while</i> away your time uselessly.
	<i>Conj.</i>	Work <i>while</i> day lasts.

Why.	<i>Noun.</i>	He asks the <i>why</i> and the wherefore.
	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>Why</i> do you leave so early ?
	<i>Conj.</i>	I know <i>why</i> he did it.
Will.	<i>Noun.</i>	Where there's a <i>will</i> there's a way
	<i>Aux. Verb.</i>	I <i>will</i> go to-morrow.
	<i>Prin. Verb.</i>	He <i>will</i> s it to be so.

III. SYNTAX.

SYNTAX explains how words are put together in sentences.

Syntax comes from a Greek word meaning *putting in order*, or *arrangement*.

The Rules of Syntax are of three kinds: (1) of CONCORD; (2) of GOVERNMENT; (3) of ORDER.

Concord is the agreement of words in respect of number, person, tense, or mood.

Concord means *being of the same heart or mind*.

When two words joined together are of the same number, gender, person, or tense, they are said to *agree* with one another.

Government is the power which one word has over the case or mood of another.

Order is the giving to each word its proper place in the sentence.

The Order of words in sentences is either *grammatical* or *rhetorical*.¹

Grammatical Order is that in which words are generally placed in speaking and writing.

Rhetorical Order is that in which the emphatical parts of the sentence are placed first.

For this reason, the Rhetorical Order is also called the *emphatical*. It is used chiefly in poetry and in impassioned² prose.

SUBJECT AND VERB.

Rule 1.—A Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person; as, I write; thou readest; we speak.

If the Subject is Singular, the Verb must be Singular. If the Subject is in the First Person, the Verb must be in the First Person.

¹ Rhetor-ik-al; relating to public speaking, or speaking with elegance and force.

² Expressing strong feeling.

The Subject is known by putting the question *who?* or *what?* to the Verb. Mistakes are chiefly made in long sentences. The Noun next the Verb is often not the Subject.

When a Verb is followed by several Nominatives, it usually agrees with the first, and is understood of the others; as, *Thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory.*

Note 1.—The Subject of a Verb should always be in the **Nominative**; as, “Neither *him* nor *her* saw it,” should be, “Neither *he* nor *she* saw it.”

Note 2.—When the infinitive mood, participle, or a part of a sentence is the Subject, the **Verb** should be in the Third Person Singular; as, “To obey *is* better than sacrifice.” Seeing *is* believing.

Note 3.—In the imperative mood, the Subject is generally omitted, *thou* or *you* being understood; but in other cases it should be mentioned. The Subject is not always expressed in the Indian vernaculars, as it is implied in the termination of the Verb; thus, “came” alone may be used. In English, “came” would be indefinite; hence, the Subject must be stated.

A Verb in the infinitive mood has no Subject.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The lion roars. Bombay is noted for its mangoes. The Romans destroyed Jerusalem. Krishna learns his lesson. Twelve years of my life have passed away. The motion of these little animals is very curious. To deceive is sinful. The heroes of the war have been rewarded. The school of experience teaches many useful lessons. Among the great blessings and wonders of creation may be classed the regularity of times and seasons. To rejoice in the welfare of our fellow-creatures is, in some degree, to partake of their good fortune.

Correct the following Errors :—

The state of his affairs are very prosperous. The evils of life is numerous enough. Here comes the men. The pleasures of sin is short. The eyes of the fly is very curious. You was there too. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. How do your new coat please you? A variety of pleasing objects charm

the eye. Was you at school to-day? The leaves of the tree is falling. No! says I. It is one of the best books that has been written.

Note 1.—Him that is diligent will improve. She and me are of the same age. Who broke this slate? Me. Them that seek wisdom will be wise.

Note 2.—To practise the virtues are the sure way to love them. To honour our superiors are our duty. To do to others as we wish that they should do to us, constitute the principle of virtue.

Note 3.—Have heard. What do think? Say there has been a great battle. Went away.

Write four sentences, each with a Noun for its Subject; and three sentences, each with an Infinitive or part of a sentence as its Subject

Rule 2.—**Collective Nouns** are followed by *Verbs in the Singular or the Plural Number, according to the sense.*

If *oneness* is expressed, the Verb must be *Singular*; if the individuals of the collection act separately, the Verb must be *Plural*; as, The council is sitting; the people are divided.

Note 1.—Some Collective Nouns, as *army, fleet, regiment, &c.*, are always followed by Singular Verbs. When, however, they take Plural forms, the Verbs must likewise be Plural. Thus: The army *is* in the field; The combined armies *were* defeated.

Note 2.—Collective Nouns having but one form, as *mankind, clergy*, generally admit the Plural only. Those which have two forms, as *party*, generally take the Verb in the Singular, when the Singular form is used, and in the Plural, when the Plural form is used; as, *The party is much divided, and has little influence; and Parties are now nearly balanced, and therefore all their movements are cautiously made.*

Government is sometimes used in the Plural, but the Singular is preferable. So with *Committee*, unless there is a difference of opinion.

Note 3.—Nouns, whose Singular is figuratively¹ taken with a Plural signification, require the Verb to be Plural; as, *Twenty head of cattle are for sale.*

Note 4.—Nouns which have a Plural only, and do not imply unity, for the most part require the Verb in the Plural; as, *Riches take to themselves wings and fly away.*

Note 5.—Even Nouns having a Plural only, though they imply unity, as *scissors, trousers, tongs, &c.*, require the Verb to be Plural.

Note 6.—Though the title of a book may be Plural, the Verb

¹ Not according to the strict meaning.

must be Singular, as the work is spoken of as a whole. Thus, "The Pleasures of Hope" is by Campbell.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The youth in this country are not well educated. The British Parliament is composed of king or queen, lords, and commons. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good. The crowd was soon dispersed. The fleet sails to-morrow. An army of ten thousand was sent to Madras. The assembly was addressed by several persons. The senate was by this time weary of war. Ten sail were taken.

Correct the following Errors :—

This meeting do not recommend the plan. The number of failures increase. When the tiger appeared, the flock were scattered. The party were broken up. He said the sheep was so numerous that he could not count them. This class of persons are an example. The army were routed. Their riches makes them idle. The scissor is sharp. The tongs was heavy. Where is the compasses. He used to wear a silk trouser. Dickens's "Household Words" are in the library.

Write six sentences, each with a Collective Noun as its subject.

Rule 3.—*Two or more Singular Nominatives joined by and require a Verb in the Plural.*

As one and one make two, so two Singular Nouns are equal to one Plural. Thus, Rama and Krishna are good students.

Note 1.—If the two Singular Nouns joined by *and* refer to the same person or thing, the Verb must be Singular ; as, The general and historian has observed.

Note 2.—When two Singular Nouns, coupled by *and* convey the idea of one thing, they require a Singular Verb ; as, Curry and rice is wholesome ; The horse and carriage is at the door. When, however, the things are spoken of as distinct, the Plural must be used ; as, Curry and rice are both good.

Note 3.—When two Singular Nouns are joined by *as well as*, the Verb is Singular ; as, Rama as well as Krishna is here. In full

the sentence would be, Rama is here as well as Krishna (is here). When combination is intended, *and* should be used.

Note 4.—A Singular Noun, joined to another Noun by *with*, requires a Verb in the Singular ; as, The General, with his troops, was there. Transposed, the sentence reads thus : The General was there with his troops.

Note 5.—A nominative preceded by *each*, *every*, or *no* (unless *no* be followed by a plural Noun), requires the Verb and Pronoun to be in the Singular ; as, Every man has his failings ; Each cow, sheep, and horse, was sacrificed.

Note 6.—When two or more nominatives of different persons are joined by the conjunction *and*, the Verb agrees with the *first* person in preference to the *second*, and with the *second* in preference to the *third* ; as, You and I have learned our lessons ; You and he have received your reward.

But if one pronoun is *affirmative* and the other *negative*, the Verb agrees with the *affirmative* ; as, *He*, and not you, is wrong.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Ceylon and Java are islands. Both France and England are without the Torrid Zone. Energy and perseverance are the grand peculiarities of the Anglo-Saxon race. Honour and shame from no condition rise. The king, the queen, and the prince have arrived. Hannibal, as well as Napoleon, crossed the Alps. Faith, hope, and charity are cardinal virtues. Each man, woman, and child was saved. The merchant, with all his goods, is leaving to-day. You and I must get our things ready for the journey. The guide, and not you, is to be blamed.

Correct the following Errors :—

The picture, the slate, and the book, belongs to me. False hope and false terror is equally to be avoided. Both he and she is still there. You and I has been disappointed. Is your brother and sister at home ? Copper and tin is soft metals. Sorrow and silence is strong. Happiness and misery is from within.

Notes.—Hannibal, with his army, were able to cross the Alps. Each man and woman get food daily. Govind, as well as Krishna, were late. A knife and fork are ready for you. You and I must mind your duty. The Cape of Good Hope, as well as the China

Seas, are famed for hurricanes. They and we have lost their pens. Where are his bread and butter? Rama, and not you, deserve the prize.

Write three sentences each containing two or more Singular Subjects followed by a Plural Verb.

Rule 4.—*Two or more Singular Nominatives separated by or or nor require a Verb in the Singular.*

Only one is taken; so the Verb must be Singular. As, Rama or Krishna is wrong.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Neither youth nor beauty is a security against death. Town or country is equally pleasant to us. To court a friend in prosperity, or to forsake a friend in adversity, is mean and despicable. Force or bribery overruled every election. Neither precept nor discipline is so forcible as example.

Correct the following Errors :—

Either he or his brother were in Madras. To scorn or to hate are equally sinful. Your approbation or disapprobation affect him more than you imagine. Benevolence, not wealth, inspire admiration. Neither life nor property were respected. Man's happiness or misery depend, in a great measure, upon himself.

Rule 5.—*When two or more Nominatives in different Numbers are joined by or or nor, the Verb is in the Plural; as, Rama or his friends are to blame.*

The Plural Nominative should be placed next the Verb.

Note.—When two or more Nominatives of different Persons are joined by or or nor, the Verb agrees with the one next it; as, Either you or he is to blame; Neither you nor I am to go.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Either your box or your books were burnt. Neither the leader nor his men were aware of what had taken place. Either the master or the servants are at home. Neither moon nor stars were seen. I heard that either you or James refused to go.

Correct the following Errors :—

Neither he nor you was there. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. Either he or I intends to be present. Neither riches nor health is to be depended on. Either they or I am in fault.

Rule 6.—*A Noun or a Pronoun joined to a Participle, without being connected with any other Verb in the sentence, is said to be in the Nominative Absolute; as, Day dawning, we arose.*

Absolute means *loosed from, standing alone*. Such a clause is said to be *absolute*, because it stands alone, and the Noun is said to be in the *Nominative Absolute*, because it does not agree with any Verb.

If a Noun is the Nominative to a Verb, it cannot be in the Nominative Absolute; as, The gambler, having lost all his money, drowned himself.

The Noun or Pronoun is sometimes left out or understood; as, Granting this, what follows? The Participle in such a case has been called an *Impersonal Absolute*. The Participle is sometimes understood; as, Joy (*being*) absent, grief is present.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The war being finished, the troops were withdrawn. The town being relieved, the enemy raised the siege. That being the case, I can make no objection. I tell you, that your son having thus wasted his time, we have no further hopes of him. I shall not lag behind, thou leading.

What is meant by the Nominative Absolute? Write four sentences each containing a Nominative Absolute.

Position of the Subject.

Rule 7.—*The Subject or Nominative usually comes before the Verb; as, Rama struck Govind.*

In the case of Transitive Verbs, this position is necessary to distinguish the Subject from the Object.

Exceptions.

The Nominative comes **after** the Verb in the following cases :—

1. When the sentence is **Interrogative**; as, *Will you go?*

The Nominative comes between the Auxiliary and the Verb. If there is no auxiliary, **do** or **did** is usually placed before the Nominative; as, *Did you write?* Sometimes the Verb is simply placed first; as, *Lovest thou me?* The latter form is seldom used except in poetry, and with the Verb **to be**; as, *Is he well?*

In Urdu, &c., there is no difference in the arrangement of a sentence, whether it is interrogative or affirmative.¹ Indian students sometimes make mistakes by not altering the arrangement in English. *Why you will go?* ought to be, *Why will you go?*

Another error is to omit the auxiliary **do** or **did**. *Why you study English?* ought to be, *Why do you study English?* *Why he came yesterday?* ought to be, *Why did he come yesterday?* *You are diligent or not?* should be, *Are you diligent?* *He is rich, is it?* should be, *Is he rich?*

But when the subject is an **Interrogative Pronoun**, it comes **before** the Verb; as, *Who gave them?*

2. When the sentence is **Imperative**; as, *Go ye.* The subject is often omitted; as, *Run.*

3. In conditional clauses without **if**; as, *Had I seen him.*

4. When the sentence begins with **there**, **here**, &c.; as, *There was an uproar.*

There, *here*, is not the Adverb, *in that place*. It has no meaning, and is used only to introduce the Verb.

5. When **neither** or **nor**, signifying **and not**, comes before the Verb; as, *Nor was he mistaken.*

6. When a **wish** or **exclamation** is expressed; as, *Long live the Queen!* *How blind is man!*

7. In introducing the parts of a dialogue; as, *said he; replied Govind.*

8. For the sake of **emphasis**; as, *Fallen, fallen is Babylon!*

9. In **poetry**; as, *From out waste places comes a cry.*

Great liberty is allowed in the position of words in poetry.

¹ Saying something.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Discontent always injures those who foster it. Virtue is its own reward, and vice its own punishment. True greatness consists in the possession of great virtues. Can you repeat your lessons? Shall I send him to school? Follow the customs of the world in matters indifferent; but stop when they become sinful. Faithful are the wounds of a friend; but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful. Never was man so tormented as I have been. There sits the author of all the mischief. "Come now," says he, "let us dine." "I wish," cried the boy's father, "that you would send him away." Had I considered the matter with greater attention, I might have given a different opinion.

Correct the following Errors :—

What they are copying? Why you bring it? Why you brought it? How, then, you came here? Why he goes so often? How to do this sum? What for he do this? How the carpenter does his work? Why you are going? Where these men come from? What the teacher said last night? In what book you read it? How much money you have? Your father is sick, is it? You came yesterday or not? Why you did come? How we can spend our time foolishly when we know that hereafter we must give an account of our thoughts, words, and actions? He were ever so great and opulent, this conduct would debase him.

THE NOUN.

Rule 8.—*Nouns or Pronouns in apposition agree in Case.*

Apposition comes from a word meaning *placed near*. Nouns referring to the same person, but not joined by a conjunction, are said to be in **apposition**; as, William the Conqueror. This form is used by way of explanation.

The words in apposition may be separated from each other; as, *He comes, the herald of a noisy world.*

Note 1.—A Noun is sometimes put in apposition to a sentence or a part of a sentence; as, "Rama was very inattentive to his studies, *conduct* which greatly displeased his father."

Note 2.—Nouns and Pronouns in apposition do not always agree in *Number*; as, *They went away, every man* to his own house.

Note 3.—When the Nouns in apposition are in the possessive case, the *s* and the apostrophe are used with only one of them; as, *It is an essay of Bacon's the philosopher*; or of *Bacon. the philosopher's*. The former mode must always be adopted when the last term consists of several words.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Valmiki, the author of the *Ramayana*, lived in ancient times. I have read Milton's great work, *Paradise Lost*. Columbus, the discoverer of America, was a native of Genoa. London, the greatest city in the world, is built on the banks of the River Thames. Xenophon, the soldier and historian, was a disciple of Socrates, the philosopher. I shall see him myself. They were drawn with seven oranges, a thing quite out of taste. The Saxons, a German tribe, invaded England. We have turned every one to his own way.

Correct the following Errors :—

Note 3.—Call at Smith's the hatter and drapers. The plan was Pitt, the great politician and premier's. The head was John's the Baptist. That expression is Johnson, one of the giants of literature's. I have a letter of Cowper the poet's. Those colours are the Victory, the flagship of Nelson's. I have been reading an essay of Bacon, the lawyer, scholar, and philosopher's.

Write four sentences, each with a Noun in Apposition.

Rule 9.—*A Noun denoting the possessor of an object must be put in the Possessive Case ; as, Rama's book.*

The Possessive at first denoted mere possession ; but it has gradually required a wider meaning ; as, *Rama's marriage*.

The presence or absence of the apostrophe gives a different meaning to a sentence. "What do you think of Rama's coming?" indicates that he has already come. "What do you think of Rama coming?" means whether he should come.

Note 1.—The Possessive is seldom used except where the Noun denotes a living being or personified object. In the case of things without life, which cannot possess, the Objective with *of* is used. Thus we may say, *The lion's roar*, but not *the book's price*. The latter ought to be, *the price of a book*. But the Possessive may be used in the case of time ; as, *a year's notice*, *an hour's walk*. The Objective with *of* may be used with persons, especially where more prominence is given to the *thing possessed* than to the *possessor* ; as, *the book of Rama* has been stolen.

Note 2.—When the latter Noun expresses one object, which is the common property of several individuals, or when the former consists of more than one term, the apostrophic 's is affixed to the last ; as, *John, Thomas, and Henry's estate* ; *John the Baptist's head*.

When several subjects are respectively assigned to each, the 's is annexed to each; as, *John's, Thomas's, and Henry's estate*; i.e.,¹ the estate of John, the estate of Thomas, and the estate of Henry.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Money is the miser's god. The bookseller's shop is well supplied with paper. The spider's thread is cable to man's tie on earthly bliss. It is yours; it is mine. My fathers' ancient burial place is there.

Notes.—With priests' and warriors' voice between. Have you read Cowper the poet's works? William the Conqueror's son was married to a Saxon princess. The safety lamp is an invention of Sir Humphrey Davy's. This picture of my brother's cost fifty rupees. I have seen the Pope officiate at St. Peter's. *The Task* is a poem of Cowper's. A year's supply is now in stock.

Correct the following Errors:—

Rule.—From another's experience do thou learn wisdom. Wisdom ways are ways of pleasantness. Thy fathers' virtue reflects honour on thee. The poet's genius would have immortalized the monarch's deeds. The scholars' improvement is the master object. He rises as on eagle wings. I shall return to my fathers' house. We should not interfere with others' affairs. The teachers' learning commands the boys' respect. They should have been attending to their friends' affairs.

Note 1.—The house's height. Bombay's Governor. The street's width is insufficient. The letter's envelope is torn.

Note 2.—Thacker's, Spink's, and Company's bookselling establishment is very extensive. This is Duke Wellington's the General's tent. The house you so admire is John's, Alexander's, and William's. These three books are (severally) John, William, and Thomas's.

*Convert the following sentences into the possessive form:—*The paintings of Reynolds, West, and Lawrence, are greatly admired. The books of Thomas, John, and Henry are come. The oratory of Burke, Fox, and Pitt, has been greatly lauded. Have you obtained the consent of your father and mother? The presence of the emperor, king, and prince, added dignity to the ceremony.

Change the Possessive, in the exercises under the Rule, into the Objective with of.

¹ Contracted from the Latin words, *id est*, that is.

The Possessive Case—Continued.

Note 3.—When a long explanatory term occurs, 's is generally affixed to the name, or first term ; as, *We staid at Lord Ashley's, the ornament of his country, and friend of every virtue.*

Note 4.—It is improper to place a clause of a sentence between a possessive case and the words which usually follow it. Thus, *She began to extol the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding,* should be, *She began to extol the excellent understanding of the farmer as she called him.*

Note 5.—When comparison or a particular emphasis is implied, or when words intervene between the series of Nouns, the 's is used with each ; as, *They are Jane's, as well as Mary's drawings ; He had the physician's, the surgeon's, and the apothecary's assistance.*

Note 6.—The too frequent occurrence in a sentence of the Possessive, or of the Objective with *of*, is to be avoided. Too many hissing sounds are also objectionable ; as, *for Moses's sake,* instead of *for the sake of Moses.*

The sign of the Possessive is repeated when one Possessive is used to specify another ; as, *Peter's wife's mother.*

Note 7.—The Possessive may be used along with *of*, when the possessor is understood to have more of the things named than are referred to in the sentence ; as, *That book is one of my brother's ;* that is, *It is one book of my brother's books.*

Note 8.—In possessive phrases, the last word is often understood ; as, *He went to St. James's ;* that is, *St. James's Palace.* This does not apply to pronouns. We cannot say, *I went to yours yesterday ;* but *I went to your house, &c.*

Note 9.—A participial phrase, or verbal Noun, often supplies the place of the latter Noun ; as, *Owing to the letter's not being received ; I am vexed at Rama's refusing to go.*

Note 10.—When the possessor is the name of a city, &c., the possessor is sometimes used as an Adjective to the thing possessed ; as, *a Calcutta merchant, the school fence.*

EXERCISES.

Note 4.—I called at Longman, the well-known publisher and bookseller's. These are Solomon, the celebrated sage, and king of the Jewish people's proverbs. I live at Raeburn, the celebrated portrait painter's. The speeches are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's.

Note 5.—His fathers worth to say nothing of his uncle, has greatly assisted him. The Andromeda, not the Invincible, nor the Victory's crew, has been paid off. Convert the following examples into the possessive form :—He lost not only the confidence of the king, but at the same time that also of the Chancellor. I

was regulated not only by the advice of the surgeon and apothecary but also by that of the physician.

Note 6.—It was his father's sister's son's house. Have you read the account of the General of the great battle? Of some of the books of each of the classes of literature, a catalogue will be given. The ship is commanded by Lord Raglans' cousin's nephew. The Emperor's uncle's son's death was universally lamented.

It happened that Moses's rod swallowed up the rest. This is the first witness' place; the others are the other witness' boxes. He was appointed in Felix's room. Achilles was Peleus's son.

Note 7.—This picture of the Queen's is a very striking likeness of her. Were you present at the sale of the pictures of the Queen? He was an old friend of me. *Tell the words in the following examples indicating plurality of the objects possessed:*—Another trick of the lawyer's has been detected. That horse is one of Peter's. That adventure of the hero's has excited great astonishment. *The Task* is a poem of Cowper's. The law of gravitation is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton's.

Note 8.—Supply the appropriate words in the following sentences:—St. Peter's, at Rome, is the finest building in the world. You will get the book at Higginbotham's. Send the servant to the draper's. He was married yesterday morning at St. Andrew's.

Note 9.—This arose from the Count associating with bad people, and was the cause of him losing office. The dislike originated in the Queen intercepting certain letters. It occurred in consequence of the letter remaining unanswered. He judged from the likelihood of the evil coming upon him.

Note 10.—The house's door is open. An Amritsar's shawl merchant called to-day. The library's key is lost. The school's wall has fallen.

Rule 10.—*Nouns or Pronouns denoting persons or things addressed are in the Vocative Case; as, O Rama!*

Note.—The first Personal Pronoun is excepted, being put in the Objective; as, *Ah me!* The Preposition *to* is probably understood. The Vocative is also called the *Nominative of Address*.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Now, my friend, let us go back to my house. There is no terror, Cassius, in your threats. Go, wondrous creature! Mount where science guides. Mourn him, thou Sun, great source of light! Hail, beauteous stranger of the grove! Ye hills of my country, farewell ever more.

Alas, unhappy me ! Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear. Gopal, when did you go ?

Rule 11.—*Some Nouns are not used in the Plural ; others are not used in the Singular.*

Note 1.—**Material Nouns**, or Names of substances, are not used in the *Plural* except when different *sorts* are meant ; as, *This is oil ; Some of these oils are good.*

Note 2.—**Names of Qualities** and some other Nouns are generally used only in the *Singular* ; as, *goodness, pride, &c.* Mistakes are often made in India by giving plural forms to *furniture, poetry, business, abuse, &c.*

Note 3.—**Proper Names** are not used in the *Plural* unless when they are applied to several persons ; as, *The twelve Cæsars.*

Note 4.—Some Nouns are used only in the *Plural* ; as, *scissors, trousers, &c.*

Note 5.—Most Nouns have Singular or Plural forms according to the sense ; as, *This is a vegetable ; Get some vegetables.*

Further directions under this head will be found in the Rules for the Number of Nouns.

Correct the following Errors :—

I wish to buy some furnitures. What peoples like wheats very much ? They wear English coat and trouser. Potteries are made in Staffordshire. He give a deal of troubles. Give us your advices. He came on some of his businesses. My circumstance is very miserable. Go to the market for some vegetable. Some say that to increase the liberties of women would tend to harm. He instilled proper notion into my mind. There was a great fall of rains. You should give charities to deserving beggars. Do you like potatoe ? Milks are nourishing food. Waters are best. This book contains beautiful poetries. Rama gave me many abuses.

THE ADJECTIVE.

