three chapters on *the Rules*, embracing remarks, critical, comprehensive, and capable of solving all difficulties likely to occur.

6. *Part III.* embraces a list of *Idioms* and *Difficult Phrases*, which have been collated with great care. These, in some instances, are repetitions of difficulties solved under the Rules, but here brought into review that they may be easily found, be more fully explained, and be made familiar.

7. The *Reviews* at the close of each chapter or subdivision, are deemed to be of great importance, and should be practised by the learner till he is perfectly familiar with what he has committed to memory.

8. The whole method of parsing is *analytic*, rather than *synthetic*, but truly philosophic and inductive. As