Rule 12.—*Every Adjective qualifies a Noun, either expressed or understood ; as, A high mountain.*

Adjectives are used *attributively* ; as, *Ripe fruit* ; or *predicatively* ; as, *The fruit is ripe.* An Adjective may qualify a Noun pre-

dicatively, not only after the Verb *be*, but after such Intransitive Verbs, as, *look, seem, feel, taste, &c.* ; as, *Ice feels cold ; He seemed weary.*

After Verbs of *making, thinking, considering, &c.*, an Adjective may be used **factitively**¹ as well as **predicatively** ; as, *He made the little boy happy ; We thought him mad.*

Note 1.—Adjectives preceded by the Definite Article are often used by *ellipsis* as Nouns ; as, *the learned, for learned men.* *The beautiful* has the same meaning as the Abstract Noun *beauty*.

When an Adjective is changed into a Noun, it may take the Plural or an Apostrophe ; as, *nobles, a noble's honour.*

Note 2.—The comparative is used when the objects compared are two ; the superlative when they are more than two ; as, *He is the braver soldier of the two ; This is the bravest soldier in the army.*

Note 3.—Double comparatives and superlatives must be avoided ; and comparison must never be attempted in the case of certain Adjectives that do not admit of it ; as, *complete ; universal.* *Lesser*, however, is used even by the best authors.

Note 4.—When an individual of a class is compared with all the others of that class, either the superlative, or the comparative with *other*, may be used ; as, *Solomon was the wisest of all men, or, Solomon was wiser than all other men.*

When different classes, or different individuals of the same class, are compared, the comparative is to be used ; as *Jane is taller than her sisters.*

Note 5.—The comparative requires *than* after it when opposition is implied, but *of* when selection is signified ; and *such* requires *as* ; as, *Peter is a wiser man than Thomas ; Peter is the wiser of the two ; Such men as he are happy.* *Superior, inferior, and prior*, take to instead of *than* ; as, *In writing, Rama is superior to Govind.*

When the second term of a comparison is given, it must correspond in construction with the first ; as, *The study of Sanskrit is more interesting than that of Assamese.*

Parse the following Sentences :—

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Sulphur is a hard, brittle body, of a yellow colour, with little smell, and a weak taste. The way was long, the wind was

¹ Causatively. A factitive verb requires some word, called the complement, to complete the sense.

cold ; the minstrel was infirm and old. A profligate life leads to a miserable death.

Notes.—Brethren they are in those rude huts, in that wild attire. Few, few shall part where many meet. There are many ways of telling a secret. Of two such lessons why forget the nobler and the manlier one? In the worst inn's worst room. The calmest and the stillest night. Gold is softer than iron, harder than tin, and more easily melted than copper. To tell a lie is mean and despicable. This edition is the better of the two. To confess a fault is better than to conceal it.

Correct the following Errors :—

Note 2.—Of the two youths, James was the brightest. Of all the planets, Jupiter is the larger. Newton and Kepler were both great men, but Newton was the profoundest of the two. Australia is much larger than Great Britain, but the latter is far the most powerful. She was the finer ship in the whole fleet.

Note 3.—Throw away the worser part. He once saw more happier days. His horse was by far the most swiftest in the field. My father is more older than yours. The welfare of the soul is surely more preferable to that of the body. The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the more faster the lesser weight it carries. Whose fame is more universal than Alexander's? Your composition is more perfect than mine. John's specimen is the completest of all. This is more better than that.

Note 4.—*Let the pupil change the following examples into the other form mentioned in the Note :—*Napoleon was the greatest of all modern European generals. Britain is the richest of all nations. London is larger than any other capital in Europe. Mary is handsomer than her sisters. Mont Blanc is the highest mountain in Europe. The Missouri-Mississippi is the longest of rivers.

Note 5.—Socrates was more patient above most men. Scott's works of fiction soon became more popular nor those of any other novelist. Venus is brighter beyond any other planet. The nobles had little more to rely upon besides the power of their families. The orator gained nothing more by his address, but merely to be complimented on his eloquence.

*Common Mistakes of young Indian Students :—*Iron is hard than wood. Iron is useful than gold. This line is longer of that line. Than that knife this is good. Of Rama and Govind, Govind is clever. The elephant is the most intelligent than all beasts. The horse is swift than a man. Among these horses this is good. Madras is near Bombay than Calcutta. This mango is better to the one I ate yesterday. England is a colder country from India.

He was a good scholar than his companions. He is so tall as I am. Krishna is taller me. Gold is dearer than the silver, and silver is more dear as the iron ; but iron is the useful metal than all.

The Adjective—Continued.

Note 6.—**Each, every, either, and neither**, require the Verb to be in the singular ; as, *Each witness gives a different statement.* The phrase “every three years” is allowable, being taken collectively as one period. The Plural may also be used when both *Genders* are implied ; as, *Let each esteem other better than themselves.*¹ **None**, being a compound of *no one*, is evidently singular ; but it is sometimes used with a plural Verb.

Note 7.—**Either and neither** refer to two objects only, and cannot be applied to more ; as, *Either of the two (not three) will suit.*

Note 8.—**Any** has several meanings. After negative words, it marks the exclusion of *all* ; as, *You cannot get any allowance.* So in questions expected to be answered by *none*, &c. ; as, *Can any man believe this?* *Any* is sometimes equivalent to *any you please* ; as, *Any body may go in.* Sometimes *any* is equal to *some one* ; as, *Shall we tell any body?*

Any should not be inserted where it is not required. “It is of no any use,” ought to be, “It is of no use.”

Note 9.—The Demonstrative Adjectives **this** and **that** agree in number with the Nouns they qualify ; as, *this book, these books.*

Note 10.—When *this* and *that*, or *one* and *other*, or *former* and *latter*, refer to two objects previously spoken of, *this, one, and latter*, refer to the second of them ; and *that, other, and former*, to the first : as, *Wealth and poverty are both temptations ; that tends to excite pride ; this, discontentment.*

Note 11.—When two numeral Adjectives, an ordinal and a cardinal, qualify a Noun, the ordinal should be placed first when members of one class are spoken of, the cardinal when members of different classes are spoken of. *Ex.*—*The first three chapters (of St. Luke's Gospel). The three first chapters (of the several Gospels).*

Note 12. The Adjectives *like, unlike, near, nigh, and next*, take Objectives after them ; as, *like him ; near me ; next us.* The Preposition *to* is understood.

Correct the following Errors :—

Note 6.—*Let each boy look after their books. Neither of them eat. Either of the plans are good. He was surrounded on every sides. He goes to England every two year.*

¹ This rule is condemned by some grammarians, but Bain maintains that it is supported by the best writers.

Note 7.—Give me either of the five. I did not hear a speech of any interest from either of the many able members present in the house. None of his hands is idle. Neither of the nations in the world is inobservant of the present war. Did it injure any of his eyes? Neither of the three cookies has done much. I shall gladly accept any of the two books you please. There was no any one in the room.

Note 9.—This pens are his. Those slate is yours. This houses belong to Mr. Morgan. I have not seen him this six months. Those kind of remarks are very hurtful. I have waited this two hours. He has expected you these fortnight. Those kind of rules are clear. These sort of people are not to be trusted. He despises dancing, and all those sort of things. It was deeds of these kind in which he delighted.

Note 10.—The boy and the girl have been equally to blame; the first contrived the fault, and that committed it. Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; this ennobles the mind, the other debases it. Brittain has great advantages for commerce and manufactures; this is facilitated by the extent of her coast and the excellence of her harbours, and that by her inexhaustible supplies of iron and coal. It is better to fall among crows than among flatterers; these devour the dead body only, this the living.

Position of the Adjective.

Rule 13.—*The Adjective usually stands before the Noun which it qualifies; as, a swift horse.*

The Adjective is placed after the Noun in the following cases :—

1. When it is used *predicatively*; as, Gold is *heavy*.
2. Adjectives with the prefix *a* are used only *predicatively*; as, the man is *alive*; the woman is *afraid*. We cannot say the *alive* man; the *afraid* woman. These adjectives are *ahead*, *alike*, *aloof*, *alone*, *amass*, *asleep*, *awake*, &c. It applies also to a few others, as, *well*.
3. When it is used as a title; as, Alexander the Great.
4. When qualified by words or phrases; as, A man *eminent* in his profession.
5. When it expresses number or size; as, An army *ten thousand strong*; a wall *ten feet high*.

When fractions are used with whole numbers, they are placed last; as, Three rupees and a half—not three and a half rupees.

6. When it expresses the effect of an active Verb; as, Vice renders men *miserable*.

7. When used with an incomplete Verb ; as, He looks *well* ; he seemed *ill*.

8. When several Adjectives qualify one Noun, they are sometimes placed after it ; as, A king, *wise, just, and generous*.

9. The Adjective, when it is emphatic, is sometimes placed at the beginning of a sentence, and at a distance from the Noun ; as, *Just and true* are all Thy ways.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The wall built by Severus was twelve feet high, and eight feet thick. Industry keeps the mind clear, and the body healthful. The stones of Solomon's temple were forty cubits long, twelve cubits broad, and eight cubits thick. A child obedient to his parents is sure to be beloved. The nightingale is the most famous of singing birds. Its head and back are pale and tawny. The memory of my friend is very retentive, his imagination vigorous, and his judgment keen and sound.

Correct the following Errors :—

A spirit temperate, and expectations moderate, are safeguards excellent of the mind, in this state uncertain and changing. The Great Peter of Russia wrought in the dockyards as a ship-carpenter. He is a good and respectful scholar to his teacher. This long room is twenty feet, and wide sixteen feet. Your bounty has rendered that old quite comfortable man. Aloof he kept.

THE ARTICLE.

Rule 14.—The Indefinite Article *is used with the Singular only ; the Definite, with either Number.*

The correct use of the English Articles is very difficult to an Indian student. It is impossible to give rules for every case ; but the following directions will be useful. See page 36 about the use of *an* instead of *a*.

Meaning of the Articles.

A or **an** is a weakened form of **one**. They differ in meaning. **A** points to *species*, or kind, and **one** to *number*. Give me *a pen*, means that *a pen* is asked for,—not a book ; but it may be *any* pen. Give me *one pen*, implies that *one* is asked for,—not two or three.

The is a weakened form of **that**. It is the *defining*, or *marking out* Article. It is used to point out some particular person or thing. Give me *the pen*, implies some particular one.

General Rules.

I. Every Common Noun in the Singular requires an Article, or some such word as *this, each, my, &c.* *I saw cow*, should be, *I saw a cow*, or, *I saw the cow*. *This box is broken* ; *My cap is white*.

II. Articles should not be used before Proper Nouns, Common Nouns personified, Abstract Nouns used in a general sense, and Names of Materials. *I saw the Rama*, should be, *I saw Rama* ; *Conscience pleads her cause* ; *Justice is commendable* ; *Gold is heavy*.

Proper Nouns point out some particular person, and no Article is needed.

EXCEPTIONS.

1. Common Nouns in the Singular, used in a general sense, do not require an Article ; as, *Man is mortal*.

2. Proper Nouns used as Common, Abstract Nouns and Names of Materials used in a particular sense, require an Article ; as, *Valmiki was the Homer of India* ; *the industry of Govind* ; *the gold of Australia*.

The is generally used before the names of books, unless they bear the names of persons ; as, *the Bible, the Koran, the Vedas, Hamlet, Sakuntala*. When the author's name is mentioned, we may say *the Hamlet of Shakespeare*, or *Shakespeare's Hamlet*.

The is used before the names of ships ; as, *the Victoria*.

The usage with regard to **Geographical Names** is puzzling. We can say *the Pacific*, among oceans ; but we cannot say *the Asia*, among continents.

The following general directions may be given :—

(1.) The Definite Article should generally be placed before the names of Rivers, Gulfs, Seas, Oceans, Groups of Islands, Mountain Ranges, and descriptive names of Countries ; as, *the Ganges, the Persian Gulf, the Arabian Sea, the Andaman Islands, the United States*.

(2.) The Definite Article, as a rule, should not be placed before the names of Continents, Countries, Capes, single Islands or Mountains, unless some descriptive term is used ; as, *Asia, India, Cape Comorin, Ceylon, Vesuvius*. But we say *the Punjab*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The gardener gave Krishna a dozen for an anna. The farmer still owes a few pounds of his rent. The three

men sat down under the shade of a large and spreading tree. I saw a man and a woman on my way to the city. He who depends on his own diligence will succeed better than he who depends on a friend and patron. The race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong.

Correct the following Errors :—

The good boy is the delight of his parents. Virtuous woman is the crown of her husband. Evening star does not twinkle. Ganges is the Indian river. The Mont Blanc is one of Alps. It is noun. I go to temple. He used to wear beard. English language is the good one. You are fool to say that. After long time he came. An ox was found in jungle. He ate a sugar. Indus has overflowed. He went to the Ceylon. The envy is cruel. The water is necessary to man. He understands the grammar. I saw lion in field. Cocoa-nut palm flourishes in the Cochin. The Lucknow is fine city. I have studied the grammar, the arithmetic, and the geography. I sailed across Red Sea. How timid creature is deer! Amazon flows into Atlantic. The gold is heavier than the lead.

THE ARTICLE — *Continued.*

Special Rules.

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

Note 1.—The **Indefinite Article**, as a rule, is only used with *Singular Nouns*; but it may be used with *Collective* and *Plural Nouns*, when the numbers are taken as one; as, *an army*; *a hundred men*; *a few mangoes*; *a great many people*.

The numeral **one** should not be used instead of the Indefinite Article. *One tiger went into one jungle*, ought to be, *A tiger went into a jungle*. *One* is to be used only where the *number* is emphatic.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

Note 2.—The **Definite Article** is used before *Adjectives* in the *Superlative*, and before *Nouns* in which individuals are singled out; as, *He gave me the best book*; *the Queen*, *the sun*.

We cannot say, *a best book*, for that would imply that there were *other best books*. If a Possessive Pronoun is used before the Superlative, the Article is not required; as, *This is my best hat*.

The Definite Article is used before a Proper Adjective when "people" or "nation" is understood; but is omitted when "language" is understood; as, *The English and the French*; *I am learning English*.

The Definite Article is sometimes used with Adjectives to represent a whole class or an abstract idea; as, *The good alone are happy*; *the beautiful*. We also say *the lion*, &c.

The is used with Nouns that represent well-known single objects or single wholes; as, *the sun, the river, the door, the Queen, the nobility*, &c.

The Definite Article is sometimes used instead of the Possessive Pronoun; as, *I have a pain in the head*, instead of *my head*.

Note 3.—Though a Common Noun may take the Indefinite Article when first mentioned, it afterwards takes the Definite Article; as, *A thief went into a house. When the owner of the house saw the thief*, &c.

OMISSION OF THE ARTICLES.

Note 4.—When an Adjective is used predicatively, the Article is omitted; as, *Rama is diligent*.

Nouns in the Plural used indefinitely take no Article; as, *Birds fly*.

The Article is sometimes omitted for brevity in common expressions; as, *in school, to dinner, from head to foot*, &c.

Correct the following Errors:—

Note 1.—I lent him few annas. Give him hundred rupees. Great many ships sail to-day. Thousand men made a sally. I saw one boy in one field. In the Africa there are great many lions. He is one priest.

Note 2.—A sun gives light to our earth. Viceroy went to Delhi. French were defeated at Waterloo. This was greatest of all Mogul emperors. Queen of England rules over the large part of the earth. The Socrates was wisest of Greeks. Are you studying the Sanskrit? He struck him on his mouth. He suffers from disease of his heart. Can you look him in his face? He gave me a best advice. Lion is beast of prey, like tiger. Elephant is intelligent. Mango is good fruit. Do not neglect study of the English. Can you tell me longest river in the Europe?

Note 3.—A crow alighted on a fruit tree in a garden. When an owner saw a crow on a fruit tree in a garden, he ran for gun.

Note 4.—What noise he makes in the school! The lizards eat the flies. Do you think me a foolish? No, I consider you to be a very wise. The cats kill the rats.

THE ARTICLE—*Continued.*

Note 5.—When several Adjectives descriptive of the *same* person or thing are connected, the Article is prefixed to the first only; as, *A brown and white cow.* When the Adjectives refer to *different* persons or things, the Article is used before each; as, *A brown and a white cow.*

In the phrase, "*A good boy and a girl,*" the girl is not said to be good. In "*A good boy and girl,*" both are good.

Note 6.—When two or more Nouns refer to the *same person* or thing, the Article is used with the first only; as, *Cæsar, the Consul and Dictator, was killed in the Senate:* but when they refer to *different persons* or things, it is placed before each; as, *The Duke of Newcastle, the Commander of the Forces, and the Secretary at War, were all to blame.*

Note 7.—When two or more names referring to the *same person* or thing follow a comparative, the Article is used before the first only; as, *He is a better singer than dancer.* When they refer to *different persons* or things, the Article is used with each; as, *He is a better statesman than a soldier;* that is, "*He is a better statesman than a soldier would be.*"

Note 8.—When in a series of Nouns, some would require *a*, and others *an*, the Article must be repeated with each; as, *A duke, an earl, and a marquis were present;* not, *A duke, earl, and marquis.*

Note 9.—The insertion of the Indefinite Article before the Adjectives *few, little, slight,* and similar words, sometimes effects a material change of meaning; as, *He has little money,* means he has *very little;* *He has a little money,* means that he has, at least, *some.*

Note 10.—Again, the two phrases, *half a rupee* and *a half rupee* are both correct; but the meaning is different.

Correct the following Errors:—

Note 5.—A brave man and an accomplished officer published his account of the siege. A small and large bear (i.e., *two bears*) were shot. A green and a yellow bird (*one*) was caught. I bought a red and a white cow: it cost ten pounds. A red and white cow (*two, one red and one white*) are in the field.

Note 6.—The pious and the learned Newton was there. Bulwer, the novelist and the poet, declined the offer. The General, Admiral, Ambassador, and Consul, met for consultation. He has a slate, hour-glass, book, and pen. Xenophon, the historian, the warrior, and the philosopher, had few equals. The young and old, the learned and ignorant, the prince and peasant, are liable to misfortune. The Captain lost a leg and arm. Bring a pen, book, and inkholder. He is an excellent orator, and a good soldier.

Note 7.—Demosthenes was a better speaker than a soldier. Cicero was an abler philosopher than a poet. Vitellius was a more renowned epicure than an Emperor. He is more of a scholar than a divine. I consider him a greater rogue than a fool.

Note 8.—He has a few good qualities. He has few good qualities. A few men are wiser than he is. He is a good boy, but sometimes needs little correction. I have small claim against you. You have a small claim on my regard.

Position of the Article.

Rule 15.—*The Article precedes the Noun to which it belongs*; as, *A* horse. When the Noun is qualified by an Adjective, the Article usually precedes both; as, *A* white horse.

EXCEPTIONS.

Note 1.—The *Indefinite Article* follows *many, such, what, and* Adjectives preceded by *too, so, as, and how*; as, *Many a* man; *so great a* crowd!

Note 2.—The *Definite Article* is placed *after* the Adjectives *all and both*; as, *All the* people came; *Both the* soldiers were shot.

Note 3.—The *Definite Article* follows the Noun when the Adjectives used as titles also come after the Noun; as, *Peter the* Great.

Correct the following Errors:—

A many man has done the same. Never had I seen a so large elephant before. The all money was paid. Man is noblest the work of the creation. He is much a better writer than reader. A many a man has attained independence by industry and perseverance. Do not entertain a too high opinion of yourself. I am ashamed to tell how a great mistake I have committed. Greater the part of the furniture is removed, but the all servants remain.

A such trifle deserves no thanks. That would be too dangerous attempt. He returned all books he stole. I have received from him many favour. It is too large book for him to read through. It is as large ship as his. The both brothers were drowned. The tenth Pope Leo.

THE PRONOUN.

Rule 16.—*Pronouns agree with the Nouns for which they are used in Gender, Number, and Person.*

As, Rama has hurt *his* hand; The lady has lost *her* glove; The scholars have neglected *their* studies.

In English, Possessive Pronouns agree in gender and number

with the Nouns they stand for, and not, as in Urdu, &c., with the Nouns which follow them. My sister lost *their* books, ought to be, My sister lost *her* books.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Every good act will receive its reward. Neither he nor his friends have interested themselves in this subject. Tell that man that he must go. The rose is sweet, but it is surrounded with thorns. Were the man to acquire riches, they would corrupt his mind. The duchess brought her son to the assembly; but when she saw that it was too late, she fled with him to England. He and she went away this morning, after they had visited their father.

Supply the omitted Pronouns:—

Rule.—The ships have sailed to destination. I commit these youths to your care, trusting will prove diligent. Is this the path? and does lead out of the wood? The army has gone to winter quarters. When the soldier had completed years of service was discharged. The book is not injured, though has been tossed about. The crowd was so great that I could hardly get through. When you see any one busy, do not interrupt. If the goods are ready, let me have as soon as possible. The Long Parliament it was that made war on Charles I.; but remaining members restored Charles II.

The Pronoun—Continued.

Note 1.—*Thou* is now seldom used except in addressing God, or in poetry. *You* is applied even to one person, but the Verb must be plural.

Hindi has only one Pronoun, *wah*, for *he*, *she*, *it*, and *that*, and such is also the case with some other Indian languages. In English, the distinction between *he*, *she*, and *it* must be observed.

Personal Pronouns are sometimes omitted in the Indian Vernaculars, as they are indicated by the terminations of the Verbs. In English, Personal Pronouns are mentioned except when the

subject of the imperative. The Verb *came* in English would be indefinite. It might mean, *I came, she came, they came, &c. He brought, ought to have the object added, it, them, &c. Here is my pen: please mend, ought to have it after mend.*

Note 2.—*My, thy, her, our, your, their,* are used when placed before Nouns; as, *My book. Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* are used when placed after the Nouns; as, *This book is mine.*

It may be added that the longer forms of the Possessive Pronouns are connected by *and*, but the shorter forms must not. We say, *This is yours and mine*, but we cannot say, *This is your and my.*

Note 3.—The Pronoun *it*, when the nominative to a Verb, may be applied to each of the three persons in both numbers; as, *It was I; it is she; it was they.*

It sometimes introduces or represents the clause of a sentence; as, *It is our duty to forgive.* The true nominative is *to forgive.* It is used as a Preparatory Nominative. Sometimes the reference is to a preceding phrase or clause; as, *You can tell him, but I do not advise it (to tell him).*

It is often used for some object understood; as, *It (the weather) rains. He gets the worst of it (the business).*

The Adverb *there* is used in a similar way to introduce the subject of a sentence; as, *There was once a king, &c.*

Note 4.—When strong emphasis is required, both the Noun and its Pronoun may be used as nominative to the Verb; as, *Wisdom, that is the principal thing.*

Note 5.—When two or more singular nominatives are coupled by *and*, the Pronoun representing them must be plural; as, *He and I have settled the matter, and we shall not again disturb it.* When they are connected by *or* or *nor*, the Pronoun is generally singular; but sometimes, when they are taken in a collective sense, it is plural; as, *Neither he nor I was gratified by the attention we received.*

The same form of the pronoun should be preserved throughout a sentence. *Thou and you, thy and your,* should not be interchanged.

Note 6.—When a Pronoun represents a Collective Noun, it may be either singular or plural; but not both in the same sentence.

Note 7.—Monarchs and editors of periodical publications generally use the plural form instead of the singular of the Pronoun, in the first person; as, "*We charge you.*"

Note 8.—The Pronoun of the third person is placed after that of the second; and the Pronoun of the first person after those of the second and the third; as, *You and I will go, if they will accom-*

pany us ; Shall it be given to *you*, to *him*, or to *me* ? But in confessing a fault the speaker may place himself first.

The English consider it polite for a speaker to mention himself last. The usage is different in Urdu, &c. Attention should be directed to this rule.

Note 9.—The Interrogative Pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are used as follows :—*Who* is applied to *persons* and is *indefinite*. *Who* did it ? supposes ignorance of the person. *Which* applies both to *persons* and *things*, but to one or more out of a known number ; as, *Which* will you take ? *What* is applied to *things*, and is *indefinite* ; as, *What* do you want ? When it refers to persons, it is followed by a Noun ; as, *What* man told you ?

Note 10.—The word which answers a question must be in the same case as that which asks it ; as, *Whose pen is this* ? *John's*. The reason of this may be shown by completing the sentence. The full answer is, *This is John's pen*.

Correct the following Errors :—

Note 1.—You is the person who took my book. Gave. Cannot. This horse is my. That mangoes are his. Yours obedient son. My father has sold its house. This fine flowers are for you. Your pen is in my box ; shall I bring ? Rama is going ; shall I call ? My sister knows ; shall I ask ? Did Govind go ? Went. Yours ever affectionate brother. Having said so, went away. I say so. What do say ? When you have read, give to me. Sir, may I catch ?

Note 2.—He is he would have betrayed me. What are those noises ? They are the winds that are blowing. They should know that they are their interests we are consulting. He is the king who said it. I am I ; be not afraid.

Note 5.—I told thee and him that I cared not for his friendship. Neither I nor you has done my duty. Either he or I must resign my office. Neither my brother nor cousin have been unmindful of their affairs.

Note 6.—The Court entered on the trial ; they deliberated long ; and it pronounced judgment only yesterday. The fleet was speedily at its destination ; but they did not remain there long. The Committee has met ; but the business it has to do will not occupy them long. The House of Commons were summoned to meet on Thursday, when it continued in deliberation till twelve at night, without deciding on the question before them. The meeting was dissolved soon after they assembled.

Note 8.—I and you will remain. If Tullia and you are well, I and Cicero are well. I and my father are going to England. I and you and Govind will come. I and he leave to-morrow. The teacher invited me and him.

Note 9.—Who of these boys broke it? Who did it? It was me. Which things did you bring? Them things.

Note 10.—Whose is that carriage? Sir Peter. Whom did you meet on the Esplanade? He and she. Whose poem is that? Lord Byron. From whom were the knives bought? The iron-monger's. Who counted the rupees? The writer and him.

Rule 17.—*A Relative Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person.*

As, *The man who works; the bullock which strayed.*

The Case of the Relative is determined by some word in its own sentence.

Relative Pronouns have two uses:—

1. The *Restrictive* use; as, *I dare do all that may become a man.* In this case the Relative is used to limit or define the Antecedent, which would otherwise express too much or too little.

2. The *Conjunctive* use; as, *He gave me an axe, which I found useful.* Here the Relative introduces an additional statement or co-ordinate sentence. The Relative *which* might here be replaced by *and it*. This is also called the *Co-ordinative* use of Relatives.

Note 1.—*Who* is applied to persons; *which*, to infants, inferior animals, and things without life.

That is used instead of *who* or *which*:—

1. After Adjectives in the Superlative degree; as, *This is the best that I saw.*

2. After the Adjective *all* and a few others; as, *All is well that ends well.*

3. After the Interrogative Pronoun *who*: as, *Who that has sense will agree with him.*

4. After two Antecedents, one requiring *who* and the other *which*; as, *The men and the cattle that we met, and*

5. After a Noun whose gender is doubtful; as, *The friend that you saw has left.*

Bain recommends the use of *that* as the proper *Restrictive* Relative.

That, as a Relative, does not admit of a Preposition before it. If it is governed by a Preposition, the Preposition is placed at the end of the sentence; as, *This is the house that I live in.*

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

Our best friends are those who tell us of our faults, and teach us how to correct them. I acknowledge that I am the teacher, who adopts that sentiment, and maintains

the propriety of such measures. Choose what is most fit : custom will make it most agreeable. Cæsar destroyed the liberty of his country, which was the cause of his death. I think it was Socrates, who, passing through the market, cried out, "How much is here I do not want!" The days that are past, are gone for ever ; those that are to come, may not come to us ; only the present time is ours ; let us, therefore, improve it as much as possible. Is this the same person that you spoke of before ?

Supply Omissions and correct Errors :—

Rule.—The boat sails. Thou knowest it. I speak to you. They seem to take the sun out of the world, take friendship out of it. Let the prize be given to him deserves it. This example is one of those are not to be imitated. Thou has read the account can narrate it. do you think was there ?

Note 1.—The infant was sick has recovered. This is the officer commanded the party. I shall send the latest model I can find. Who can help himself will submit to such treatment? Newton is the greatest philosopher the country has produced. He is the same published the poem. The gentleman drives the finest horse you ever saw. The men and the measures you condemn are generally approved of. All exist here must soon perish.

The Relative Pronoun—Continued.

Note 2.—When the Antecedent is a part of a sentence, the Relative is in the third person, singular number, and neuter gender ; as, He dislikes trifles, *which* I am glad to hear.

Note 3.—Collective Nouns require **which** when they are followed by a Singular Verb ; and **who** when followed by a Plural Verb ; as, The faction *which* has long prevailed was overthrown ; The clergy *who* assembled were then dispersed.

Note 4.—When no nominative comes between the Relative and the Verb, the Relative is generally the nominative to the Verb ; as, *The boy who brought the book is gone.* But if a nominative comes between them, the Relative is generally governed in the objective, either by a Preposition before, or a Verb after it ; as, *The boy, whom you sent for, is come.*

The Relative is also often governed in the possessive by a Noun following it ; as, *Do not trust him whose promises have often been broken.*

Note 5.—When the Relative is preceded by two nominatives of different persons, the real antecedent must be learned from the meaning of the sentence ; as, *I am the man who command ; or, I am the man who commands ; the former being equivalent to, I the commander am the man ; and the latter to, I am the commander.*

Note 6.—**Which** is properly used for **who**, when the antecedent to the latter is repeated, or when it is asked, interrogatively, *Who, of a certain number, is spoken of ; as, His former companion, which companion had deceived him. Which of them did it ? Which is the man ?*

Note 7.—The Relative in the Objective used restrictively is sometimes omitted, especially in short sentences ; as, *I received the book you sent me.* The Relative must be inserted when some additional statement is made ; as, *My son—whom I designed for business—was educated at home.*

The antecedent of the third person is also occasionally omitted ; as, *Who will, may weep.*

Note 8.—**As** is used as a Relative after *such* and *same* ; as, *Such as came ; Mine is the same as yours.* **But** is a Relative when it means *that not* ; as, *No child but screamed.*

Supply Omissions and correct Errors :—

Note 2.—He has resolved to be a soldier, has caused us much grief. The Queen possesses an empire on the sun never sets, can be said of no other country. He is neither over-exalted by prosperity, nor too much depressed by misfortune : you must allow, marks a great mind.

Note 3.—The Court, should have set a good example, indulged in vice. Reference was made to Parliament, who confirmed the decision. The family with I have long resided is gone to Australia. The party, he met by invitation, acted handsomely. At the levée whom Her Majesty held at St. James's there were numerous presentations.

Note 4.—He, on we relied, has deceived us. did the coach run over ? He laid the suspicion on some one, I know not . Who shall we send on this errand ? Men generally hate him they fear.

Note 5.—I am one who never advise such things. Give both forms of the following sentences :—Thou art the person who didst this injury, and who have formerly injured others. I am the man who drives the carriage. I am the seaman who have charge of the boat. I see thou art a scholar who possess talents, but who hast cultivated them but little. I am a teacher who

adopt that sentiment, and maintains the propriety of such measures.

Note 6.—Who of the three was absent? What of all the ships is missing? What boy in the class did this? Who is the peon you wish to send?

Note 7.—Supply the omitted relatives or antecedents in the following examples:—He knows the man I spoke of. The poems Cicero wrote are lost. It was the saddest scene I ever witnessed. Lord Mahon wrote the History you were reading. Have you bought the book I recommended? Did you see the man I referred you to? Who lives to nature rarely can be poor. Who seizes too rapidly drops too hastily. Who lives to fancy never can be rich. Whom he would he slew, and whom he would he kept alive.

Make three sentences with **who** as Relative, and three with **which** as Relative.

Make three sentences with **that** as Demonstrative, and three with **that** as Relative.

Position of Pronouns.

Rule 18.—*The Relative usually stands immediately after the Antecedent; as, The man who came.*

When the sense clearly shows the antecedent, other words are sometimes interposed; as, There is a prisoner, now sick, who needs your help.

It should be observed that the Relative in English follows the Antecedent, while in Urdu, &c., it precedes it. In the sentence, "The man whom I saw has left," *whom* is governed by the Verb *saw*.

Note 1.—The Objective Case of an Interrogative Pronoun precedes the Verb; as, *Whom* do you seek?

Note 3.—When there are two objects, both Pronouns, the Neuter stands first; as, Give it me.

Correct the Arrangement in the following Sentences:—

I sold my field for a small price, which was not very large. He has certainly shown himself not to be a friend who has done this. The lesson has brought down severe punishment on him, which was so ill prepared. He is like a beast of prey that is void of compassion. Bring me it. You call whom?

THE VERB.

Rule 19.—*Transitive Verbs govern the Objective Case; as, I found him assisting them.*

The Object of a Transitive Verb may be a Noun, a Pronoun, an

Infinitive, a Gerund, or a part of a sentence ; as, A hunter shot a tiger ; Rama struck me ; Learn to labour ; He loved hunting ; I acknowledge that he is right.

As a general rule, the Object *should always be expressed*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

My father sent him and me to assist you. Whom do you think I met yesterday when going home ? Him and them we know, but who art thou ? They who ridicule the wise and good are dangerous companions ; they bring virtue itself into contempt. Cyrus, when young, being asked what was the first thing which he learned, answered, "To speak the truth." To maintain a steady and unbroken spirit of mind amidst all the shocks of the world, marks a great and noble spirit. They who have nothing to give, can often afford relief to others, by imparting what they feel. To see young persons who are courted by health and pleasure, resist all the allurements of vice, and steadily pursue virtue and knowledge, is cheering and delightful to every good mind. Silver and gold have I none. He is a man whom I greatly esteem.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule.—Thou, my kind friend, I shall never forget. You should punish he who committed the fault, not I who am innocent. They who have laboured to make us wise and good we ought especially to respect. I, who have been to him like a parent, he rudely insulted. She and they I know, but who are you ? They acted properly in defending themselves. She that does not guard her reputation, all prudent persons will avoid. Come, let us make a covenant, I and thou.

Verbs—Continued.

Note 1.—Intransitive Verbs often take after them an Objective Case similar in meaning to the Verb ; as, *He runs a race*. This is called the *Cognate*,¹ *Objective*, or *Accusative*.

¹ Born together ; of the same kind.

Note 2.—Nouns denoting *time, space, value, and measurement*, are in the **Objective**; as, *He lived sixty years*; *I walked a mile*.

Note 3.—The Verbs *ask, forgive, offer, promise, teach, tell, &c.*, govern the **Direct Object** in the **Objective**, and the **Indirect Object** in the **Dative**; as, *I gave him a mango*.

The Passives of such Verbs usually take the *Direct Object* as their subject; as, *A mango was given to him by me*. Sometimes, however, the **Indirect Object** becomes the subject; as, *He was given a mango by me*.

The Verbs *appoint, believe, call, create, make, think, &c.*, govern **two Objects** of the same person or thing; one **direct**, the other **factitive**; as, *They made him king*.

Factitive comes from a word meaning *to make*. A *factitive object* is that on which the action of the Verb produces a new condition. The **Factitive Objective** remains when the Verb is turned into a **Passive**; as, *He was made king*.

The **Dative**, or **Indirect Object**, comes after many Verbs. It may be known by asking the question *to or for whom or what?* Give *me a pen*; *I made him a cage*.

Note 4.—The **Dative** is used with the **Impersonal Verbs**, *seems, thinks, &c.*; as, *me-thinks*.

Note 5.—Some Verbs are both **Transitive** and **Intransitive**; as, *The wheel turns*; *He turns the wheel*.

Note 6.—**Intransitive Verbs**, as, *fall, lie, rise, sit, &c.*, must not be used for their corresponding **Transitive Verbs**, *fell, lay, raise, set, &c.*; as, *It lays on the table*, instead of *It lies*.

Note 7.—Some Verbs (called **Preposition Verbs**) must be followed by particular **Prepositions**; as, *He never swerves from the right path*. For examples of this, see **Rule 36** regarding **Prepositions**.

EXERCISES.

Note 1.—Supply the appropriate Nouns in the following sentences:—All must sleep the _____ of death. Pharaoh dreamed a _____ of retirement. They sung a _____ of triumph. The drowning man looked a last despairing _____ at the shore. He died the _____ of a dog. I have fought a good _____.

Notes 2—4.—Parse the following sentences:—The city is four miles in circumference. The book cost three rupees. His father stands six feet high. He lived three years in Calcutta. The wall is a mile long. I paid him sixteen rupees. He taught me astronomy. He refused me the favour. Tell me the truth. He showed me the picture. I was promised the appointment. They were forbidden the privilege. We were offered the carriage. The servant gave his master the letter. He denied him permission. The dwarf dealt the champion an angry blow. I forgave

him the debt. Give Govind some nuts. It is not worth a rupee. Give every man his due. He sent it us. Give it me.

Change into the Passive such of the foregoing sentences as admit of it.

Make four sentences, each containing a Verb followed by two Objective cases.

Make four sentences, each with a Dative and an Objective.

Note 5.—Form short sentences in which the following Verbs will have, in some, a Transitive, in others an Intransitive sense:—Break, burn, drink, eat, move, ride, turn, walk.

Note 6.—Give examples of the misuse of the words mentioned in the Note.

Position of the Object.

Rule 20.—*The Object is usually placed after the Verb ; as, Gopal struck Krishna ; He wishes to learn.*

The order differs in English from that of the Indian Vernaculars. In English, the governing word usually *precedes* the word governed ; in the Indian Vernaculars, it is *placed after it*. In the Indian Vernaculars the arrangement of a sentence is as follows :—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>
Gopal.	Krishna.	struck.

In English, this might mean, Gopal struck Krishna, or Krishna struck Gopal. Hence the arrangement is—1. *Subject*, 2. *Verb*, 3. *Object*.

Exceptions.—The Object precedes the Verb in the following cases :—

1. When the Object is a Relative or an Interrogative Pronoun ; as, This is the boy *whom I saw* ; *Whom do you seek* ?

A Noun may be attached to the Relative or Interrogative Pronoun ; as, *Which book do you choose* ?

2. When emphasis is required ; as, *Money you shall have*.

Rule 21.—*The Verb To be has the same Case after it as before it ; as, I am he ; I took Rama to be him.*

Note 1.—The Verb in these forms of speech is called the *copula*, or *link*, as connecting the subject and predicate. In the Indian Vernaculars the copula is often omitted ; but this is not allowable in English. *My son at school, ought to be my son is at school.*

Nouns and Pronouns before or after the Verb *to be* are not necessarily of the same Number and Person ; as, *It was they ; You are he whom we looked for.*

When no case precedes the Verb *to be*, the case following it is in the Nominative ; as, To be an honest *man* is better than to be a rich *man*.

In conversation, "It is me," "It was her," &c., are often employed.

Note 2.—Some other Verbs follow the same rule ; as, *become*, *seem*, *move*, *walk*, &c. They are chiefly Intransitive Verbs with a complement, or Factitive Verbs in the Passive voice ; as, *She moves a goddess, and she looks a queen*.

Parse the following Sentences :—

China is the most populous country in the world. Iron is the most useful metal. Were I he, I would act a different part. It could not be he whom you suppose. His death was felt to be a great loss. Pride was not made for man. The love of country is a noble feeling. The camel is found in many of the hot parts of Asia and Africa. Was it he or his brother who called ? I think it was he. The carpenter seems an industrious man. The lawyer was appointed judge.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule.—It is her. You believed it to be he. I suppose it to have been he who told you. Believe me it was not us. Are thou proud ? Ay, that I am not thee. I know not whether it were them who committed the crime, but I am certain it was not him. It appeared to be her that opened the letter. She is the person who I understand it to have been. Who do you think me to be ? It is not me you are in love with. It was her that told you so. Let him be whom he may, we do not care.

Rule 22.—*A Verb may be put in the Infinitive Mood by another Verb, by an Adjective, and by a Noun.* As, He loves *to study* ; He is not able *to work* ; I have a wish *to learn*.

Note 1.—The simple Infinitive is treated like a Noun in the nominative or objective ; as, *To read* is pleasant (nom.) ; he began *to read* (obj.).

Note 2.—The Preposition *to* is not essential to the Infinitive. *To* is dropped after the auxiliaries, *can*, *do*, *may*, *must*, *shall*, *will* ;

after *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *make*, *need*; after several Verbs referring to the senses, as, *see*, *behold*, *watch*, *hear*, *feel*, &c. In the sentence, *I shall go*, *go* is properly the Infinitive with *to* omitted; *I have come*, is *I have (to) come*. Examples: *Bid him depart*; *I dare not do it*; *Make them sit down*; *I heard him speak*.

But, with the exception of *let*, they require **to** in the **Passive Infinitive**: as, *He was seen to strike the blow*; *She was bid to depart*. The Verb *to be* generally requires *to*; as, *I see it to be so*.

Note 3.—The *Present Infinitive* may be used with any tense of the governing Verb; as, *He wishes to go*; *he wished to go*; *he will wish to go*.

The *Perfect Infinitive* expresses an action completed *before* the time denoted by the governing Verb; as, *You seem to have failed*.

The *Perfect Infinitive* used after the past tenses of Verbs expressing *wish*, *hope*, *intention*, &c., denotes that the wish or hope was not fulfilled; as, *I intended to have come (but was hindered)*.

Note 4.—When several Verbs in the Infinitive are coupled by a Conjunction, the sign **to** is usually prefixed to the first only; as, *I taught him both to read and write*.

Note 5.—The *Gerundial Infinitive* is used to mark a purpose; it is also used after Nouns and Adjectives; as, *He came to see*; *A time to laugh*; *Swift to hear*. The *Gerundial Infinitive* always requires **to**, and may be considered a *Dative case*.

Note 6.—The Infinitive is changed into a *Verbal Noun* governed by a *Preposition* after the Verbs *prevent*, *hinder*, *think*, *despair*, &c., and after *fond*, &c. Thus, *He hindered me to go*, should be, *He hindered me from going*. *He is fond of reading*.

Note 7.—The Infinitive is sometimes used independently; as, *To speak plainly*, *I do not believe it*.

Position of the Infinitive.

The Infinitive Mood generally follows the word which governs it; as, *He loves to learn*; *I shall go*.

When the Infinitive is the emphatic word, it sometimes precedes the Verb which governs it; as, *Do it you must*.

Parse the following Sentences:—

It is more pleasant to pardon than to punish. It is more blessed to give than to receive. England expects every man to do his duty. They showed great anxiety to be reconciled. I was induced to grant his request. He was asked to call at another time. His willingness to obey his parents was very pleasing. His enemies declared him to be a traitor. The master prevented his

servant from doing the work. I shall write to him to come to-morrow.

Correct the following Errors:—

They forced him do the work. I think to go home during the holidays. The sight made him to tremble. He is very fond to read novels. I requested him to do it, but he bade another to do it. I durst not to do anything which might displease him. You need not to ask any more. Bid the peon to procure it. Would they have us to reject such an offer? The multitude wondered when they saw the lame to walk and the blind to see. Did you feel the table to shake in consequence of the earthquake? I then perceived the balloon to descend into the sea.

The comets have been observed move in very eccentric orbits. Queen Elizabeth was known possess great vigour of mind. No nation has been found excel Greece in the fine arts. The prisoner was immediately let to go. We saw the lightning to flash. We are fortunate to have such good weather.

Make five sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Subject.

Make five sentences with an Infinitive Mood as Object.

Make four sentences with the Infinitive Passive without to.

Rule 23.—*The Gerund in -ing is both a Noun and a Verb. As a Noun, it is governed by a Verb or Preposition; as a Verb, it governs Nouns or Pronouns; as, Reading is pleasant; He intended killing him.*

The Gerund denotes the doing of that which the Verb signifies. As a kind of Noun, it may be the subject or object of some Verb, the complement of some Verbs, or governed by some Preposition.

Note 1.—The Gerund with *to* (see Rule 22, Note 5) being a dative case, can never form either the subject or the object of a Verb. When the nominative or accusative is wanted, the Gerund in **-ing** or the ordinary Infinitive must be used.

Note 2.—Gerunds should be parsed as Nouns when they have the full construction of Nouns; admitting an Adjective or Article before them, and being followed by the Preposition **of**; as, *The smoking* (Noun) of a certain number of pipes. I dislike *smoking* (Gerund).

Note 3.—When **the** precedes Verbals in **-ing**, **of** must follow; or both **the** and **of** must be omitted; as, He is well placed for *the gaining* of experience; or, for *gaining* experience. In the former case, *gaining* should be parsed as a Noun; in the latter, as a Gerund.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

I hate lying. In keeping Thy commandments there is great reward. We reached the gate before him by taking a shorter road. He succeeded by begging the help of his friends. Poverty turns our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants, and riches upon enjoying our superfluities. These travellers' tales awakened an unconquerable passion for wandering and seeking adventure. I spent the year in visiting my friends. By thinking on the passage, you will ascertain its meaning.

Correct the following Errors :—

By roaring of the lion we were kept in alarm. The preparing the statement requires time. The middle station of life seems most advantageous for gaining of wisdom. The acquiring anything valuable demands perseverance. In tracing of his history we find little that is worthy of imitation. By the observing truth you will command esteem.

When are the forms in -ing to be parsed as Nouns and when as Gerunds?

Make four sentences, each with a Gerund as Subject; and four with a Gerund as Object.

Rule 24.—*The Participle in -ing is really an Adjective, and is generally used as such; as, I hear the band playing.*

Note 1.—In being an *Adjective*, it differs from the Gerund in *-ing*, which is a *Noun*. It differs from an *Adjective* in having changes to show whether the action is finished or unfinished.

The Participle may be used attributively or predicatively; as, A *loving son*; *My son is loving*.

Note 2.—Imperfect Participles derived from Transitive Verbs may govern the Objective; as *Respecting ourselves*, we shall be respected by others.

Note 3.—When treated as *Adjectives*, Participles admit of degrees of comparison; as, *We first attended to our more pressing wants*; This is the *most finished* picture in the collection.

Note 4.—The Participle is sometimes used absolutely with the nominative case before it, or adverbially at the beginning of a sentence; as, *The day dawning*, we set out; *Generally speaking*, the remainder is worthless.

Note 5.—The Participle is generally placed after the word it qualifies, differing in this from the *Adjective*; as, *He lay gasping*.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

He is a most loving child. Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement. Overcome by his father's kindness, he burst into tears. I hear soldiers marching, bullets flying, horses neighing. His impaired strength rendered him unequal to the exertion. Looking at the whole case, I do not take your view.

How do Gerunds and Participles differ? How do Participles differ from Adjectives?

Make five sentences each containing a Participle.

Rule 25.—*The Past Participle (not the Past Tense) should be used after the Verbs have and be, to denote complete action ; as, I have written ; He was chosen.*

Incomplete action is denoted by the Present Participle.

The Past Participle should not be used for the Past Tense ; as, He begun, for he began ; He run, for he ran.

Correct the following Errors :—

He has broke his leg. He would have went with us, had he been asked. I would have wrote to him. The bullock was stole. The English language is spoke in many parts of the world. He shown me the prize. The grass was trod down. The work was very well execute. He drunk the water eagerly. He has chose to give up study. His friends have forsook him. The bottle is to be shook before the medicine is took.

Rule 26.—*In the use of the Tenses of Verbs, the order of time must be observed.*

The Present Indefinite has several uses :—

1. It expresses a *single* act at the present time ; as, I see him now.

2. It expresses custom or habit ; as, Birds fly.

3. It expresses constant truths ; as, Honesty is the best policy.

4. It is used in quoting authors, whether living or not ; as, Cicero says.

5. It is sometimes employed to describe past events, and is then called the *Historic¹ Present* ; as, Caesar leaves Gaul, &c.

¹ Belonging to history.

The **Present Imperfect**, or **Progressive**, is used to express an action going on at the time of speaking ; as, *I am writing*. It is usually applied to actions that are *continuous*, not to those that are *immediate* ; as, *I tell you to go* ; not, *I am telling you*.

The **Present Perfect** expresses an action begun in past time and completed at the present time. "*I have lived* in Calcutta five years," implies that the speaker is still living in Calcutta. Should he have left Calcutta, the **Past Indefinite** should be used : *I lived* in Calcutta five years. The **Present Perfect** expresses action that has just been completed ; as, *The man has come*.

The **Past Indefinite** expresses an action begun and completed in past time ; as, *He came* yesterday. It also denotes what was usual at some former time ; as, *He gambled and drank*.

The **Perfect Participle** and not the **Past Indefinite** is to be used in forming the compound tenses. Say, *To have gone* ; not, *To have went*.

The **Past Imperfect**, or **Progressive**, expresses an action begun and continuing in past time ; as, *While I was speaking*, &c. The **Past Indefinite** refers to a *point* of time. The **Past Imperfect** is used to express an action during which something else took place ; as, *While I was walking* yesterday, *I saw you*. If the latter part is omitted, the sentence should be, *I walked* yesterday.

The **Past Perfect**, or **Pluperfect**, denotes that the action was completed *before* a certain time, and before something else took place ; as, *The ship had sailed* before I arrived.

The **Past Perfect** should not be used for the **Past Indefinite**. *I had finished* my letter yesterday, ought to be, *I finished* my letter yesterday.

The **Future Indefinite** expresses simply future time, near or remote ; as, *It will be completed* in a few minutes ; *It will take* many centuries.

The **Future Perfect** denotes that the action will be completed before another future action takes place ; as, *I shall have sailed* before you reach Calcutta.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

The sports of children satisfy the child. He has now recovered. Truly the light is sweet. He writes a good hand. Nimrod founded Babylon. Cæsar sent this message to the Senate : "I came, I saw, I conquered." I have caught a hare. He has gone home. Yesterday we dined at two o'clock, and took tea at sunset. Fools make

a mock of sin. I shall have completed it before it is required. The road ought to have been finished ten years ago. The work could not be done yesterday. Juvenal says, "The tongue is the worst part of a bad servant." Virgil says, "Labour conquers all things."

Correct the following Errors :—

The ship has arrived last week. I am speaking a long time. Yesterday I have been to the Museum. I had come to see you on Monday. This book has been printed in 1893. I have seen him an hour ago. I am suffering from fever the last three days. I have finished the work this morning. He is ill of fever since Monday. The teacher had given me leave. I have studied grammar last year. He has forsook all his wicked companions. I begun to do it. He has wore out his life in the king's service. The ancients asserted that virtue was its own reward. The doctor affirmed that fever always produced thirst. Cicero maintained that whatever was useful was good. I have written my exercise before Rama called for me. He has went to Bombay. Since you left, I was wholly engaged in business. I am not of opinion that such rules can be of much use unless persons saw them exemplified.

Explain the uses of the different Tenses. How do the Present Perfect and Past Indefinite differ? What is wrong in, "He has went to school?" When is the Past Imperfect used?

Give an example of the wrong use of the Past Perfect instead of the Past Indefinite.

Make three sentences each containing a Past Indefinite.

Make three sentences each containing a Past Perfect.

Rule 27.—**Shall** with the first person, and **will** with the second and the third, simply foretell; **will** with the first person and **shall** with the second and the third, express the will of the speaker.

The above is the general rule : exceptions are mentioned below.

Mistakes in the use of **SHALL** and **WILL** are very common. The following remarks should be carefully studied.

Shall originally means *owe*. From the notion of debt arises that of *obligation*, what one *ought* to do.

Will means *wish*, what a person is *willing* to do.

Shall retains its primary meaning in the Second and Third Persons Singular and Plural; as, Thou *shalt* not kill; he *shall* surely die. Besides commanding and threatening, it also *promises*; as, He *shall* be blessed.

Shall in the First Person Singular and Plural, simply states that something will happen; as, I *shall* go home. It does not denote any *wish* on the part of the speaker. On the other hand, **will** in the First Person implies that the action is dependent upon the will of the speaker. I *will* go home, denotes that it is my own wish to go.

Will in the Second and Third Persons usually means simple futurity, without any reference to the wish of the agent. He *will* be punished, simply states what will happen.

The different use of *shall* and *will* is partly required by politeness. In speaking of ourselves, we avoid the appearance of making our own wish the reason why anything will happen, and therefore use *shall*. In speaking to or of others, we use *will*, to show that they are not forced to act.

I shall	We shall	} express simple futurity.
Thou wilt	You will	
He will	They will	
I will	We will	} express futurity, with the additional idea of <i>promise, obligation, command, or threat</i> .
Thou shalt	You shall	
He shall	They shall	

The following Poetical Rule has been given :—

In the first person, simply, **SHALL** foretells;
 In **WILL**, a *threat* or else a *promise* dwells;
SHALL in the second and the third does *threat*;
WILL simply then *foretells* the future feat.

If a man falling into the water were to cry out, “I *will* be drowned, and nobody *shall* help me,” his words would imply that he wished to be drowned, and refused any help. “I *shall* be drowned, and nobody *will* help me,” means, I shall be drowned because no one is willing to help me.

In **Conditional** sentences, *will* is used in conditional clauses, and *will* and *shall*, with different meanings, in the other clauses; as, If you *will* seek, you *will* find; If you *will* seek, you *shall* find. The latter expression is stronger than the former.

In asking questions, **will** with the first person and **shall** with the second and the third denote mere futurity; **shall** with the first and the third person, and **will** with the second generally denote the wish of the person addressed.

Shall I ?	Shall we ?	} denote <i>simple futurity</i> .
Shall you ?	Shall you ?	
Will he ?	Will they ?	
Shall I ?	Shall we ?	} denote generally the <i>wish</i> of the person addressed.
Will thou ?	Will you ?	
Shall he ?	Shall they ?	

Shall I go ; means, *Ought I to go ?* *Will I go ?* means, *Am I willing to go ?* This is improper, for no one can answer the question but the speaker himself. *Shall you go ?* implies simple futurity. *Will you go ?* means, *Do you wish to go ?* *Shall he go ?* means, *Do you wish him to go ?*

Should and would follow the rules of shall and will.

A greater amount of uncertainty is expressed by *should* and *would* than by *shall* and *will*.

EXERCISES.

Give the force of Shall and Will in the following Sentences :—

I shall go to Calcutta. We will die with him. His grief will not let him sleep. They shall not have it. They will hear of nothing but money. He that will be cheated to the last, delusions shall bind him fast. If you will pay me ten rupees, you shall have the book. You shall not go there ; you shall go to prison. I will leave to-morrow. If he were to make the offer, I would accept it. If he were to bid you, you should obey. Will you take me ? Shall you do it ? You shall be king. How shall I go ? Will you stay here with us ? I shall not go alone. I will not go alone.

Correct the following Errors, giving the reason in each case :—

I will not be able to accompany you. Will I write to him ? I will be obliged to dismiss him. We would be right in refusing to obey such an order. Until I will die, I shall never desert you. If he do not come, I will be uncertain what to do. I hope I will succeed.

Write three affirmative sentences, each with will in the first person.

Write three interrogative sentences, each with shall in the first person.

Rule 28.—*The Subjunctive Mood is used chiefly in suppositions or to express doubt, and after such conjunctions as if, unless, although, &c. ; as, I shall not go if it rain.*

The Subjunctive Mood, being a *subjoined mood*, is always dependent on some *antecedent clause*, called the *conditional clause*. The clause which contains the consequence of the supposition is called the *consequent clause*. "If it rain" (*conditional clause*), "I shall not go" (*consequent clause*).

The Conjunctions mentioned above are not necessarily followed by the Subjunctive. Some of them are often used with the Indicative; as, If two and two *make* four. Here there is no uncertainty, and the Indicative should be used.

"If it *be*," means "I am uncertain." "If it *is*," means "as I know it is." "If it *were*," as I know it is not. "If I *could* I would," means "I cannot." "If I *can*, I will," means "I do not know."

The Conjunction is sometimes omitted, and the Conditional Verb placed before its subject; as, *Were* I (=if I were) Govind, I should refuse.

"The present tendency of the English language," says Adams, "is to reject the distinction of the Subjunctive Mood."

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

If he were here, I would tell him. If he should try, he would succeed. If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out. Unless he pay, he will be put in prison. If I am asked whether there is any danger, I say yes. If you meet Govind, bid him make haste. Had this been true, nothing could excuse me. Love not sleep, lest thou come to want. Steal not, though thy state be mean. If thou preserve my life, it shall be devoted to thy service

Make five sentences with Verbs in the Subjunctive Mood.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

Rule 29.—*The tense of the Verb in a dependent sentence must correspond to the tense of the Verb in the principal sentence.*

When two sentences are joined together by a Subordinative Conjunction or Relative Pronoun, one of them is called the **Principal** and the other the **Dependent** sentence. The latter is that to which the Conjunction or Pronoun is prefixed. "I was asked" (Principal) "what you said" (Dependent).

1. When the Verb in the principal sentence is in the *present* or *future* tense, the Verb in the dependent clause may be in *any* tense according to the sense.

Thus,	{	That he is sorry.
He says		That he was sorry.
or		That he has been sorry.
He will say		That he had been sorry.
		That he will be sorry.
		That he will have been sorry, &c.

2. A past tense in the principal sentence requires a past tense in the dependent clause.

He said	{	That he was sorry.
or		That he had been sorry.
He had said		That he should be sorry.
		That he should have been sorry.

Exceptions :—

Prepositions that are always true, whether referring to the past, the present, or the future, are commonly expressed in the present tense ; as, *He seemed hardly to know that two and two make four ; not, made. He will tell you that whatever is is right.* The present tense, however, sometimes becomes improper when the conjunction *that* is employed ; as, *Others said that it is Elias ;* where we must either omit *that*, or use *was* for *is*.

Parse the following Sentences :—

I thought he would fail. I ordered him to desist. He could pay if he chose. He might have gone, if he had thought fit. I said that I would have gone, if I had been able. If thou hadst given, I had been happy. I should have liked to go with him. He may either go or stay as he likes. I do not think that he will come. I did not think that he would come. I should not be afraid if I were not guilty. If we try it at once, we shall succeed. If we tried it at once, we should succeed. It was necessary that he should find some one. I shall stay if I can. I should have stayed if I had found it desirable.

Correct the following Errors :—

I have finished my letter before my brother arrived. It is a long time since we had met. He said that he will not grant my request. I hoped he will pass. I am a candidate in the hope that I might succeed. I request that you would kindly raise my salary. I write a letter that I might have an answer. I warned him that if he did so he will incur blame. I told him that it is vain to persist in the undertaking. He was so changed that I would not have known him if he did not tell me his name. If you look at the map of India, you would find the island.

Exceptions.—Govind said that oil was lighter than water. If I should ask whether ice and water were two distinct species of things. Seneca said that to be ignorant of wickedness was a blessing. Tacitus said that those things which were unseemly were

unsafe. I expected to have seen the Bank paying in gold and silver. I wished to have submitted my manuscript to him. The girl said, if her master would but have let her had money, she might have been well long ago. It is while men slept that the arch-enemy has always sown his tares. There are several smaller faults which I intended to have enumerated.

Rule 30.—*In reporting directly the speech of another, give the exact words, marking them by inverted commas ; as, Govind said, "I will go."*

When the Verb in one sentence relates what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the Verb in the first sentence is called the **Reporting Verb**, and what is said in the second sentence is called the **Reported Speech**.

The reported speech may give the *actual words* used by the speaker. This is called **Direct Narration**, and is the form generally used in the languages of India. When only the substance of the word is given, this is called **Indirect Narration**. In this case no quotation marks are used.

In *Direct Narration* the words used must be introduced by some Verb like *say, remark, &c.*

In reporting indirectly the speech of another, change the words into a form fit to be used by a different person according to the following rules ; but be very careful that the meaning is not altered.

I. The Conjunction "that" is generally inserted after the Reporting Verb. *I say, "I will do it," becomes I say that I will do it.*

There is an exception in the case of Reported Interrogations.

II. *The tense of the Reporting Verb is never changed. If the Reporting Verb is in the present or future, the Verb in the reported speech also remains unchanged.*

Direct : Govind says (or will say) "I am right."

Indirect : Govind says (or will say) that he is right.

Direct : Govind says (or will say) "I was wrong."

Indirect : Govind says (or will say) that he was wrong.

If the Reporting Verb is in the **past** tense, the Verb in the reported speech must also be in the **past** tense. As :—

Direct : Govind said, "I am right."

Indirect : Govind said that he was right.

If the Direct Speech contains a past indefinite tense or a past imperfect tense, in the Indirect Speech they will generally become changed to the past perfect and the past perfect continuous, respectively.

He said, "I saw him running away," becomes He said (that) he had seen him running away. So He said, "I was reading when she called me," becomes He said (that) he had been reading when she had called him.

When the Reported Speech contains a statement of a universal truth the tense of the Verb must not be changed. *He said, "Honesty is the best policy," becomes He said that honesty is the best policy.*

III. With regard to the person of the Pronouns and Verbs, the following rules should be observed :—

1. Pronouns of the *first* person in the Direct Speech are put into the same person as the subject of the Introductory Verb ; as,

Direct : Krishna said, I am sick.

Indirect : Krishna said that he was sick.

2. Pronouns of the *second* person in the Direct Speech are put into the same person as the Pronoun which comes after the Introductory Verb ; as,

Direct : Rama said to me, "You are wrong."

Indirect : Rama told me that I was wrong.

Observe that *told* is used instead of *said*.

3. Pronouns of the *third* person in the Direct speech remain the same in the Indirect speech ; as,

Direct : Rama said to me, "He is wrong."

Indirect : Rama told me that he was wrong.

In the Indirect form *he* may refer either to Rama or to the person spoken of. To avoid this doubt, the name or designation of the person referred to must be inserted. The sentence should be "*he (Rama)*" or "*he (the speaker)*."

No change of person is required when the speech is reported to the person to whom it was first addressed ; as,

Direct : Govind said to you, "You are right."

Indirect : Govind told you that you were wrong.

EXERCISE I.

Write in the Indirect Narration the reported speech in the following sentences :—

I said to him, "The weather is stormy." I said to him, "The journey will be long." The master said to the boys, "A prize will

be given to the most diligent." Pilate said, "What I have written, I have written." My brother said, "I have been very ill." His sister exclaimed, "My book has been lost." You said, "I am going." You said to me, "You and he are going." You said to him, "You are going." You say, "I am going." You say to me, "You are going." The chairman said, "My authority was publicly questioned." He replied, "I cannot admit that." He said to me, "I found your book." You say, "I will come." We say, "He will come." I said to him, "I helped you several times." We said yesterday, "We will come." I said to him, "I have much pleasure in granting your request." I said to her, "All your faults will be pardoned if you confess them." The Bible says, "The way of transgressors is hard."

Turn into the Direct Form :—

Govind said that he had read that book. The master told you that you might go. He asked what he could do to help me. The merchant said that you had ordered all these articles. John asked James to let him know what had passed. The magistrate said that he was sorry to be obliged to take such measures. He inquired what he had done the previous day. He told the peon that he had been robbed by his servant.

Rule 30.—Continued.

1. In questions the introductory Verbs in the **Direct** speech should be replaced in the **Indirect** by some Verb expressing interrogation and a **Conjunctive Adverb**, when necessary ; as,

Direct : Govind said to me, "What do you want ?"

Indirect : Govind asked me what I wanted.

Direct : Rama said to Govind, "Is this sum right ?"

Indirect : Rama asked Govind whether the sum was right.

From this it will be seen that when the Verb *ask* introduces a question which requires *yes* or *no* for an answer, it must be followed, not by *that*, but by *if* or *whether*. In other cases no **Conjunction** follows it.

2. When a Verb in the imperative mood has to be changed into the indirect narration, consider whether it expresses a command or an entreaty or simply a friendly address, and substitute for the Reporting Verb one which conveys the idea expressed by the imperative.

The master said to his servant, "Do the work," becomes, The master ordered (commanded or told) his servant to do the work.

The beggar said to the gentleman, "Help me to get some employment," becomes, The beggar entreated (or prayed or begged) the gentleman to help him to get some employment. My friend said to me, "Consider my work and say what you think of it," becomes, My friend asked me to consider his work and say what I thought of it. He said to him, "Stop a moment," becomes, He asked him to stop a moment.

3. A question and a command are often combined in one speech.

Direct: He said to him very angrily, "Why have you come? Have I not told you never to see my face again? Leave the room."

Indirect: He asked him very angrily why he had come, and whether he had not told him never to see his face again, and he ordered him to leave the room.

4. The Reporting Verb may need to be similarly changed in a few other instances.

Direct: Turning to his friend he said, "And thou, too, farewell."

Indirect: Turning to his friend he bade him, too, farewell.

Direct: I said to him, "Here, take your book."

Indirect: I called to him to take his book.

Direct: He said, "Alas, how foolish I have been."

Indirect: He exclaimed with sorrow that he had been very foolish, or, He acknowledged with sorrow how foolish he had been.

Direct: He said to him, "Please lend me that book a moment."

Indirect: He asked him kindly to lend him that book a moment.

Direct: He said, "Let us divide the booty amongst ourselves."

Indirect: He proposed that they should divide the booty amongst themselves.

Direct: He said to me, "I thank you for all you have done."

Indirect: He told me that he thanked me for all I had done; but more idiomatically, he thanked me for all I had done.

Direct: He said, "Ha, my fine fellow! I will have you hanged."

Indefinite: He called him a fine fellow, and said (that) he would have him hanged.

Interjections, Vocatives, &c., that can only be used in addressing one directly, are left out in Indirect speech.

EXERCISE II.

Turn the following into the Indirect Narration:—

He said to him, "Where are you going?" He said to me, "Which is the book you like best?" He said to her, "Do you

know all the subjects for the examinations?" I said to him at once, "Who told you that?" I said to him, "Why did you put yourself in danger?" The king said to his attendants, "Bring to me all the traitors you captured, and put them to death before they have time to escape." He said, "How unlucky we all appear to be!" He said, "Let us each try to help the man a little." The beggar said to the lady, "Pity the sorrows of a poor old man whose trembling limbs have borne him to your door." The beggar took the money from her saying, "May God reward you!" I said to them, "Let us do nothing till we have heard the king's reply." I said to him, "Thank you, I shall not need any more help." The governor said to them in reply, "Thank you for all the information you have given me. I quite expected you would address me on this subject, and I will bear the matter in mind. Send me a petition on my return to Madras."

Rule 30 (continued).—Words indicating nearness of time or place in relation to the speaker must generally be changed when another person reports the speech.

Thus *now* becomes *then*; *this* becomes *that*; *here* becomes *there*; *ago* becomes *before*; *thus* becomes *in that way*.

Direct: I said to him, "Do it now."

Indirect: I told him to do it then.

Direct: He said to me, "I finished the work a long while ago." He told me that he had finished the work a long while before.

Similarly change *to-day* into *that day*, *to-morrow* into *the next day*, *yesterday* into *the day before* (or *the previous day*), *last night* into *the night before* (or *the previous night*, &c., &c.).

The cases in which this rule is not to be applied will be easily found out if you are careful not to alter the meaning of the speaker. Thus

Whenever the words of the speaker are reported at the same time or place at which they were spoken, the above words are not changed.

Direct: Rama said to me, "I will come to-day."

Indirect: Rama told me he would come to-day, if I quote these words to another person on the same day on which they were spoken; but if I quote them on any other day I must say,

Rama told me he would come that day.

Similarly there may be cases in which *come* should be changed into "go."

Direct: He said to me, "Come here."

Indirect: He told me to come here, or
He told me to go there, *according to the position of the speaker.*

The following examples should be studied :—

Direct: He said to me, "Did you steal the book?" I replied "No."

Indirect: He asked me whether I had stolen the book. I said I had not, or I denied it, or I answered in the negative.

Direct: He said to me, "Will you do it now?" I replied "No."

Indirect: He asked me if I would do it then. I refused, or I said I would not.

Direct: He said to me, "Would you like to go?" I said "Certainly."

Indirect: He asked me if I should like to go. I said I certainly should.

EXERCISE III.

Turn the following into the Indirect Narration:—

He said to me, "Why are you troubling me now? Go home. I will see you this evening." He said to us, "I am sorry that I failed to see you yesterday, but I shall undoubtedly be at leisure to-morrow." He said to them, "Do it thus: if you fail the first time, try again; you will certainly succeed at last." He said to me, "Thank you for all your help. I should not have finished the work till to-morrow unless you had been here." They replied, "Go to the master now; we shall certainly tell you nothing until you have seen him." My father said, "Have you finished your lesson yet, my boy?" "No," I replied; "this lesson is very difficult. I was trying to do it yesterday, but did not succeed." "Never mind," said my father, "you will be all the better for trying even if you do not succeed."

Correct the following Errors:—

The teacher told you sit down. The master told that I will let the boys go home. I told him to ask his master can I see. I said him to come with me. He said me go. He told that I will come. I heard him to ask her that why you not run away? I told her that she do not open the door. I said that why you were not diligent? Govind said that we are to stay here.

Turn the following into the Direct Narration:—

He said that his mother was just then absent from home, but that I should not on that account defer my visit, as she would without doubt return in a few days.

The young officer said that he was as old as the prime minister of England, and thought himself as capable of commanding a ship as that minister was of governing the state.

He asked me when I intended to leave Calcutta. I told him that as that was the day of examination, I could not leave then ; but hoped to do so next day.

Rule 31.—*To form a Negative Sentence, put not between the Auxiliary and the Principal Verb ; as, I do not like him.*

The above is the usual form. In some cases, especially in poetry, **not** is placed after the Verb ; as, He spoke *not* a word ; he is *not* here.

The Negative precedes the Infinitive ; as, I told him *not* to be afraid.

The Negative and Interrogative Forms are combined by placing the Nominative and **not** after the Auxiliary ; as, Do *we not* love ? When there is no Auxiliary, they are placed after the Verb ; as, Love *we not* ?

When the answer to a question is **yes** or **no**, put **not** *either before or after a Personal Pronoun Nominative and before a Noun Nominative ; as,*

Have *not* I paid you ? Yes, you have. No, you have *not*.

Have I *not* paid you ? Yes, you have. No, you have *not*.

Is *not* this claim unjust ? Yes, it is. No, it is *not*.

The second form, Have I not paid you ? is considered more emphatic than the first.

If the answer to be given is *yes*, the Verb following must be in the *affirmative*.

If the answer to be given is *no*, the Verb following must be in the *negative*.

Parse the following Sentences :—

I had not written. You were not going. I shall not be leaving for some time. We did not wish them to come. Shall you not go ? Am I not doing my best ? I have not seen him. I do not know the man. Is he not coming to-morrow ? May he not go with us ? I was not going to take him. Had I not seen it, I should not have believed it. Shall you not be writing ? No, I shall not. Have you forgotten your exercise ? No, I have not.

Correct the following Errors :—

Why you not write to me ? Did you not tell him ? Yes, I did not. Is you father sick or not ? Did he not meet you yesterday ?

Yes, he did not meet me. Why you not go away? Why they will not come? Can the boy not read? Yes, he cannot.

Turn the following Sentences into the Negative Form:—

I am hopeful. They are going home. He sent the horse yesterday. The king is jealous of his prime minister. This is well written. I had intended to go. He was killed in the battle. My brother wrote that. Do you understand the question? Have you money? I received your letter.

THE ADVERB.

Rule 32.—Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs; as, He acts nobly; This is very large; He ran too quickly.

A phrase or clause has often the force of an Adverb; as, I left him *in the garden*; We gained ground *step by step*; *When I came* he told me. Such expressions are called **Adverbial Clauses**, because they modify the Verbs to which they are attached.

Note 1.—Adjectives should not be used as Adverbs, nor Adverbs as Adjectives; as, *Sweet* sung, for, *Sweetly* sung; He spoke very *mean* of him, for, He spoke very *meanly* of him.

Note 2.—Adjectives are sometimes used as Adverbs. In old English the Adverb was often formed from the Adjective by adding *e*; as, soft, soft*e*. The *e* was dropped, and then both had the same form. Loud, hard, fast, long, high, wide, much, little, &c., are both Adverbs and Adjectives. The manner in which they are used determines to which part of speech they belong.

Note 3.—Some Adjectives qualify the Noun or Pronoun *through* the Verb; as, Rama looks *pale*; it sounds *grand*. After Verbs of *being* and *seeming* the Adjective is used predicatively.

With Transitive Verbs Adverbs should be used; as I received him *warmly*. In the following examples the meaning differs according to the part of speech used:—

I found the road *easy*, *i.e.*, not difficult to walk on.

I found the road *easily*, *i.e.*, found it without difficulty.

Note 4.—Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative (often a weak one); as, *It is not unjust*.

Note 5.—Some Adverbs are followed by corresponding Adverbs; as, Here—there; where—there; when—then; never—nor; rather—than; not only—but also, &c.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences:—

The inhabitants fought very bravely; but their enemies were so greatly superior in numbers, that they were speedily compelled to

retreat. This exercise is neatly and correctly written. The force of instinct is very strongly shown by the mode in which many birds build their nests. There cannot be anything more insignificant than vanity. As you say so, I shall go. Unless you try, you will not succeed. He is industrious, and consequently he is successful. Always try to speak distinctly. I may be away, but I cannot tell yet.

Correct the following Errors :—

The garden is ill laid out, but the situation is remarkable good. If the letter is not bad written, send it. He speaks very beautiful. Newton lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of piety. No man could have acted nobler. I am wonderful delighted with it. Suitably to his condition was the behaviour he always exhibited. The river flows rapid. The youth has been careful brought up. He acts very sensible on most occasions; but he behaved most meritorious on the last.

Note 4.—The speech did not afford no information. It is not no uncommon thing. He affirmed that he would not on no account grant the request. I have not done nothing that should bring blame upon me. I cannot remember nothing about it. Nothing never affects me like that. Has not nobody never seen nothing of a hat of mine nowhere?

The Adverb—Continued.

Adverbs should be used according to their meaning.

Some mistakes which are common in India may be noticed.

Too is often used for **very**. When *too* qualifies an Adjective it denotes that a thing is under or over the proper standard. **Very** does not imply any such limit. I hope we shall have *too* much rain soon, means a wish for more rain than would be good for the country. **Very** should be used for **too**.

Much is sometimes used for **very**; as, This coat was *much* dear, instead of *very* dear. **Very** is generally used with Adjectives in the *Positive* degree, and *much* with Adjectives in the *Comparative*; as, this was *much* dearer. **Very** may be prefixed to **much**; as, This was *very much* dearer. **Very** and **much** are both used with Adjectives in the *Superlative*, with a slight difference of meaning; as, He got *much* the best; He got the *very* best. Observe that the article *follows much* and *precedes very*.

Sometimes should not be used for **perhaps**. **Sometimes** means *now and then*; **perhaps**, *it may be possibly*. **Sometimes** my letter has not reached you, should be, *Perhaps* my letter, &c.

Before should not be used for **ago**. I saw him three months *before* should be, three months *ago*. **Before** is not used with a

period of time. But we can say, He will come *before* the end of the year.

Since, as an *Adverb*, signifies *from now*. It stands after the word or words which it qualifies; it is preceded by a Verb in the *Past Indefinite* tense, and it is placed after a Noun or phrase denoting some *period of time*, never after a Noun denoting some *point of time*; as, I left school three years *since* (= from now).

Ago has the same meaning as the *Adverb since*, and is used in the same way; as, I left school three years *ago* (= from now).

No should not be used for *not*. I have no any money, should be, I have *not* any money, or *no* money.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

You have given me too much. It is a month since he wrote to me. Perhaps I may leave to-morrow. I have been very busy since Tuesday. Sometimes you are careless. He left for England a year ago. Perhaps it will rain. Rama's exercise is fair; that of Govind is much inferior; but that of Krishna is much the worst. This is very much better than that. You will be a little vexed at this little matter.

Correct the following Errors :—

It is too much good. I am all well. It is too hot. I saw him three week's before. At hearing that he got much anger. He was ill since three days. Boys are not intelligent as girls. I did not go to town since three weeks. He went two days before. Since four months I went to school daily. I am sick now from a fortnight. He returned home before two months. I bought it since three months. As he has not written, sometimes he may have left. He will likely answer soon. He says that he is no able to do it.

Make sentences each containing one of the following words: too, very, since, much, sometimes, perhaps, ago, not.

POSITION OF THE ADVERB.

Rule 33.—*Adverbs are generally placed close to the words which they qualify; as Very good; He acted wisely.*

Adverbs are usually placed :—

1. Before Adjectives or other Adverbs; as, *very* good; *very* badly written.
2. After Intransitive Verbs; as, I laughed *heartily*.
3. Usually after the Object of a Transitive Verb; as, He paid

them *liberally*. Sometimes the Adverb is placed before the Verb ; as, He willingly granted their request.

The Adverb should not separate the Verb and its objective. Say, He told his tale *pleasingly* ; not, He told *pleasingly* his tale.

4. Between the principal Verb and the last of its Auxiliaries ; as, Fine friends may be *always* bought with money.

5. When an Adverb qualifies a whole sentence or is used emphatically, it is generally placed first ; as, *Unfortunately*, he had excited the Queen's displeasure ; *Never* was a man so used.

6. The Adverbs *always*, *never*, *often*, *sometimes*, are usually placed before the Verbs they qualify, except the Verb *To be* : as, *He always uses the purest style* ; *He often talks foolishly* ; *He is never at home*. *Enough* follows the word it qualifies ; as, good *enough*.

7. Without great care in placing the Adverb properly, a wrong meaning may be given to a sentence, or it may be rendered ambiguous.¹ *Only* requires special attention. It is *generally* placed immediately before the word it qualifies.

In the sentence "He *only* lived for their sakes," the meaning is that he did not do any other thing for their sakes. "He lived *only* for their sakes," means that he lived for this one reason. "He lived for their sakes *only*," means not for a nobler reason. *Only* at the end of a sentence often has a disparaging² signification. "He gave a rupee *only*," implies that more may be expected.

EXERCISES.

Correct the following Errors :—

The master taught very well the boy. He renounced for ever his country. They intended to carry farther their operations. Melville proposed to invite back the king. Nelson attacked most courageously the enemy's fleet.

We must not expect to find study agreeable always. The field, having been tilled often, will yield a good crop. Men's views are strangely altered by skilful hints sometimes.

Rama very slowly walks. The following sentence cannot but be possibly understood. I hope not much to tire those whom I shall not happen to please. They proposed to share equally the fruit. These opinions have been held generally in every age.

I am only left. England has only possessions in South Africa. Italy has every gift of God, not freedom only. He is cautious not to give offence properly. He is seldom or ever in his place. It is not my intention to compel, but to advise you. He only regards not his health, but his reputation. I will not go be he never so pressing.

Give the different meanings of the following sentences :—Only he

¹ Having more than one meaning.

² Lowering.

promised a book. He only promised a book. He promised only a book. He only lived for their sakes. He lived only for their sakes. He lived for their sakes only.

THE PREPOSITION.

Rule 34.—Prepositions govern the Objective Case ; as, He went from Madras to Calcutta.

Note 1.—Prepositions generally stand before the words they govern.

The rule in the Indian vernaculars is the reverse.

Note 2.—Prepositions should be placed as near as possible to the words they govern.

Exceptions.—In Interrogative and Relative sentences in familiar style, the Preposition is often placed at the end ; as, What could it proceed from ? This is the person whom I gave it to.

The Preposition is most frequently placed at the end when the Relative is omitted ; as, It was a thing I was used to (*to which* I was used). It must also be placed at the end when **that** is used for whom ; as, The person *that* I gave it to.

In dignified language, the Preposition is placed before the Pronoun ; as, *Under what* captain serve you ?

The Objective is sometimes placed first for emphasis ; as, Such conduct I am at a loss to account for.

Note 3.—Prepositions sometimes form compounds with Verbs ; as, *to smile at, to pick up, &c.* Such expressions should be parsed as *Prepositional Verbs*.

Note 4.—When two Prepositions refer to one Noun, place the Noun after the first, and the Pronoun representing it after the second ; as, *I went to the chair and sat down on it ; not, I went to, and sat down on, the chair.*

Note 5.—Adverbs often qualify Prepositions ; as, *out from, &c.* The two words may be considered as a Compound Preposition.

Note 6.—The Prepositions *for, from, in, on,* are often omitted before Nouns of place and time ; as, I will cause it to rain (**for**) forty days.

Note 7.—Prepositions should not be inserted where they are not wanted.

The word **to** is often omitted in English when used in the Indian vernaculars. He told *to* me, ought to be, He told me.

Note 8.—Prepositions should not be omitted where Syntax requires them. I wish to go England, should be, I wish to go *to* England. I came to speak you, ought to be, I came to speak *to* you. I can depend your promise, ought to be, I can depend *upon* your promise.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

To whom did you give the letter which I sent? Paper did not come into use until the twelfth century. Temperance, by fortifying the mind and body, leads to happiness. If we view ourselves, with all our imperfections and failings, in a just light, we shall rather be surprised at our enjoying so many good things, than discontented, because there are any which we want. Be not overcome by the injuries you meet with, so as to pursue revenge; by the disasters of life, so as to sink into despair; by the evil examples of the world, so as to follow them into sin. Overcome injuries by forgiveness; disasters, by fortitude; evil examples, by firmness of principle. When will you go to Calcutta? Come out from among them. With whom are you in company? To whom were you talking when I came? I am out of breath.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rule.—She I am pleased with, but not with he. We are all accountable, each for himself. Except thou, I have none to help me. He laid the blame on some one, I know not who of the party. They gladly of themselves made up the ransom. Between you and I there is much mischief in it.

Notes.—Is it me you mean to compare him with? The Turks were the next people who the Russians made war against. You surely know not who you speak to. He returned to, and locked himself up in, his house. He is wholly unacquainted with, and consequently incapable of explaining, the principles of the Art. One of the conspirators wrote to, and informed the Emperor of, the daring scheme.

Give me a little of salt. He was of twelve years. Throw a little of water. I failed in last December. My father regretted for my leaving. I will go on to-morrow. Listen what I tell you. There is no use of talking. He harassed to his master. He refused to alter from his decision. My brother went Bombay. He minded to all my affairs. Tell to me your name. I saw him in this week. Send to me some money, He did not obey to their advica. He showed favour upon me. This horse is worth for forty rupees. You cannot give answer for that.

Rule 35.—*Prepositions should be used according to their meaning.*

Some directions may be given; but much acquaintance with English literature¹ is required to secure accuracy.

¹ The books of a country.

1. **In** is used before the names of countries, districts, and large cities ; **at**, before the names of foreign cities, small towns and villages ; as, He is *in* England ; *in* Calcutta ; He lives *at* Serampore *in* Bengal. We may say, He is *at* school or *in* school.

2. **To** is used in expressions like, He went *to* Calcutta. In the sentence, Ceylon lies *to* the south of India ; *to* denotes that Ceylon is *beyond* India. Travancore is *to* the south of India, should be *in* the south of India.

3. **With** often denotes the *instrument*, and **by**, the *doer* ; as, This was written *by* me *with* a quill.

4. **Since**, as a Preposition, signifies *from*. It is placed before a Noun or phrase denoting some *point* of time, never before a Noun or phrase denoting a *period* of time. It is also preceded by a Verb in the *Present Perfect Tense* ; as, The school has been closed *since* May. I *am* unwell *since* three weeks, should be, I *have been* unwell *for* three weeks. But **since** is correctly used when we speak of an interval between a past fixed point of time and the present time ; as, I have been unwell *since* Friday.

5. **At**, like *since*, denotes a *point of time* ; **in**, a *portion of time* ; as, He left *at* six o'clock ; He will come *in* the evening. *In* an hour, means at the end of an hour ; *within* an hour, before the end of an hour.

6. **For** (in the sense of *during*) denotes a *portion of time*. It may be used with any Tense except the Present Imperfect : I *am* studying English *since* two years, ought to be, I *have been* studying English *for* two years.

8. **From**, denoting a *point of time*, may be used with *all* the Tenses, but must be followed by *to*, *till*, or *until* ; as, I attended *from* the 1st *to* the 20th of this month.

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

Rain fell during the night. Is he at home? I am going to Japan. I have not seen him for three months. A battle was fought at Plassey. I have had fever for six days. He has attended college for three years. He started at the same time that I did. He will kill you with the sword. I have been here for a fortnight. I have not met him since Friday. Cochin is in the south of India. Tibet is to the north of India. Did you go to office to-day? The sun has been shining for three hours. I was present from three to four in the afternoon. The holidays will end in a week. He will come in the evening. He went away in the morning. I must go by train this evening. You have not been here for a long time.

Correct the following Errors :—

He went in Madras. He was kicked with his horse. They spent six months at Bengal. I am sick from three weeks. He lives at London. I have not seen him from a long time. Come after a week. My father has gone at Bangalore. I cut it by a knife. Is Ceylon in the south or west of India? I am a candidate from four months. When you wrote upon your uncle? On his arrival to India, he went at Poona. It rained at morning time. The giraffe is found at South Africa. Friday evening he will leave for the Bombay. I send you this letter with Govind. He was killed with him by a spear. The whole island was overrun with the invaders. It is after a long time that you have come to school.

Write sentences each containing one of the following words :—
With, in, at, since, for, from, within.

*Explain the difference in meaning between the following sentences :—*He reached England at the same time as I did, and, He reached England in the same time as I did.

Rule 36.—*Certain words and phrases must be followed by particular Prepositions.*

Some words are followed by different Prepositions to express different meanings. Examples of some of the principal are given below.

Abhorrence of deceit	Acquaint with a person or thing
Abhorrent to the feelings	Acquiesce in a decision
Abide by a statement	Acquit of blame
Abound in, with—expedients	Adapted to a thing
Absent from school	Adapted for a purpose
Absolve from a promise	Addicted to opium
Absorbed in thought	Adequate to a want
Abstain from food	Adhere to a purpose
Accede to a request	Adjacent to the city
Accept of a favour	Admiration of a person
Acceptable to a person	Admit of excuse
Access to a house	Admonished of a fault by a person
Accompanied by a friend	Adorn with flowers
Accord with (neuter), to (active)	Advantage of his absence
Accordance with the rules	Advantage over his opponent
According to promise	Adverse to the proposal
Accountable to his master for the money	Affection to, for
Accuse of crime, by any one	Affinity to, between
Accustomed to teaching	Afflicted with blindness

Afraid of punishment
 Agree among themselves
 " to a proposal
 " with his wife
 Agreeable to one's wishes
 Agreement between them
 Aim at a bird
 Akin to pity
 Alarmed at the sight
 Alien to the subject
 Alienate from a friend
 Alight from a horse; on the
 ground; at the door
 Alive to the risk
 Alliance with a party
 Allied to a thing
 " with a person
 Allotted to each
 Allowable for a person
 Allude to his conduct
 Alternate with his brother
 Amazed at a proposal
 Ambitious of glory
 Amount to a hundred
 Angry at a thing, with a per-
 son
 Annoyed at a thing
 " with a person
 Apprise of an event
 Answer to a person
 " for his neglect
 Antidote against poison
 Antipathy to, against
 Anxious for, about—his safety
 Apart from the company
 Appeal to the High Court
 " against the decision
 Apply to a person, for a thing
 Appoint to a situation
 Apprehensive of danger
 Apprise of his loss
 Appropriate to the occasion
 Approve of his conduct
 Arrive at a place, in a carriage
 Ascribe to him the honour
 Ashamed of his conduct

Ask for a thing; from or of a
 person
 Assent to a proposal
 Associate with a person or thing
 Assure him of safety
 Astonished at his impudence
 Atone to a person, for a fault
 Attend to (listen) upon (wait)
 Attendance at court
 Attendance upon a person
 Attentive to a teacher
 Avail oneself of the chance
 Averse to (feeling), from (state)
 Avert danger from a person
 Aware of his intention

Backward in learning
 Banish from the country
 Bare of clothes
 Bathe in water
 Bear with a person
 Beg of a person
 " for bread
 Believe in his truthfulness
 Belong to a person
 Bent on going
 Bereaved of his wife
 Beset with danger
 Bestow a thing upon a person
 Betray to the enemy
 Betray into his hands
 Beware of the dog
 Blame for failure
 Blind to his danger
 " of an eye
 Blush at the sight
 " for his conduct
 Boast of skill
 Borrow of, from—a friend
 Bound in honour
 " by every tie
 Buy a thing of a person

Call upon him, at his house, for
 the money, on, out, &c.
 Capable of designs

Capacity for thought
 Care for his life
 Care of your books
 Careless of, about—the result
 Carp at the answer
 Catch at a straw
 Caution against the cheat
 Cautious of fire
 Cavil at his speech
 Cede to Germany
 Celebrated for bravery
 Certain of success
 Charge him with crime
 Charge the cost to him
 Cheat a person of his money
 Cleanse from sin
 Clear of debt
 Close (adj.) to the river
 Close (verb) with the offer
 Coincide with his opinion
 Combine with the enemy
 Commit to memory
 Committed against the law
 Common to old and young
 Compare with (quality), to (likeness)
 Compatible with safety
 Compensate him for his work
 Compete with him for a prize
 Competent for the office
 Complain of a person or thing
 „ to a person, against a person
 „ about a person or thing
 Comply with a request
 Composed of metal
 Conceal from view
 Concerned at, about—an event
 „ for his safety
 „ in the crime
 Concur with a person
 „ in an opinion
 Condemned to death for murder
 Condole with a person
 Conduce to health
 Confer with a person about a thing

Confer a favour on men
 Confess to a fault
 Confide in, to—a person
 Confident of victory
 Confined to bed
 Confirmed in the appointment
 Conformable to rule
 Confront a person with his accusers
 Congenial to one's tastes
 Congratulate him on his marriage
 Connect with what goes before
 Connive at a crime
 Consent to the plan
 Consequent upon the proceeding
 Consist of metal
 Consist in causes or results
 Consonant to, with
 Consult with your father
 Contend with, against
 Content with his pay
 Contrary to his orders
 Conversant with persons
 Converse with a person on a subject
 Convince of error
 Copy from a book
 Correspond with a person about a person or thing
 „ to an object
 Count on, upon—your coming
 Cure a person of a disease
 Deaf to advice
 Deal with a person
 „ in rice, sugar
 Decide on, upon—a plan
 Defective in strength
 Defer to his opinion
 Deficient in sense
 Deformed in body
 Defraud a person of his dues
 Delight in his company
 Delighted with the offer
 Demanded of a person

Demur to the charge
 Depart from a place
 Depend upon one's efforts
 Deprive a person of a thing
 Derived from Sanskrit
 Derogate from one's reputation
 Derogatory to one's good name
 Descriptive of the place
 Deserving of praise
 Designed for use
 Desirous of gain
 Desist from the chase
 Despair of success
 Destitute of food
 Destructive of happiness
 Determine upon going
 Detract from his good name
 Devolve on, upon
 Die of hunger, by the sword
 Differ from, with—a person
 Difference between things
 Difficulty in an attempt
 Diligent in business
 Diminution of comfort
 Disagree with a person
 Disagreeable to a person
 Disappointed of a thing, in a thing
 Disapprove of conduct
 Discharge from service
 Discourage from an attempt
 Discouragement to virtue
 Dislike to labour
 Dispense with his help
 Displeased with his servant
 Dispute with a person about a thing
 Dissent from an opinion
 Distinct from the other
 Distrustful of his courage
 Divide between two, among many
 Doubt of one's honesty
 Due to want of care

Eager in, for, with
 Easy of approach

Effective for war
 Elicit from a person
 Eligible for office
 Embittered against his opponent
 Emboldened by success
 Eminent for skill
 Emulous of fame
 Enamoured of a person, with a thing
 Encouragement to virtue
 Encroach on, upon—the land
 Endearred to a person
 Endeavour after failure
 Endowed with beauty
 Endued with virtue
 Engage in business, to a person
 Engraved on brass
 Enjoin upon a person
 Enlarge upon the subject
 Enlist in the army
 Enter upon a course, into one's views
 Entitled to a seat
 Enveloped in fog
 Envious of his success
 Envy (noun) at his success
 Equal to the other
 Escape from jail
 Essential to health
 Estimated at its proper worth
 Exact payment from a person
 Excel in drawing
 Except (verb) from payment
 Exception to a rule, against a person
 Exchange horses with me
 Excluded from society
 Exclusion of above mentioned
 Excuse a person from attendance
 Excuse for absence
 Exempt from duty
 Expel from school
 Expensive in dress
 Exposed to danger
 Expostulate with a person
 Extricate from his grasp

Exult *in* his gain
 „ *over* a person

Fail *in* one's purpose
 „ *of* success
 Fall *under, from, on, upon, into*
 Familiar *with* the book
 Fatal *to* his life
 Favourable *to* his wishes
 Favoured *with* your company
 Fawn (verb) *upon* a person
 Feed *on* grass
 „ *with* corn
 Feel *for* the poor
 Fertile *in* grain
 Find *out* the cause
 Finish *with* a song
 Fit *for* a purpose
 Fond *of* fruit
 Foreign *to* a purpose
 Forgetful *of* his duty
 Free *from* blame
 Frown *upon* a person or thing
 Full *of* sorrow

Gifted *with* skill
 Glad *of, at* the result
 Glance *at* an object
 „ *over* a page
 Glory *in* victory
 Grasp *at* a shadow
 Grateful *to* his parent
 Greedy *of, after* riches
 Grieve *at, for* an event
 „ *for* a person
 Grumble *at* the change
 Guard *against, from* danger
 Guilty *of* murder

Happen *in* a place, *at* a time, *to*
 a person
 Healed *of* his disease
 Hide *from* the enemy
 Hinder *from* speaking
 Hint *at* the cause
 Hope *for* better times

Hurtful *to* progress
 Hush *up* the tale

Ignorant *of* a design
 Ill *of* fever
 Illustrative *of* the subject
 Immersed *in* pleasure
 Impatient *of* control
 „ *for* payment
 „ *at* delay
 Impelled *by* pride
 Impertinent *to* his teacher
 Impose *upon* a person
 Impress a thing *upon* a person
 Impute *to* love of gain
 Incentive *to* labour
 Inclined *to* idleness
 Included *in* the list
 Inclusive *of* all charges
 Inculcate *upon* a person
 Indebted *to* the landlord
 „ *in* a large sum
 Independent *of* help
 Indicative *of* displeasure
 Indifferent *to* fame
 Indignant *at* the insult
 Indulgent *to* his children
 Infected *with* small-pox
 Infer *from* his manner
 Infested *with* snakes
 Inflict punishment *on* him
 Influence *over, with—*a person
 „ *on* his conduct
 Inform a person *of* a thing
 „ *against* a person
 Infringe *on* his rights
 Initiate *into* crime
 Inseparable *from* one another
 Insinuate *into* one's favour
 Insist *upon* payment
 Intent *upon* his work
 Interfere *with* his rights
 Intimate *with* the prisoner
 Introduce me *to* the professor
 Introduced *into* a room
 Intrude *upon* your time

Intrude *into* your compound
 Inured *to* hardship
 Inveigh *against* crime
 Invest *with* authority
 ,, *in* land
 Invite *to* a marriage
 Involved *in* disgrace
 Irrelevant *to* the question
 Irrespective *of* the result

 Jealous *of* his rights
 Jest *at* danger
 Join *with* a person
 Judge *of* a person *by* his actions

 Know *of* five candidates

 Lame *of* a leg
 Lament *for* his only son
 Laugh *at* him *for* his folly
 Lavish *of* money
 Liable *to* abuse
 ,, *for* the loss
 Lift him *up*
 Listen *to* a person
 ,, *for* a song
 Lost *to* a sense of shame

 Made *of* wood *for* a purpose
 Marry one person *to* another
 Martyr *for* a cause, *to* a disease
 Meddle *with* the watch
 Meditate *upon* a question
 Meet *with* a refusal
 Militate *against* an opinion
 Mindful *of* his promise
 Mistrustful *of* a promise
 Mourn *for* his mother
 Moved *at* the sight
 ,, *by* his passions
 ,, *to* tears
 ,, *with* envy
 Murmur *at* or *against* a person

 Natural *to* a boy
 Necessary *to* success, *for* the
 purpose

Necessity *of* the case
 ,, *for* his going
 Need (noun) *of*, *for*—food
 Negligent *in* attendance

 Obedient *to* his teachers
 Object (verb) *to* the demand
 Obligated *to* him *for* the gift
 Observance *of* the Sabbath
 Occur *to* the writer
 Odious *to* a person
 Offend *against* a rule
 Officiate *for* another
 ,, *in* a post
 Open *to* objection
 Opposed *to* fact
 Overcome *with* sleep
 Overwhelmed *with* joy

 Parallel *to* the first
 Part *with* his money
 Partake *of* food
 Partial *to* his friend
 Pass *by* the spot
 ,, *over* the fault
 Passion *for* gambling
 Peculiar *to* the country
 Penitent *for* his conduct
 Perceptible *to* the age
 Persevere *in* study
 Persist *in* coming
 Pertain *to* the subject
 Play *at* cricket
 ,, *on* the harp
 Polite *in* his manners
 ,, *to* all
 ,, *with* his companions
 Popular *for* his kindness
 ,, *with* his companions
 Possessed *of* wealth
 ,, *with* an idea
 Pray *for* a blessing
 Precious *to* the owner
 Preferable *to* the first
 Prefixed *to* the paper
 Prejudice *against* a person
 Prepared *for* the worst

Prepared *against* the future
 Preparatory *to* going
 Presume *upon* his good nature
 Pretext *for* absence
 Prevent *from* coming
 Previous *to* his death
 Profit *by* the transaction
 Profitable *to* the owner
 Prohibit *from* giving
 Prone *to* deceit
 Proper *for* the occasion
 Protest *against* the course
 Proud *of* his position
 Provide *for, with, against*
 Put up *with* abuse

Qualified *for* office
 Quarrel *with* a person
 „ *between* brothers
 Questioned *on* the subject
 Quick *at* accounts

Rebel *against* the king
 Recede *from* his position
 Reckless *of* danger
 Reckon *on* a profit
 Reconciled *to* a loss
 „ *with* an enemy
 Recover *from* fever
 Reduce *to* a state, *under* subjection
 Refer *to* his letter
 Refrain *from* deceit
 Regard *for* a person, *to* our neighbour
 Reign *over* the country
 Rejoice *at* his success, *with* me
 Relation *to* a matter
 Relations *with* a person
 Relieve *from* the task
 Relish *for* work
 Rely *on, upon* a promise or person
 Remind a person *of* a thing
 Remiss *in* duty
 Remit *to* England

Remote *from* home -
 Remove *from* the post
 Repent *of* his refusal
 Repine *at* misfortune
 Replete *with* luxury
 Reply *to* a letter
 Reproach him *for* his fault
 Require *of* his security
 Rescue *from* danger
 Resigned *to* his lot
 Resolve *upon* a course
 Resort *to* trickery
 Respect (noun) *for* the aged
 „ *of* a matter
 Respond *to* his appeal
 Restore *to* an office
 Result (verb) *from* carelessness
 „ (noun) *of* the examination
 Revert *to* the owner
 Rich *in* cattle
 Rid *of* the whole affair
 Rob a person *of* a thing
 Rule *over* the country

Sacred *to* the memory
 Sanguine *of* success
 Search *for, after*—happiness
 Secure *from, against*—danger
 Sensible *of* kindness
 Sensitive *to* ridicule
 Serviceable *to* a person
 Shoot *at* a mark
 Short *of* money
 Sick *of* idleness
 Side (verb) *with* a person
 Significant *of* his designs
 Similar *to* the other
 Slothful *in* business
 Slow *of* speech
 „ *at* work
 Smile *at* his folly
 „ *upon* his proposal
 Snatch *at* the chance
 Solicitous *of* employment
 Sorry *for* the loss
 Sparing *of* praise

Specific *for*, *against*—fever
 Spite *against* a person
 Sport *with* danger
 Stained *with* sin
 Stare *at* a person
 Stare a person *in* the face
 Strip *off* clothes
 Subject *to* orders
 Subscribe *to* a fund
 Subsequent *to* that event
 Subsist *upon* bread
 Succeed *to* the title
 in his attempt
 Sufficient *for* the day
 Suitable *for* the purpose
 to the occasion
 Supply *with* funds
 Sure *of* success
 Surprise *at* failure
 Suspicious *of* danger
 Swerve *from* justice
 Sympathise *with* a person
 Sympathy *for* the poor

 Tamper *with* the accounts
 Taste *of*, what is enjoyed, *for*
 what we are able to enjoy
 Temperate *in* eating
 Tempt *with* money
 Thankful *to* him *for* the gift
 Think *of* a person
 on, *our*—advice
 Thirst *for* gold, *after* gain
 Tired *of* delay
 with working
 Trample *upon* justice
 Treat *of* the causes
 Trifle *with* the truth

Triumph *over* an enemy
 True *to* nature
 Trust *in* a person, *to* a promise

 Unite *with* your brother
 Urge *upon* his attention

 Vain *of* his beauty
 Versed *in* logic
 Vested *in* land
 Vexed *at* a thing
 with a person
 Victorious *over* the enemy
 Vie *with* a person
 Void *of* learning

 Wait *upon* (attend) a person
 for (stay) a person
 Want *of* money
 Wanting *in* courage
 Warn *of* danger
 against an enemy
 Watch *for* the morning
 over a person
 Weary *of* life
 Wink *at* his neglect
 Wish *for* rest
 Withdraw *from* the bargain
 Wonder *at* his conduct
 Worthy *of* success
 Wrestle *with* difficulties

 Yearn *for* home
 Yield *to* the outcry

 Zeal *for* religion
 Zest *for* pleasure

EXERCISES.

Parse the following Sentences :—

He fell from his horse. Is he greedy of gain? We must guard against such an evil. We are ignorant of many things. I am not indifferent to your happiness. It is difficult to convince him of his error. Diligent boys always attend to their studies. Sorrow

is inseparable from sin. He has profited by your advice. Never swerve from the path of duty. He was unjustly blamed for the accident. The man was accused of stealing by the owner.

Correct the following Errors :—

I am tired with his advice. Give an instance for a proper noun. I have a desire upon that. To which he complied. He had been applying to this post. I was made acquainted of his loss. The proposal was agreed by the others. Never be guilty for rudeness. Such behaviour is unworthy to you. She is afraid by a dog. We are now accustomed with these inconveniences. He is resolved of going to Bangalore. She had fallen to the well. He has profited from my loss. I wholly dissent with his opinion, and shall never be reconciled with it. What we did was strictly conformable with our instructions. He has a great resemblance of his father, and especially in his abhorrence against deceit. He is so eager for the pursuit of the object, that there is much difficulty of making him attend on anything else. As a page, he had to attend to his lady, who was glad at his services. This is quite adapted for common use. He has as much reason to be angry at him as at me. He should never be angry with trifles.

Form eight sentences with words followed by more than one Preposition.

THE CONJUNCTION.

Rule 37.—*Conjunctions join the same cases of Nouns or Pronouns, and the same moods and tenses of Verbs.*

*Examples :—*He and she are happy. He loves and obeys his parents.

Note 1.—When Verbs connected by a Conjunction are in different circumstances, they may be in different moods and tenses, the subject being generally, but not always repeated ; as, *The steamer arrived in good time last month, but it is late this month.*

Note 2.—When several particulars are spoken of collectively or separately, **and**, **or**, or **nor**, is usually prefixed to the last only ; as, *He eats, drinks, and sleeps ; He neither eats, drinks, nor sleeps.*

Note 3.—The Auxiliary Verb is often omitted after **if**, **lest**, **though**, **until**, &c. ; as, *If he sell it, I cannot prevent him : i.e., If he should sell, &c.* Some of these Conjunctions, and also **that**, are themselves often omitted ; as, *Were he not blind, he would acknowledge it : i.e., If he were not, &c. He knows (that) I must sell.*

Note 4.—**Since**, as a Conjunction, signifies *from which time.*

It is followed by a Verb in the *Past Indefinite Tense* ; it is preceded by a Verb in the *Present Indefinite* or *Present Perfect Tense*, and by a Noun denoting some *period* of time—not a *point* of time. Thus, *Three months have gone since my brother left.* It is now a year since it *happened*.

Note 5.—*Than* follows Adjectives in the comparative, and also *rather* and *other* ; and is itself often followed by the objective (not the nominative) of the *Relative Pronoun* ; as, *I would have the book rather than the picture.*

Note 6.—A Pronoun after *than* or *as* either agrees with a Verb, or is governed by a Verb or Preposition understood ; as, *He is wiser than I (am) ; She loved him more than (she loved) me ; You are as tall as I.*

Note 7.—Certain Conjunctions require corresponding Conjunctions ; as,

Either, or :—It was either the man or the woman.

Neither, nor :—He will neither go nor stay.

Whether, or :—Whether he agrees or not, it must be done.

Though, yet :—Though they paid him high, yet he was unfaithful.

As, as :—As clear as the sun.

As, so :—As is the child, so is the man.

So, as :—He is not so attentive as he was.

So, that :—He was so determined, that nothing could persuade him.

Both, and :—It is both cheap and good.

If, then :—If you saw him, then I yield the point.

Because, therefore :—Because he sinned, &c., therefore he is unhappy.

In poetry, *or* and *nor* are often employed instead of *either* and *neither* ; as, "*Or by the lazy Scheldt or wandering Po.*" *Not* and *never* are also sometimes thus used ; as, *He never tires nor stops to rest.*

Parse the following Sentences :—

He and I commenced our studies at the same time. The man is good but not wise. If we contend about trifles, and violently maintain our opinion, we shall gain but few friends. When blessed with health and prosperity, cultivate an humble and a compassionate disposition. Speak but the word, and I am ready. Never sport with pain in any of your amusements, nor treat even the meanest insect with wanton cruelty. If we knew how much the pleasures of this life deceive and betray their unhappy votaries, and reflected on the disappointments in pursuit, the dissatisfaction in enjoyment, or the uncertainty of possession, which everywhere attend them, we should cease to be enamoured

of these brittle and transient joys, and should wisely fix our hearts on those virtuous attainments, which the world can neither give nor take away.

Correct the following Errors :—

Rules, with Notes 1 and 2. He railed against you and I. John, you and me will arrange. Did I not warn you, and begged you to be prudent? My uncle and him came. They would neither attend themselves, nor suffered others to do so. The day is approaching and hastens upon us in which we must give an account of our stewardship. Have you any message for my brother or I? Scotland and thee did each in other live. Whether he buys, or sell, or exchanges, he discovers the same probity. If he understands his business and attend to it, he ought to succeed. Did I not tell you and wrote to you? He told her and I.

Note 5.—She was four years older nor him ; but I am two years older than her. I would rather be a good scholar and a good man as a wealthy and unscrupulous rajah. He attended to no other pursuit but that of cultivating flowers. I will rather go myself as disappoint you. I am certain it was no other but the prince, than who none looks more commanding. You are a much greater loser beyond me by his death.

Note 6.—Gopal is not as desirous of knowledge as his brother. It will improve neither the mind or delight the imagination. He is in the habit both of writing sermons as well as plays. He is as good, if not better, than him. Neither the good or the bad are free from reverses. It is of no consequence whether he goes nor stays. I must be so plain to tell you that it is not the case. Though I heard it, still I cannot credit it. His sight has become so weak as he can see only indistinctly. The Athenians were as vain as to call themselves earth-born.

Rule 38.—*Interjections are followed by the Objective case of the Pronoun of the first person, and by the Nominative of the Pronoun of the second.*

As, Ah me ! Oh me ! O thou ! O ye !

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

Errors to be corrected.

These kind of pleasures relax and hinder the mind. He speaks as he was in a passion. The statements are so suspicious as that they require much attention. He made as wise proverbs as any one, him only excepted. I am the man who approves of

salutary discipline, and who recommend it to others. Whosoever you send, I shall welcome. Do you know who I mean? The rain has been more universal this monsoon than the last. She which relies only on her beauty shows great want of understanding. He is more bold and energetic, but not as wise and studious as his brother. The work was much better executed by his brother than he. He would not do it himself nor let me do it. The advancement of both were remarkable. Yesterday rained heavily; but to-day is clear and hot. Both him and me should comply to your request. Unless he applies more he will never be learned. If he was to come, it would afford us pleasure. Either honour or riches is sought. She and him are very unhappily connected.

This adjective, you see, we can't admit;
But changed to *worse*, will make it just and fit.

What the heart or the imagination dictate, flows readily. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Professing regard and to act differently mark a base mind. The woman was speaking to the man, who so greatly excelled in her needlework. The army was ordered to embark with the utmost dispatch; few days after they landed, they came to an engagement with the enemy. He was not cut off by the sword, but there being no water, he died for thirst.

The fair sex, whose task is not to mingle in the affairs of public life, have its own part assigned it. This carriage is preferable and cheaper than the other. He has eaten no food nor drank no water this two days. I was afraid I would lose my money. Bashfulness and impudence ought to be equally avoided; this rendering us objects of pity, that of aversion. The motions of a vortex and a whirlwind is perfectly similar.

In proportion as either of these qualities predominate, the language is imperfect. Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. Unless he have more government of himself, he will be always discontented. Have you read Robertson's the historian Charles V.? We have applied to the collector, in addition to the judge's interest. To compile a dictionary seems, of any others, least practicable in a state of blindness. Of all the essays, mine has the fewer faults. It would have afforded me no pleasure, if I could perform it. Oppression begets the most extreme resolutions. I intend to live suitable with my situation. The king and the tyrant are of very different characters; the one rules his people by laws to which they consent; the other by his absolute will and power: this is called freedom, that tyranny. There is no incensed person so desperate, that he cannot provide a knife or a pistol, if he be inclined to apply them.

He is a Nero, who is another name for cruelty. He had a great taste of these studies; and therefore improved much with them. Richelieu profited of every circumstance. The objects of a divine and human legislator are very different. You seem to have a prejudice at me.

Bad qualities sometimes are overruled remarkably to affect a good end. There are many more shining qualities in the mind, but none so useful as discretion. It is not calculated neither for his present comfort, or intended for his future happiness. From the character of those who you associate with, your own will be estimated. The child who we saw yesterday is judiciously managed. In tracing of his history, we discover little worthy of imitation. By domineering on all his subjects, he lost his kingdom. This was occasioned by swerving out of the path of duty. He went out a captain, but returned a general. The bellows is not good for nothing; there is a hole in its side. He speaks through his sleep. Upon this subject he thought otherwise from him. Power often prevails upon right.

It is an error to say that the aloe blooms but once every hundred year. He has shot fifteen braces in one day. Bread-and-butter are wholesome. He valued greatly the favour the queen had granted to him. The rice is high priced just now, and so is the fish. He and you can only succeed if you persevere. The friends and pursuits who please him most are not of service to his reputation. By such a temptation like that, many a youth has fallen. He spoke in a so affectionate manner that I could not but listen to him. Not few churches were burnt down in the fire of London, but more houses. The enemy does not regard such a force which we can bring into the field. Deceit is the meaner of any vice, and only can be cherished by a depraved mind. Lion and tiger, and such carnivorous animals, are more fiercer than the graminivorous. Such friend as has acted the part he did should be gratefully cherished. Dishonesty of Thessalians was proverbial. Few are wise enough to prefer useful reproof before treacherous praise.

Who did you expect to have seen here? I was neither considering James nor John when I did it? I have neither gold or silver. I wish to lay down. A remarkable fine horse. As neither Rama or Govind are going, let you and I go. I saw the secretary and treasurer, and they examined my accounts. Of all other nations England is the greatest. He told you and I that I will come. Whom do you suppose was going to go for it? There was no one but her in the room. Neither of these boys have learned to read quick. Every member of our families have been introduced to each other. The people in the room was divided into groups. I write a letter that I might have an answer. Neither you or me are invited.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

A **Sentence** is any number of words having a full meaning ; as, *The soul never dies.*

The words "From virtue to vice" do not form a sentence, because the sense is incomplete. But the words, "From virtue to vice, the progress is gradual," form a sentence, because they have a full meaning.

The *breaking up* of a sentence into its parts to show how they are related to each other, is called its **Analysis**.

Every Sentence consists of two parts—the **Subject** and the **Predicate**.

The **Subject** is the person or thing spoken of.

The **Predicate** is what is said about the Subject.

Thus, in the sentence "Rain falls," *rain* is the **Subject**, and *falls* the **Predicate**. The Subject is the answer to the question made by putting *who* or *what* before the Verb.

Sentences are of three kinds—**Simple**, **Complex**, and **Compound**.

I. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A **Simple Sentence** contains only one Subject and one Predicate ; as, *Birds sing.*

A simple sentence contains only *one* finite Verb.

A *finite* Verb is one limited by number, person, &c. A participle or an infinitive mood is not to be mistaken for a Predicate. The former is to be treated as an *Adjective*, the latter as a *Noun*.

1. THE SUBJECT.

The **Subject** must be a Noun or some word or words used in place of a Noun :

1. A **Noun**. *Rama* came. Where is *Govind* ?
2. A **Pronoun**. *He* came. *They* went away.
3. An **Adjective** used as a **Noun**. The *virtuous* are happy.
4. A **Gerund** or **Verbal Noun**. *Walking* is healthy.
5. An **Infinitive**. *To lie* is mean.
6. A **Phrase** or **Sentence**. *Well begun* is half done.
7. A **Quotation**. "Good night, Sir," was the reply.

In *Imperative* sentences the subject is often omitted ; as, *Run* = run (you).

Nouns in the Vocative are not the subject ; Krishna, may Rama come? Here Rama is the subject.

In some cases *it*, *this*, and *that* are mere provisional subjects, the real subject coming afterwards ; as, It is my ambition to succeed. The subject is *to succeed*. It (namely) to succeed is my ambition.

Generally, however, except in Interrogative sentences, the subject is placed *before* the predicate.

EXERCISES.

What is a *Sentence*? What is the *Analysis of Sentences*? Of what two parts does every Sentence consist? What is the *Subject*? What is the *Predicate*? Give examples. What are the three kinds of sentences? What is a *simple* sentence? How many *finite* Verbs does it contain? What is a *finite* Verb? What must the subject be? Give examples of words used in place of Nouns? In what sentences is the subject often omitted? What Nouns cannot be the subject? What are sometimes merely provisional subjects? Where is the subject generally placed?

Point out the Subjects and Predicates in the following sentences :

Cæsar defeated Pompey. Sin leads to ruin. The rainy season follows the hot season. The earth is round. Painting is one of the Fine Arts. He gave me a rupee. In 1066 A.D. William the Conqueror invaded England. The valley of the Ganges is very fertile. The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree. Blessed are the pure in heart. Day and night at the equator are of equal length. Glass is transparent. He ought to go home. The boy is learning English. To succeed, you must be diligent. To return good for evil is noble. Professing regard and acting differently, marks a base mind.

Make six simple sentences.

Enlargements of Subject or Adjuncts.

The Simple Subject is generally a Noun in the Nominative Case. This may be called the **Grammatical Subject**.

Nouns are often qualified by Adjectives. A Noun with its Adjective is called the **Enlarged Subject**. Enlargements are so named because they enlarge or increase our knowledge of the thing spoken of. Example: *Diligent* scholars learn.

<i>Simple Subject.</i>	<i>Enlargement.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>
Scholars.	Diligent.	Learn.

The term **Enlargements** is not very appropriate, for although they *increase the meaning*, they *limit its extent*. **Adjuncts**, things added, is preferable.

Instead of **Adjectives**, **Enlargements** may consist of words or phrases having the nature of **Adjectives**.

1. A **Noun** or **Pronoun** in **Apposition**: William *the Conqueror* died. The king *himself* was there.

2. A **Noun** or **Pronoun** in the **Possessive Case**: Rama's book is lost; *her* dress is torn.

3. A **Preposition** and its **Object**: The house *on the hill* was sold.

4. An **Adjectival Phrase**: A judge, *unjust in his conduct*, is despised.

5. A **Participle** or **Participial Phrase**: The men, *watching*, saw him; Rama, *having repeated* his lesson, went to his seat.

6. An **Infinitive** or **Infinitive Phrase**: The wisest course—to *leave*—did not occur to him.

7. A combination of **two** or **more** of the **above**: Govind's *best* dress is torn; Govind's *younger* brother, *being idle*, failed.

EXERCISES.

What is the *Simple Subject* generally? What is the *Enlarged Subject*? Why are *Enlargements* so called? Why is the name not appropriate? What term is preferable? What does *Adjunct* mean? Of what must enlargements consist? Give specimens of each.

Point out the Simple Subjects and the Enlargements in the following sentences:—Wisdom's ways are pleasantness. Evil communications corrupt good manners. Denial of a fault doubles it. Every day in thy life is a leaf in thy history. A little wrong done to another is a great wrong done to ourselves. The sense of duty is a great gift. One hour to-day is worth two to-morrow. The effort to succeed will be crowned with success. All men think all men mortal but themselves. We forgive our friends their faults. The lightning struck him dead. Hope springs eternal in the human breast. The captain's child, six years of age, was drowned.

Make six sentences with Enlargements of the Subject.

THE PREDICATE.

The **Predicate** is that which is stated of the subject, always a Verb, either alone or with some other or words.

The **complete Predicate** includes all that is stated of the subject. The **simple Predicate** includes only the Verb ; as, *Fire burns.*

Some Intransitive Verbs express a full meaning of themselves, and do not require any word to be placed after them. Such are called Verbs of *Complete Predication* ; as, *Birds sing.*

Other Intransitive Verbs require some word to be placed after them to make the meaning complete. What is placed after such Verbs of *Incomplete Predication* is called the **Complement** ; as, *Gold is heavy* ; *The horse seems strong.*

To be is the principal Verb of the above class. Except when it denotes existence, as *God is*, &c., it always requires a complement. Other Verbs of Incomplete Predication are *appear*, *seem*, *become*, *grow*, *live*, *look*, &c.

Such Verbs are also called *Copulative* (uniting), as they do not make complete sense of themselves.

Factitive Verbs in the Passive Voice are also Verbs of *Incomplete Predication*, and require a **Complement** ; as, *The prince was crowned king.*

The Predicate of a sentence may consist of the following :—

1. A Verb : *Rivers flow.*
2. A Verb with a Noun or Pronoun : *Rama is a teacher* ; *It was he.*
3. A Verb and Adjective : *The coolie is idle.*
4. A Verb and an Adverb : *My books are here.*
5. A Verb and an Infinitive : *He came to learn.*
6. A Verb and Participle : *Govind went running.*
7. A Verb and a Phrase : *The house is in excellent order.*

EXERCISES.

What is the *Predicate* ? What is it always ? How do the *Simple* and *Complete* Predicates differ ? What are Verbs of *Complete* Predication ? Give examples. What are Verbs of *Incomplete* Predication ? Give examples. What is that placed after them called ? What is the principal Verb of Incomplete Predication ? Why ? What are other Verbs of this class ? What are they also called ? Why ? What other Verbs of Incomplete Predication require a complement ? Of what may the Predicate of a sentence consist ? Give examples.

Name the Subjects and Predicates in the following Sentences :—
The stars twinkle. Lord Lansdowne became Viceroy. He is in good health. It is I. The man was of great size. The way was

long. To try is the way to succeed. A thing of beauty is a joy for ever. He is poor. Was he happy? The wily thief was caught at last. The rain ceased. The moon is shining bright. Rama appears to be diligent. The timber is yonder. The poor widow came weeping.

THE OBJECT, OR COMPLETION OF THE PREDICATE.

When the Predicate Verb is transitive, it has an **Object** ; as, Wellington defeated *Napoleon*.

The Object is strictly a *complement*, but on account of its importance, it is treated as a separate part of a sentence.

The Object is usually a Noun or something equivalent to a Noun.

The Object of a sentence may be :

1. A **Noun** or **Pronoun** : Fishermen catch *fish* ; He shot *him*.
2. An **Adjective** used as a **Noun** : We should pity *the poor*.
3. A **Gerund** : Govind likes *reading*.
4. An **Infinitive** : Learn *to labour*.
5. A **Phrase** or **Sentence** : The vakil promised *that it should be done*.
6. A **Quotation** : “ *Try not the pass !* ” the old man said.

The *Object* may be enlarged, like the *Subject* ; by

1. An **Adjective** : The hunter caught a *large* deer.
2. A **Noun** or **Pronoun** in **apposition** : I knew Govind, *your brother*.
3. A **Noun** or **Pronoun** in the **Possessive Case** : Krishna lost *Rama's* books ; He sold *his* house.
4. A **Participle** : I saw him *standing*.
5. An **Infinitive** : He has a house *to let*.
6. A **Participial Phrase** : I saw him *running in the field*.
7. An **Infinitive Phrase** : The teacher told Rama the course *to be followed by him*.
8. A **Prepositional Phrase** : I saw the owner *of the field*.
9. A **combination** of the above : I found the boys *playing in the large compound*.

Some Transitive Verbs take two objects. One relating to a thing is called the *Direct Object* ; the other relating to a person is called the *Indirect Object*.

The Indirect Object may occur after Verbs of *giving, promising, refusing, telling, &c.* ; as, His father gave him *a book*. This is

sometimes called the *Dative Object*. It may, or may not, be preceded by the Preposition *to*.

Verbs of *making, appointing, wishing, &c.*, are called *Factitive Verbs*. In the Active Voice they not only take an object called the *Factitive Object*, but require a *Complement* after the object to complete the sense.

The Complement may be a Noun, an Adjective, a Verb, an Adverb, or a phrase; as, The king appointed him *governor*; He made him *happy*; I heard him *talking*; I found him *there*.

EXERCISES.

What has the Predicate Verb when Transitive? What is the Object *strictly*? Why is it treated separately? What is the Object usually? What may it be? Give examples. How may the Object be enlarged? Give examples. What do some Transitive Verbs take after them? What are the two Objects called? After what Verbs does the *Dative Object* occur? By what may it be preceded? What are Factitive Verbs? What do they take in the Active Voice? What may the *Complement* be? Give examples.

Name the **Objects** in the following, and say of what each consists:—

We wished him much joy. The sailor taught him swimming. The fox paid the crow great attention. Cats love to lie basking in the sun. Through an Alpine village passed a youth. A soldier's death thou hast boldly died. I saw the boys playing at cricket. Leaves have their time to fall. We should try to help the sickly poor. They ate four ripe mangoes. The poor woman has no money to pay for her food. He praised him for his courage. There is a fine old tree in the garden. He taught me to speak English. I found him reading in the library. Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary. He built a wall six feet high.

THE EXTENSION OF THE PREDICATE.

The **Predicate** is always a Verb. It may be enlarged, extended, or modified by an Adverb or its equivalent. Such modifications are called **Extensions of the Predicate**, or its **Adjuncts**.

The **Extensions** may be:

1. An **Adverb**: The soldier died *bravely*.
2. An **Adverbial Phrase**: Govind studies *now and then*.

3. A **Prepositional Phrase**: He will return *in a few days*.
4. A **Noun Phrase**: They went *side by side*.
5. An **Infinitive**: I shall try *to follow*.
6. An **Infinitive Phrase**: Govind went *to bring some paper*.
7. A **Participle**: Govind came *running*.
8. A **Participial Phrase**: I saw him *standing at the door*.
9. An **Absolute Phrase**: The clock *having struck six*, we set out; *To tell you the truth*, I think him dishonest.

The above classification is according to *Grammar*. They may also be arranged according to *distinction in thought*.

The following are examples :

1. **Time**: I studied there *three years*.
2. **Place**: I came *from Calcutta*.
3. **Magnitude**: He went *four miles* ; It measured *three acres*.
4. **Manner**: He writes *well*.
5. **Agent**: The defendant was represented *by his vakil*.
6. **Instrument**: He was slain *with the sword*.
7. **Cause**: He was dismissed *for idleness*.
8. **Purpose**: He went there *to gain a living*.

EXERCISES.

What is the Predicate always? How may it be enlarged? What are such modifications called? What may they be? Give examples of each. How may Extensions also be classified? Give examples of each.

Point out the **Extensions** of the **Predicate** in the following sentences and classify them grammatically :—

He was going to Agra. His father died a year ago. He has a cottage by the sea. We arrived in time. They sailed along the coast. I could not speak for laughing. I knocked twice. We then marched forward. He struck with all his might. He built his house on a rising ground. He caught cold from not changing his damp clothes. How cleverly he talks ! I have been a stranger in a strange land. They worked day and night. Having made these remarks, he sat down.

Write sentences containing examples of the nine Extensions enumerated.

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A simple sentence may contain the following :—

1. A Subject.
2. An Enlargement of the Subject.

3. A Predicate.
4. An Object.
5. An Enlargement of the Object.
6. An Extension of the Predicate.

The first and third, the *Subject* and *Predicate*, are essential to every sentence. The others may or may not be present.

When the parts of a sentence are not in the usual order, it is said to be *inverted*, or turned upside down. This is often the case in poetry ; as, Round went the wheels.

In analysing a simple sentence proceed as follows :—

1. Set down the **Subject** of the sentence. In Imperative sentences this is often not expressed.

2. Set down the **Predicate** of the sentence. This must be finite Verb, with number and person—not a participle or infinitive.

3. If the Verb be Transitive and in the Active Voice, set down the *Direct Object*, and, if there be one, the *Indirect Object*. To find the former, place *whom* or *what* after the Verb ; to find the latter, place *to whom* or *to what* after the Verb.

4. Set down the enlargements of the Subject.

5. Set down the enlargements of the Object.

6. Set down the extensions of the Predicate.

The following hints should receive attention :—

Interrogative sentences should be treated as *Assertive* ; as, Where are you going ? should be analysed as, You are going where ?

The Noun or Pronoun in an absolute clause is not to be confounded with the Subject of the sentence : The raja having died, his *son* succeeded him.

Copulative Verbs cannot alone form a Predicate. The Nouns or Adjectives with them which they connect with the Subject form part of the Predicate ; as, *I am sorry* (Pred.).

The introductory particle *there* is reckoned with adverbial extensions.

In "Let us go," *let* is an Imperative, *us* the Direct Object, and *go* the Indirect Object.

Sentences may be analysed either in the **Detailed Form** or the **Tabular Form**. The former enables the

sentence to be divided to any extent ; the latter has the great advantage of clearness, and is preferred by examiners as giving less trouble.

The following is an example of the Detailed Form :

SENTENCE.—The warlike Romans subdued the whole country with great rapidity.

KIND OF SENTENCE.—Simple.

SUBJECT.—Romans.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—The warlike.

PREDICATE.—Subdued.

OBJECT.—Country.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—The whole.

EXTENSION OF PREDICATE.—With great rapidity.

The Tabular Analysis would be as follows :

Subject.	Enlargement of Subject.	Predicate.	Object.	Enlargement of Object.	Extension of Predicate.
Romans	The warlike	subdued	country	the whole	with great rapidity.

One or two other examples may be given of the Analysis of Simple Sentences,

“At a small distance from the house my predecessor had made a seat overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle.”—*Vicar of Wakefield*.

SUBJECT.—Predecessor.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—My.

PREDICATE.—Had made.

OBJECT.—A seat.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—Overshadowed by a hedge of hawthorn and honeysuckle.

EXTENSION.—At a small distance from the house.

“But me, scarce hoping to attain that rest,
Always from port withheld, always distressed,—
Me howling winds drive devious—tempest-tossed,
Sails rent, seams opening wide, and compass lost.”

Cowper.

SUBJECT.—Winds.

ENLARGEMENT OF SUBJECT.—Howling.

PREDICATE.—Drive devious.

OBJECT.—Me.

ENLARGEMENT OF OBJECT.—Scarce hoping to attain that rest, always from port withheld, always distressed, tempest-tossed.

EXTENSIONS OF PREDICATE.—Sails rent, seams opening wide, compass lost. (Nominative Absolute.)

EXERCISES.

What are the essential parts of a sentence? What six parts may some sentences contain? When the parts of a sentence are not in the usual order, what is it said to be? What course should be followed in analysing a simple sentence? How should Interrogative sentences be treated? What can a Noun or Pronoun in an absolute sense not be? What must be included with Copulative Verbs in the Predicate? How is the introductory particle *there* to be reckoned? In what two forms may sentences be analysed? What are their respective advantages?

Analyse, in either of the given forms, the following Sentences:—

The battle of Marathon secured the liberty of Greece. Ambition often puts men upon performing the meanest offices. An hour like this may well display the emptiness of human grandeur. A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion. Tall oaks from little acorns grow. Solomon, the son of David, built the splendid temple at Jerusalem. Pride, that never-failing vice of fools, is not easily defined. To create creatures liable to wants, is to render them susceptible of enjoyment. By a wise provision of Providence, the inferior animals have not the gift of speech. The complaints of the old man excited the indignation of the bystanders. The blow did the Saracen but very little injury. Then shook the hills by thunder riven.

Imperial Cæsar, dead and turned to clay,
Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

All silently the little moon
Drops down behind the sky.

Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.

II. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

A COMPLEX SENTENCE consists of a *Principal Sentence* with one or more *Dependent* or *Subordinate Sen-*

tences ; as, I shall see you *before you leave* ; I am very anxious *that he should pass* ; Govind, *whom I met yesterday*, said *that his brother, who left Calcutta last month, had just returned*.

The parts in *italics* are the Subordinate Sentences. Each sentence makes complete sense ; but the *full meaning* of a Subordinate Sentence is not felt till it is joined to the Principal Sentence. .

Complex means *folded together*. **Subordinate** means of *lower rank*. The Conjunctions that join Subordinate Sentences to the principal are called **Subordinative**.

A Subordinate Sentence is sometimes called a **Clause**. **Clause** comes from a word meaning *shut*. A Clause is like one of the rooms of a house. A Subordinate Sentence cannot be used alone, but the principal sentence is complete in itself.

Subordinate Sentences or **Clauses** are of three kinds : *Noun Sentences, Adjective Sentences, and Adverbial Sentences.*

A **Noun Sentence** or **Clause** is one which has the power of a Noun.

A Noun Clause—

1. May form the **Subject** of a Sentence : *Who broke the glass cannot be ascertained.*
2. May form the **Object** of a Sentence : He said *that you were wrong.*
3. May be in **apposition** to some other *Noun* or *Pronoun* : The hope *that he will be pardoned* is now abandoned.
4. May enter into the **Predicate** as **Complement** : His belief was *that Krishna would succeed.*

Noun Clauses are joined to the principal sentence by Conjunctions, Relative Pronouns, or Interrogatives ; as, *that, who, what, where, when, how, &c.* *That* is often omitted before an Objective Clause : I know (*that*) he is right.

An **Adjective Clause** does the work of an Adjective.

It may—

1. Qualify the **Subject** : He *who restrains his anger* is wise.
2. Qualify the **Object** : They ate all the fruit *which we had gathered.*

3. Enter into the **Predicate**: Govind is a boy *whom you taught*.

4. Enter into the **extension** of the Predicate: The captain went into the ship *which sailed away*.

Adjective Clauses are often introduced by the *Relative Pronoun* **that**. *Who, which, where, when, &c.*, are also employed. *Who, which, and that*, when in the **Objective Case**, are often omitted: Is that the boy (*whom*) you saw?

An **Adverbial Clause** is one which has the power of an Adverb.

It may be attached to—

1. The **Subject**: To study *when we are unwell* is trying.
2. The **Object**: He likes to play *when school is over*.
3. The **Predicate**: I come *when I can*.
4. A **Participial Clause**: Having finished my work *before he came*, I could leave at once.

Adverbial Clauses may be classified in the same way as simple Adverbs. See page 80.

They are mostly introduced by Adverbs of *time, place, manner, &c.*

Two or more subordinate clauses may depend on the same principal sentence: The carpenter *whom I paid to-day* can go home *when he likes*.

Sometimes one subordinate clause is contained within another which is itself subordinate: Krishna said he would come back *when he had finished the work*.

When some portion of a subordinate clause is *left out*, the sentence is termed *elliptical*: He is stronger than I (am strong).

EXERCISES.

What is a *Complex Sentence*? What does *complex* mean? What does *subordinate* mean? What is a subordinate sentence sometimes called? What is the meaning of *clause*? How do a Subordinate sentence and a Principal sentence differ? Of what three kinds are Subordinate sentences? What is a Noun clause? What may it form, giving examples of each? How are Noun clauses joined to the principal sentence? What is an *Adjective clause*? How may it be employed? Give examples. How are Adjective clauses often introduced? What is an *Adverbial clause*? How

are they used? Give examples. How may they also be classified? How are Adverbial clauses mostly introduced? What may depend on one principal sentence? How may a subordinate clause be sometimes contained? When is a clause said to be *elliptical*?

ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

In analysing Complex Sentences observe the following rules:—

1. Find out first the *Principal Sentence*.
2. Ascertain the *Dependent Clauses*. To find them look out the *finite* Verbs; each of them means a clause. If a finite Verb is understood, supply it.
3. Under the head, "Sentences and Clauses," write out the sentences or clauses in the order of prose. If they are long, give the first and last words, marking the omission by asterisks.
4. Find those clauses, if any, which attach themselves to the *Subject* of the principal sentence.
5. Find those clauses, if any, that belong to the Object of the principal sentence, or to any other Noun or Pronoun in it.
6. Look for the clauses that are attached to the Predicate of the principal sentence.
7. Classify the clauses according to the *function* they discharge. Does a clause stand for a Noun? Does it qualify a Noun? Does it limit a Verb?

Caution.—Do not be misled by the part of speech which introduces a clause. An Adverb may introduce a Noun clause, or an Adjective clause:—

I do not know *where he has gone* (Noun).
The place *where it happened* is unknown (Adj.).

A Relative Pronoun may introduce a Noun clause or an Adjective clause:—

I have not heard *who he is* (Noun).
The thief, *who was a servant*, is caught (Adj.).

8. Pick out the connective word by which any one clause is joined to another. If understood, supply it. *What*, equal to *that which*, enters both into the principal sentence and the Adjective clause.

The tabular form is generally preferable in the Analysis of Complex Sentences. Two examples are given.

EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS OF A COMPLEX SENTENCE.

"General Washington, who beheld all day, with unspeakable anguish, the useless slaughter of his brave troops, skilfully withdrew his army, which was dispirited by defeat, from Long Island to New York, at night under cover of a dense fog."

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Objects with Enlargements.	Extension of Predicate.
(1) General Washington skilfully withdrew his army, from Long Island to New York, at night under cover of a dense fog.	Principal Sentence.	Washington General	withdrew	his army	skilfully from Long Island to New York, at night, under cover of a dense fog. (Adverbial phrases.)
(2) who beheld all day, with unspeakable anguish, the useless slaughter of his brave troops,	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>Washington</i> (1).	who	beheld	the useless slaughter of his brave troops	with unspeakable anguish. (Adverbial phrase.)
(3) which was dispirited by defeat.	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>army</i> (1).	which	was dispirited		by defeat. (Adverbial phrase.)

EXAMPLE OF ANALYSIS.

This celebrated city, which contains many interesting objects, lies on the northern bank of the Ganges, and is frequented by numerous pilgrims, from all parts of India, some of whom bring valuable offerings.

Sentence.	Kind of Sentence.	Subject with Enlargements.	Predicate.	Object with Enlargements.	Extension of Predicate.
(1) This celebrated city lies on the northern bank of the Ganges,	Principal Sentence.	This celebrated city	lies		on the northern bank of the Ganges
(2) which contains many interesting objects,	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>city</i> (1).	which	contains	many interesting objects.	
(3) and (city) is frequented by numerous pilgrims from all parts of India,	Principal Sentence, co-ordinate with (1).	(city)	is frequented		by numerous pilgrims from all parts of India
(4) some of whom bring valuable offerings.	Subordinate, Adjective to <i>pilgrims</i> (3).	some of whom	bring	valuable offerings	

EXERCISES.

What is the first step to be taken in analysing a Complex sentence? How are the dependent clauses to be ascertained? What should next be done? If the sentences or clauses are long, what may be done? What should next be ascertained? How are the clauses to be classified? What caution is necessary? What may Adverbs and Relative Pronouns introduce? What should be picked out?

Analyse the following Complex Sentences :—

Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

The severity of this remark I bore patiently, because I knew that it was just.

I was happy at finding a place where I could lose my fears in desperation.

Sir Isaac Newton was the first who showed that every ray of light from the sun consists of different colours.

Having visited the house where my grandfather was born, we went round the town, whilst my father called upon his lawyer.

When he was born, who brought him up, how he lived, and whither he went after he was lost sight of, we are not told.

As I was going out with that resolution, I was met at the door by the captain of a ship with whom I had formerly some little acquaintance, and he agreed to be my companion.

Alas! the meanest herb that scents the gale,
The lowliest flower that blossoms in the vale,
Even when it dies, at spring's sweet call renews
To second life its odours and its hues.

III. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

A COMPOUND SENTENCE consists of two or more simple sentences, each complete in itself, generally joined together by a Conjunction or Relative Pronoun; as, My house was sold, *and* I left the country; This is the book *which* I lost.

The simple sentences of a Compound Sentence are usually called *Clauses*.

As the sentences are independent, or of the same rank, they are called *co-ordinate*, and the Conjunctions that join them are called *co-ordinative* (see page 86).

Co-ordinate Sentences may be divided into the following principal classes:—**Cumulative**, **Adversative**, **Illative**, and **Alternative**.

The relations between the members of a Compound Sentence may be :—

1. **Cumulative**,¹ as when one sentence is simply added to another : Govind rode *and* Rama walked.

The Conjunctions most frequently used to express this relation are : *and, also, as well as, besides, likewise, moreover, &c.*

Sometimes the Conjunctions are omitted, and the co-ordinate sentences are separated by commas or semicolons ; as, I came, I saw, I conquered. Such sentences are sometimes said to be *collateral*, or placed *side by side*.

2. **Adversative**,² as when one co-ordinate sentence is opposed to another ; He could read, *but* he could not write.

The chief Adversative Conjunctions are : *but, yet, still, however, nevertheless, on the other hand, notwithstanding.*

3. **Illative**,³ as when one sentence expresses the cause, and the other the effect of that cause : It rained heavily ; *therefore* we went indoors.

The chief Conjunctions of this class are : *therefore, wherefore, consequently, hence, accordingly, for, since, inasmuch as.*

4. **Alternative**,⁴ as when one statement *or* the other is to be taken : Win this fight *or* die.

The Conjunctions of this kind are : *or, else, otherwise.* Where both statements are denied, *neither—nor* are used.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

Contracted Sentences are those in which the repeti-

¹ Adding.

² Opposite.

³ Denoting an inference.

⁴ Offering a choice.

tion of Subject or Predicate is avoided by the use of a Conjunction; as, I gave money and (I gave) clothing; either you (must pay) or I must pay.

One Subject may have two or more Predicates. One Predicate may have two or more Objects.

Sometimes two or more nouns are the *Conjoint Subject*; as, Rama and Krishna are cousins. This is not a *Contracted Sentence*.

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Compound Sentences are analysed as Simple Sentences, with the connecting link pointed out.

1. Add a column to the table previously used for the connecting word.

2. Distinguish between subordinate clauses and co-ordinate sentences.

3. Wherever there is a contracted subject, predicate, or object, treat it as simple, and place against it the word "Contracted."

4. Parenthetical sentences are independent of the constructions in which they occur, and should be dealt with separately.

Parenthetical sentences are those put in among others complete without them: Thou shalt be seen (though with some short parenthesis between) high on the throne of wit.

Sentences may be partly Compound and partly Complex; and a mixed sentence of this kind may be joined to another mixed sentence by some co-ordinative Conjunction. But the same principles of analysis apply to all.

The following sentence is analysed in Tabular form:—

Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever,
Do noble things, not dream them all day long;
And so make life, death, and that vast forever,
One grand, sweet song.¹

¹ From Canon Daniel's Grammar, p. 150. The compiler is indebted to the same work for several suggestions under the head of "Analysis."

Sentences and Clauses.	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Con-necting word.	Subject.	Predicate.	Completion of Predicate.	Extension of Predicate.
(a) Be good, sweet maid	Co-ordinate with (b), (d)		(thou)	be good		
(b) Let (them) be clever	Co-ordinate with (a)	and	(you)	let	(them) (Dir. Obj.) be clever (Ind. Obj.)	
(c) who will (be clever)	Adjective to (b)		who	will = with	be clever (Ind. Obj.)	
(d) Do (thou) noble things.	Co-ordinate with (a) and (b)		(thou)	do	noble things (Dir. Obj.)	
(e) (Do) not dream them all day long.	Co-ordinate with (a), (b), and (d)		(thou)	(do) not dream	them (Dir. Obj.)	all day long (time)
(f) And so make life ...one grand, sweet song.	Co-ordinate with (a), (b), (d), (e)	and	(thou)	make	life, death, and that vast forever (Dir. Obj.) one grand sweet song (Fac. Obj.)	

EXERCISES.

What is a *Compound Sentence*? What are independent sentences of the same rank said to be? What are the principal classes of Co-ordinate Sentences? What is a *Copulative Sentence*? What are the Conjunctions most frequently employed in Copulative Sentences? What are *Collateral Sentences*? What is an *Adversative Sentence*? What are the chief *Adversative Conjunctions*? What is an *Illative Sentence*? What are the chief *Illative Conjunctions*? What is an *Alternative Sentence*? What are the *Alternative Conjunctions*? What are *Contracted Sentences*? What is a *Conjoint Subject*? How are *Compound Sentences* analysed? What additional column should be added? What should be distinguished? How should a contracted subject, &c., be treated? What are *Parenthetical Sentences*? How should they be treated? How may sentences be mixed?

Analyse the following Compound Sentences:—

Neither a borrower nor a lender be;

For loan oft loses both itself and friend.

He will act honourably in this matter, or I shall be greatly disappointed.

Can honour's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?

The dying king begged to be attended by his confessor, but she denied him even this comfort.

The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,
But at every gust the dead leaves fall.

The faculty of imagination is the great spring of human activity, and the principal source of human improvement.

Our deeds shall travel with us from afar,
And what we have been makes us what we are.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

WORD-BUILDING.

OR,

FORMATION OF WORDS.

A word in its simplest form is called a **Root**; as, *man*, *good*, *see*. It is also called a **Primitive**, or first word.

The proper *root* may be different from the simplest form of the word now in use. *Tal*, number, is the root of *tale*, *tell*, *talk*. The *stem*¹ is the root with some change. *Love* (= *lov* + *e*) is the stem of *lov*. It is to the stem that all inflections are added. Thus, to *love* we add *d* for the past tense.

From the simple or primitive words, called roots, we form other words chiefly in two ways :

1. *By adding to the word another word* ; as, black-board, ink-stand, door-way, hand-writing, &c. Words so formed are called **Compound Words**.

2. *By changes in a word*.

These may be of two kinds :

(1) *A change may be made in the root* ; as, *strike*, *stroke* ; *bind*, *bond* ; *food*, *feed*.

(2) By adding some letter or letters either at the beginning or end of a word ; as, *like*, *unlike* ; *ever*, *never* ; *man*, *manly* ; *good*, *goodness*.

The letters placed *before* are called **Prefixes**² ; those placed *after* are called **Postfixes**,³ or **Suffixes**,⁴ or **Affixes**.⁵

Words formed from other words are called **Derivatives**.

Derivative means drawn from ; like a channel from a river.

Words formed by changes in the root are called **Primary Derivatives** ; those formed by means of Prefixes or Postfixes are called **Secondary Derivatives**.

EXERCISES.

What is the *root* of a word ? What is it also called ? What is the *stem* ? How are other words chiefly formed from roots ? What are words so formed called ? What changes may there be in a word ? What are letters placed before called ? What are those placed behind called ? What are words formed from other words called ? What is the meaning of *Derivative* ? What two kinds of *Derivatives* are there ? How are they distinguished ?

Arrange the following words in two columns—*Primary and Derivative* :—

Grindstone, sun, horseman, manhood, ashore, so, afternoon, mile, town, sevenfold, yesterday, eye, of, forenrost, hope, less,

¹ The stem of a tree is the thick part from which the branches spring.

² *Pre*, means before. ³ *Post*, means after. ⁴ *Sub*, *suf*, means under, after.

⁵ *Af*, *ad*, to.

undone, midway, near, five, thirteen, racehorse, inkstand, child-like, skyblue, lovely.

FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

Compound Neuns may consist of the following :—

1. Two Nouns placed side by side :

Railway, teaspoon, cowherd, housetop, rosebud, bloodhound, lapdog, eyelid.

Many Compound Nouns are formed in this way. Usually the first word qualifies the second. When the connection between the two is very close, they are written as one word. When such is not the case, they are separated by the mark -, called a hyphen; as, dog-cart, foot-race, finger-post.

2. A Noun preceded by an Adjective :

Nobleman, blackbird, freeman, redbreast, greenhouse, quick-silver, highland, sixpence.

3. A Noun preceded by a Verb :

Pickpocket, telltale, turncoat, grindstone, stopgap, spendthrift, catchpenny, breakfast, wagtail.

In these cases the Verb part is Transitive, and usually governs the Noun.

A Noun preceded by a Gerund may be included under this head : looking-glass, bathing-place, writing-desk, walking-stick, spelling-book.

4. A Noun preceded by an Adverb or Preposition :

Bypath, forethought, aftergrowth, inside, outside, overcharge, afternoon, onlooker.

5. By the union of other parts of speech :

Outlay, runaway, drawback, income, hearsay, onset, go-between, farewell, welfare.

COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

Compound Adjectives may consist of—

1. Noun and Adjective :

Sky-blue, blood-red, sea-green, snow-white, nut-brown, ice-cold, blood-heat, purse-proud, breast-high, way-weary, blood-thirsty.

2. Adjective and Adjective :

Blue-black, red-hot, dead-alive, worldly-wise.

3. Noun and Participle :

Heart-rending, spirit-stirring, time-serving, sea-faring, house-keeping, moth-eaten, earth-born, tempest-tossed, way-laid, copper-fastened.

4. Verb and Adverb :

Underdone, outspoken, over-fed, ill-pleased, well-bred, thoroughbred.

COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

See pp. 42, 45, and 47 for **Reflexive Pronouns, Compound Relatives, and Compound Interrogatives.**

COMPOUND VERBS.

Compound Verbs may consist of—

1. Noun and Verb :

Backbite, browbeat, waylay, henpeck, hoodwink.

2. Adjective and Verb :

Whitewash, fulfil, rough-hew.

3. Adverb and Verb :

Foretell, outbid, overthrow, cross-question, outdo.

COMPOUND ADVERBS.

Compound Adverbs may consist of—

1. Noun and Noun :

Lengthways, endways.

2. Noun and Adjective :

Head-foremost, breast-high, meanwhile, always, sometimes, otherwise.

3. Noun and Preposition :

Indeed, upstairs, indoors, above-board, outside.

4. Adjective and Adverb :

Somewhere, everywhere, somehow.

5. Adverb and Adverb :

Henceforward, thereabout.

6. Adverb and Preposition :

Hereafter, thereon, whereupon, forthwith, thereby.

7. Phrase Adverbs. See page 81.**COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS.**

Outside, inside, throughout, within, without, into, upon, are examples, with phrase-prepositions.

COMPOUND CONJUNCTIONS.

Whereat, whereby, however, moreover, otherwise and likewise, are examples.

EXERCISES.

How may *Compound Nouns* be formed ? Give examples of each. When two Nouns are placed side by side, what does the first generally do to the second ? When is a hyphen inserted ? When a Verb precedes a Noun, what does the Verb usually do to the Noun ? Give examples of a Noun preceded by a Gerund. What may *Compound Adjectives* consist of ? Give examples of each. What may *Compound Verbs* consist of ? Give examples. What may *Compound Adverbs* consist of ? Give examples. Give examples of *Compound Prepositions* and *Compound Conjunctions*.

Decompose the following words, and give the part of speech of each element :—

Twopence, quicksilver, greyhound, outbid, inside, bluebell, railway, inlet, thunderstorm, seabreeze, forethought, upright, whitewash, farewell, hereupon, howbeit, however, nobleman, forthwith, pickpocket, somewhere, thereby, without.

PRIMARY DERIVATIVES.

Primary Derivatives are formed by making some change in the body of the root.

Nouns.

1. Nouns have been formed from Verbs by changing the inside vowel :—

Bite, bit ; drive, drove ; bless, bliss ; sing, song ; strike, stroke.

2. A change is sometimes made in the final consonant sound :—

Speak, speech ; prove, proof ; advise, advice ; live, life ; dig, ditch ; practise, practice.

3. In some cases both sounds, vowel and consonant, are changed :—

Choose, choice ; lose, loss ; live, life ; clothe, cloth.

Adjectives.

Adjectives are formed by changing the vowel or the final consonant of the root :—

Heat, hot ; fill, full ; pride, proud ; milk, milch.

Verbs.

1. Verbs are formed from Nouns by changing the vowel sound :—

Blood, bleed ; knot, knit ; gold, gild ; food, feed ; bond, bind.

2. By a change in the final consonant sound :—

Price, prize ; thief, thieve ; half, halve ; sooth, soothe.

3. By a change in both sounds, vowel and consonant :—

Bath, bathe ; breath, breathe ; glass, glaze.

By the above changes some Intransitive Verbs receive a Transitive or Causal sense :—

<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>	<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>
Fall	fell	Rise	raise
Drink	drench	Lie	lay
Droop	drop	Sit	set
Stoop	stop	Cling	clench

EXERCISES.

What are *Primary Derivatives*? In what three ways are Nouns formed from Verbs? Give examples of each. How are *Adjectives* formed? Give examples. In what three ways may *Verbs* be formed? Give examples. What do some Intransitive Verbs become by these changes?

From what Verbs are the following Noun-derivatives formed?

Seat, speech, ditch, choice, life, brood, sit, breath, belief, proof, bond, writ, seed, flood, deed.

Form Verbs from the following words :—

Calf, wreath, cloth, dog, drop, lie, sop, rest, reel, wink, shelf, drag, wring.

SECONDARY DERIVATIVES.

Secondary Derivatives are formed from primary words by adding letters either at the beginning or end of words, called **Prefixes** or **Suffixes**.

Prefixes and Suffixes, like the words themselves, are of three classes—of English, Latin, or Greek origin. Only the first are noticed at present.

ENGLISH PREFIXES.

A has several meanings. The following are some of the principal :—

1. As a corrupted form of *on* it is prefixed to nouns and adjectives ; as, *abed, afoot, ashore, asleep*.

2. When prefixed to certain words it means *off, up, from* ; as, *awake, arise, alight, afar*.

3. An intensive force ; as, *ahungered, aweary, athirst, abide*.

After, *following* ; as, *afternoon, afterthought*.

All, *all* : *Almighty, almost, alone*.

At, *at* ; *atone*.

Be, corrupted from *by*, has several meanings :—

1. It changes nouns and adjectives into transitive verbs ; as, *befriend, becalm, beguile*. In *behead* it has a privative force.

2. It turns some intransitive verbs into transitive ; as, *bemoan, bespeak, befall*.

3. It intensifies the force of transitive verbs ; as, *bedaub, besmear, beseech, besprinkle*.

4. Prefixed to nouns and adjectives, it forms adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions ; as, *besides, beyond, between, betwixt, because, &c.*

Em, or **en**, *to make, to give* ; as, *endear, enslave, empower*.

For, *through, thorough* ; as, *forget, forgive*. In *forbid*, it has a negative sense.

Fore, *before* ; as, *foresee, foresight, foremost*.

Gain, *against* ; as, *gainsay*.

In, *in* ; as, *income, inborn, into*.

Mis (shortened from *miss*), *wrong* ; as, *mistake, mislead, mis-trust*.

N (shortened from *no*), *not* ; as, *none, neither, never*.

Off, *away* ; *offshoot, offspring, offscouring*.

- On**, *on* ; as, *onlooker, onset*.
Out, *beyond* ; as, *out-bid, out-do, out-grow, out-live*.
Over, *above, too much* ; as, *overflow, overhang, overcharge*.
To, *the or this* ; as, *to-day, to-night, to-morrow*.
Un has three meanings :—
 1. *not* ; as, *unclean, unkind, untruth, unrest*.
 2. *back* ; as, *untie, undo*. In *unloose* it is only intensive.
 Nouns to which it is prefixed are changed into Verbs ;
 as, *unman, unhorse, unearth*.
 3. *on* ; as, *unto, until*.
Under, *beneath, below* ; as, *undersell, underground*.
Up, *upward* ; as, *uplift*.
With, *back, against* ; as, *withhold, withstand*.

EXERCISES.

What are *Secondary Derivatives* ? Name the three Classes of Prefixes and Suffixes ? Give the meanings of the different English Prefixes.

Give the meanings of the **English Prefixes** in the following words :—

Ashore, awake, afar, ahungred, afternoon, alone, atone, befriend, behind, befall, besnear, besides, endure, empower, forgive, forbid, foresight, gainsay, mislead, neither, offshoot, income, onlooker, outbid, overhang, to-day, unclean, untie, unto, underground, uplift, withhold.

ENGLISH SUFFIXES.

NOUN SUFFIXES.

1. Denoting *agent* or *doer*.

- ar, *beggar, liar*.
 -ard, *coward, drunkard, sluggard, wizard*.
 -art, *braggart*.
 -eer, *auctioneer, mutineer*.
 -er, *baker, builder, rider, weaver*.
 -ier, *cashier, clothier, courtier*.
 -or, *sailor, tailor*.
 -ster, *songster, spinster, youngster, gamester*.
 -yer, *lawyer, sawyer*.

2. Denoting *state* or *being*.

- age, *anchorage, bondage, homage, herbage*.
 -dom, *kingdom, freedom, serfdom, earldom*.
 -hood, *childhood, brotherhood, knighthood*.

- ing, *reading, writing, blessing.*
- ness, *darkness, whiteness, goodness.*
- red, *hatred, kindred.*
- ric, *dominion ; bishopric.*
- ry, *finery, peasantry, Jewry.*
- ship, *friendship, hardship, lordship, fellowship.*
- t, *gift, cleft, draught.*
- ter, *laughter, slaughter.*
- th, *growth, health, length, truth.*
- y, *beggary, slavery.*

3. Denoting *smallness* or *diminution*.

- el, *satchel.*
- en, *chicken, kitten, maiden.*
- et, *floweret, lancet, violet, pocket.*
- ie, *doggie, lassie, laddie.*
- kin, *lambkin, manikin, napkin, pipkin.*
- let, *booklet, leaflet, streamlet.*
- ling, *duckling, gosling, darling, foundling.*
- ock, *bullock, hillock.*
- y, *daddy, deary, baby, Johnny.*

ADJECTIVE SUFFIXES.

-ed (added to nouns, like *ed* in the Past Participle of Verbs),
booted, gifted, feathered, scented, coloured, rooted.

-en, *made of ; earthen, golden, leaden, silken, wooden.* Golden hair means only hair of the colour of gold. We say a *gold* chain for one made of gold.

-ern, *region, quarter ; eastern, northern, southern, &c.*

-fold, *denoting multiplication ; twofold, manifold.*

-ful, *full ; fruitful, hopeful, truthful, deceitful.*

-ish, (1) added to Nouns, changes them into Adjectives ; *boyish, childish, foolish, slavish.*

(2) added to Adjectives, weakens their force ; *blackish, whitish, sweetish.*

(3) denoting nationality ; *British, English, Spanish, Turkish.*

-less, *wanting ; heedless, houseless, lawless, senseless.*

-ly, *like ; kingly, manly, heavenly, cleanly.*

-some, *partaking of a certain quality ; troublesome, handsome, gladsome, wholesome, meddlesome.*

-teen, *ten ; thirteen, fourteen.*

-ty, *tens : twenty, fifty, &c.*

-ward, *direction ; homeward, landward, toward.*

-y, *of the nature of, when added to Nouns ; hairy, rocky, healthy, wealthy.*

VERB SUFFIXES.

- en, to make ; darken, thicken, lengthen, strengthen.
 - er, frequentative ; chatter, patter (pat), batter (beat), flutter (flit), glimmer (gleam).
 - le, frequentative¹ ; dabble, prattle, handle, sparkle.
- After Adjectives -er is causative ; linger (long), lower, hinder.
- k, frequentative ; hark (hear), talk (tell).
 - se, to make ; cleanse, rinse.
 - y, to make ; sully, worry.

ADVERBIAL SUFFIXES.

- ere, place where ; here, there, where.
- es, -se, -ce, -s (sign of the Possessive), unawares, sometimes, besides, else, hence, thence, needs, sideways, lengthways.
- ly, like ; badly, goodly, purely, sweetly.
- ling, -long, direction ; darkling, headlong, sidelong.
- om (Old English dative termination) ; seldom, whilom.
- ther, direction towards ; hither, thither.
- ward, -wards, direction ; homeward, downwards, inwards.
- wise, -way, -ways ; anyway, otherwise, straightway, always.

EXERCISES.

What are the three principal classes of *Noun* suffixes ? Give examples of each class. Name some of the *Adjective* suffixes. What are the three meanings of the suffix -ish ? Name some of the *Verbal* suffixes. Name some of the *Adverbial* suffixes.

Give the meanings of the **Suffixes** in the following words :—

Braggart, lambkin, bishopric, bullock, thirteen, fruitful, whole-some, floweret, hither, kingly, darkness, there, fifty, builder, drunkard, earthen, duckling, beggary, hatred, homeward, badly, lengthways, chicken, growth, auctioneer, lawyer, laughter, childhood, freedom, gift, headless.

Let the pupils question each other on the meanings of *Suffixes* to different parts of speech.

FORMATION OF DERIVATIVES.

NOUN DERIVATIVES.

1. **Nouns** are derived from other **Nouns**.

By means of **Prefixes** :—

After—aftercrop, afternoon, afterpiece.

By—bylaw, byroad, bytander.

¹ Denoting doing a thing often.

Fore—foreman, forenoon, forerunner.

In—income, inroad, insight.

Mis—mistake, misdeed, mishap.

Out—outhouse, outlaw, outlook.

Up—upland, upshot, upstart.

Most words of this class come under the head of Compound Nouns. See page 186.

By means of **Suffixes** :—

- (1.) Those denoting the *agent* or *doer* :

Beggar, drunkard, auctioneer, gardener, courtier, tailor, songster, lawyer.

- (2.) Those denoting *state* or *being* :

Anchorage, childhood, reading, peasantry, friendship, beggary.

- (3.) *Diminutives* :

Satchel, chicken, floweret, lambkin, booklet, duckling, hillock, lassie, doggie.

2. Nouns are derived from Adjectives.

By means of **Suffixes** :—

Youngster, drunkard, freedom, darkness, goodness, falsehood, finery, truth, strength, warmth.

3. Nouns are derived from Verbs.

By means of **Suffixes** :—

- (1.) Those denoting the *agent* or *doer* :

Beggar, speaker, braggart, sailor, spinster.

- (2.) Those denoting *state* or *being* :

Hatred, laughter, flight (fly), death (die), deed (do), health (heal).

ADJECTIVE DERIVATIVES.

1. Adjectives are derived from Nouns.

By means of **Suffixes** :—

Ragged, earthen, fruitful, foolish, childish, leathern, houseless, lawless, kingly, warlike, seaward, healthy, stormy.

2. Adjectives are derived from other Adjectives.

- (1.) By means of **Prefixes** :—

Unclean, unkind, untrue.

- (2.) By means of **Suffixes** :—

Greenish, weakly, gladsome, wearisome, tenfold, sixteen, sixty.

3. Adjectives are derived from Verbs.

By means of **Suffixes** :—

Painted, married, trodden, stolen, roaring, blazing, shining.

EXERCISES.

From what parts of speech are *Nouns* derived? From what parts of speech are *Adjectives* derived?

Form Nouns from the following words:—

Look, road, speak, warm, brag, sail, law, child, flower, crop, fight, court, beg, friend, spin, laugh, heal.

Form Adjectives from the following words:—

War, glad, green, paint, leather, health, stone, king, sea, clean, weak, black, ten, six, roar, earth, rag.

VERB DERIVATIVES.

1. Verbs are derived from **Nouns**.

(1.) By means of **Prefixes**:—

Bedew, befriend, encircle, encompass, empower. unheard, unroof.

(2.) By means of **Suffixes**:—

Sparkle, lengthen, strengthen.

2. Verbs are derived from **Adjectives**.

(1.) By means of **Prefixes**:—

Bedim, embitter.

(2.) By means of **Suffixes**:—

Shorten, sweeten, soften, lower, cleanse.

3. Verbs are formed from other **Verbs**.

By means of **Prefixes**:—

Await, besmear, forbid, forget, mislead, foretell, unfold, outlive, uphold, withhold.

ADVERB DERIVATIVES.

Adverbs can be formed from many **Adjectives** by adding *ly*; as, free, *freely*, bold, *boldly*, bitter, *bitterly*, first, *firstly*, merry, *merrily*, pretty, *prettily*.

Some **Adverbs** are formed from **Nouns**; as, afoot, ashore, aside.

Adverbs are formed from **Participles** by adding *ly*; as, knowingly, willingly.

Some are derived from **Prepositions**; as, upward, downwards, within.

COMBINATION OF METHODS.

Many words owe their origin to a combination of *two or more* of the above methods of forming **Nouns**, **Adjectives**, &c.; as, *untruthfulness*, *unenlightened*.

INFLUENCE OF ACCENT.

Sometimes a difference in the Accent makes the difference between a Noun and a Verb :

NOUN.	VERB.
Ab'sent	absent'
Ac'cent	accent'
Con'duct	conduct'
In'cense	incense'
Pre'fix	prefix'
Tor'ment	torment'

Many words may be used as Nouns or as Verbs according to the meaning ; a heavy *blow* ; *blow*, ye winds.

EXERCISES.

From what parts of Speech are *Verbs* derived ? From what parts of Speech are *Adverbs* derived ?

Form Verbs from the following words :—

Length, friend, hand, dim, get, hold, short, bitter, circle, power, sweet, clean, low.

Form Adverbs from the following words :—

Kind, warm, up, shore, true, false, hour, late, scarce, whole, some, after, on, second.

What Combination of Methods is sometimes employed ? What effect has *accent* sometimes ? Give examples. How may many words be used ?

COMMON MISTAKES

OF

YOUNG INDIAN STUDENTS.

NOUNS.

Mistakes.

Buy some vegetable.
 My circumstance is very bad.
 He gave deal of troubles.
 The furnitures were sold yesterday.
 That house's roof leaks.
 Jeypore's streets are broad.
 I saw him to-day morning.
 Dine with me this day evening.
 Walk at morning time.

Corrections.

Buy some vegetables.
 My circumstances are very bad.
 He gave a deal of trouble.
 The furniture was sold yesterday.
 The roof of that house leaks.
 The streets of Jeypore are broad.
 I saw him this morning.
 Dine with me this evening.
 Walk in the morning.

ADJECTIVES.

I have no any money.
 Govind is tall than Krishna.
 It is a happiest world after all.
 He was a good player than his companions.
 This stick is longer of that stick.
 Iron is the useful metal than all.

I have no money.
 Govind is taller than Krishna.
 It is a very happy world after all.
 He was a better player than his companions.
 This stick is longer than the stick.
 Iron is the most useful metal.

Articles.

He understands the grammar.
 Jumna has overflowed.
 He had got large army.
 Andamans are in Bay of Bengal.

The Ceylon is one beautiful island.
 The storks eat the frogs.
 He stayed few days.
 The envy is cruel.
 He is a best boy in the school.
 Govind is the good scholar.
 They are hundred times more better.

He understands grammar.
 The Jumna has overflowed.
 He had got a large army.
 The Andamans are in the Bay of Bengal.

Ceylon is a beautiful island.
 Storks eat frogs.
 He stayed a few days.
 Envy is cruel.
 He is the best boy in the school.
 Govind is a good scholar.
 They are a hundred times better.

PRONOUNS.

Yours obedient servant.
 I and he are going.
 This paper is for me and you.
 The peon is waiting: shall I call?
 Here is a pen: may I take?
 As soon as I came, he told to go.

They surrounded the city on every sides.

Your obedient servant.
 He and I are going.
 This paper is for you and me.
 The peon is waiting: shall I call him?
 Here is a pen: may I take it?
 As soon as I came, he told me to go.
 They surrounded the city on every side.

VERBS.

I have arrived here this morning.
 I have bathed yesterday.
 I had come to Madras last week.
 I am ill for one week.
 I did not write it yet.
 I have seen him last week, but I did not see him since.

I arrived here this morning.
 I bathed yesterday.
 I came to Madras last week.
 I have been ill for a week.
 I have not written it yet.
 I saw him last week, but I have not seen him since.

I have passed the examination in December.	I passed the examination in December.
I hope you to return safely.	I hope you will return safely.
I fear I will not be able to do it.	I fear I shall not be able to do it.
I think I will succeed.	I think I shall succeed.
I thought he will die.	I thought he would die.
He promised that he will come now.	He promised that he would come now.
I done finish my exercise.	I have finished my exercise.
One week there is no rain.	For a week there has been no rain.
He was failed last examination.	He failed last examination.
He told I will come to-morrow.	He said that he would come to-morrow.
I said him to go with you.	I told him to go with you.
When the work was over?	When was the work over?
Why you bring it?	Why do you bring it?
Why you brought it?	Why did you bring it?
What they are doing?	What are they doing?
They complain, is it not?	They complain; do they not?
How to do this?	How am I to do this?
How I can come?	How can I come?
Why you wrote a letter to him?	Why did you write a letter to him?

ADVERBS.

It is three days since I am here.	I have been here for three days.
Govind is sick since four days.	Govind has been ill four days.
My brother went to England since a year.	My brother went to England a year ago.
It was too cold yesterday.	It was very cold yesterday.
Govind is too much lazy.	Govind is very lazy.

PREPOSITIONS, ETC.

Put your slate over the table.	Put your slate on the table.
Come after a month.	Come in a month.
The soldier fell down his horse.	The soldier fell from his horse.
I am tired with him.	I am tired of him.
He was angry upon her.	He was angry with her.
I did not meet him for a long time.	I have not met him for a long time.
The boys will not obey to me.	The boys will not obey me.
I will inform to your parents.	I will inform your parents.
He cannot give answer for him.	He cannot answer him.
He will leave on to-morrow.	I will leave to-morrow.
I am ill by fever since a week.	I have been ill of fever for a week.
From a long time we had not met.	For a long time we have not met.
Govind is not clever as Krishna.	Govind is not so clever as Krishna.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

(SELECTED CHIEFLY FROM UNIVERSITY PAPERS.)

What are the chief imperfections of the English Alphabet?

What is the difference between a *thing* and a *noun*?—between *sex* and *gender*?

How is the Feminine distinguished from the Masculine in English?

Give the Masculine of *spinster*, *filly*, and *belle*; also the Feminine of *uncle*, *sloven*, and *stag*.

Give three examples of Feminines formed from the Masculines by a change of termination.

Account for the introduction of "s" as the uniform plural of Nouns.

Give examples of Nouns which have two plurals; of Nouns which are of the same form in both numbers; of Nouns having no singular; and of Nouns having no plural.

Are the following Nouns plural or singular: *Pease*, *deer*, *phenomena*, *chicken*, *news*, *summons*, *means*?Give two plurals, with meanings, of *die*; two meanings of the singular of *letters*; two meanings of the plural of *custom*. Distinguish between *grain* and *grains*.Give the more ancient and more recent forms of the plural of the following Nouns:—*Sow*, *cow*, *brother*.Account for the use of the Apostrophe in the Possessive Case. What Nouns add the apostrophe without the *s*?

How do the Dative and the Accusative differ?

Explain the terms *Nominative Absolute* and *Cognate Accusative*.

How do English and the Indian Vernaculars differ in forming the Cases of Nouns?

Name the different classes of *Adjectives*, giving examples.Define the terms *Comparative* and *Superlative*.

How are Comparatives and Superlatives formed?

Define Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive Numerals.

Explain the original meaning of the Articles.

Distinguish between (a) I met a man, I met one man; (b) He spoke little, he spoke a little; (c) Valmiki was a Homer, Valmiki was the Homer of India; (d) A virtue, the virtue, virtue.

What are *Pronouns*? How are they classed?

For what are Pronouns inflected in English? Decline all that can be declined.

Give some account of the Pronoun "it" used in such expressions as, "It was calm," "It thunders."

When should *mine* be used rather than *my*?Give examples of *Reflexive Pronouns*, and explain how they are used.

Define *Relative, Antecedent, Interrogative.*

Give the different usages of *who, which, that, what.*

Explain the terms *Verb, Transitive, Intransitive, Copula Verb.*

Select five Verbs that can be used both Transitive and Intransitively, and use them so.

Give four examples of Transitive Verbs formed from Intransitive by a change of vowel.

Explain the terms *Voice, Active, Passive.*

What is *Mood*? Define the Moods.

Explain the forms, "I like *reading*;" "I like *to read*;" "I *came to read*."

What is *Tense*? Distinguish between the *Present Infinitive* and the *Present Progressive*. What is the principal use of each?

When should the *Present Perfect* be used? When the *Past Infinitive*? Give examples of the correct use of each.

Explain the use of the *Past Perfect*.

Define the terms *Conjugation, Auxiliary Verb, Impersonal Verb.*

Explain and illustrate the *Emphatic, Interrogative, and Negative* forms of Verbs.

Mention four *Causative* Verbs formed from Intransitive Verbs.

Explain the difference between *Regular* and *Irregular* Verbs, *Strong* and *Weak* Verbs.

How are *shall* and *will* employed?

Classify the Irregular Verbs according to their forms.

Give five examples of each of the following: (1) Of Verbs having only *one form* for the present tense, the past tense, and the perfect participle; (2) of Verbs having *two* distinct forms for the same; (3) of Verbs having *three* distinct forms for the same. Also prefix the letter *a* to the *weak* form, and *b* to the *strong*.

Mention five Verbs that in the past tense and perfect participle both undergo a change of vowel, and add *d* or *t*; also three that are used both as Principal and Auxiliary Verbs.

Give the past tense and the perfect participle of the following Verbs:—Awake, arise, bear, begin, climb, draw, drink, flee, fly, hang, read, say, set, seat, sit, speak, swear, tear, work.

Conjugate the Verbs *lie* and *lay*, and give short sentences illustrative of their uses.

How are participles in *-ing* distinguished from Infinitives in *-ing*? What is meant by Gerundial Infinitive, and what are the peculiarities of its government?

Give the Infinitive of each of the following—*drove, smit, wrought, lit, rung, chose, rent, left*.

Give the more ancient and more recent forms of the past tense of the following Verbs:—*Kneel, work, gird, leap, owe*. Give the difference in meaning at the present day of the two forms in the case of the word last mentioned.

Distinguish between Participial Adjectives and true Participles, exemplifying your answer by short sentences introducing both usages of the words *dying*, *striking*, *moving*.

Form three sentences to show the use of the word *too*.

What Prepositions do the following require after them? Illustrate by sentences:—*Abound*, *concur*, *dwell*, *furnish*, *enter*, *fit*, *rob*.

Add appropriate Prepositions to the following words:—*Surrender*, *accuse*, *conquered*, *encroach*, *rise*, *prevailed*, *select*. Make sentences to illustrate the use of each phrase thus formed.

Give the Prepositions which should come after the following words, specifying their application in different senses and to different objects:—*Confide*, *different*, *confer*, *communicate*, *apply*, *correspond*.

Show by examples the correct use of the Prepositions *in*, *into*, *at*, *to*.

Exemplify the correct use of *either—or*, *though—yet*, *as—as*, *so—as*.

Classify Prepositions and Conjunctions.

Some words are used both as Adjectives and Adverbs; others both as Conjunctions and Prepositions. Take three from each of these classes, and illustrate the words you name by examples.

Which of the Parts of Speech are in English capable of being inflected to mark (a) number, (b) gender, (c) case, (d) tense, (e) degree of comparison, respectively?

Give examples of: A Noun in apposition; the nominative absolute; an infinitive mood as a subject of a sentence; part of a sentence as the antecedent to a relative; a Passive Verb followed by an objective case; an Intransitive Verb followed by an objective case of kindred meaning.

Exemplify the use of the word “still” as a Verb, as a Noun, as an Adjective, and as an Adverb.

Exemplify the use of “since” as an Adjective, a Preposition, and a Conjunction.

Define the terms Subject and Predicate.

Explain the terms Simple, Complex, and Compound as applied to Sentences.

Of what parts of speech may the subject of a sentence consist? Give examples.

Write a sentence in which the subject is qualified by a participial phrase, and a predicate extended by an adverbial phrase.

How many kinds of subordinate sentences are there? How may nominatives absolute and gerundial infinitives be analysed?

Analyse the following sentence:—Had he been blessed with more imagination, wit, and fertility of thought than he appears to have had, he would still have been subject to one great disad-

vantage, which would, in all probability, have ever prevented him from taking a high place among men of letters.

How are other words chiefly formed from roots?

Explain *Prefixes* and *Suffixes*.

What are *Derivatives*? Into what two classes are they divided? How do they differ?

How are *Compound Nouns* formed?

How are *Primary Derivatives* formed?

Mention the principal English *Prefixes*.

What English *Suffixes* denote the *agent* or *doer*?

Name the principal *Verbal Suffixes*.

How are *Derivative Nouns* formed?

By means of what *Suffixes* are *Nouns* derived from *Adjectives*?

Show the force of each of the *Prefixes* and *Suffixes* in italics: aboard, atheist, only, greenish, chicken, to-day, untie, bypath.

Give the force of *en* in wooden, whiten, woven, oxen, vixen.

What *Verbal Suffixes* imply the notion of *making*? Give two examples of each.

To form diminutives what *Suffixes* are added to words of Saxon origin?

What influence has *accent* sometimes upon words?

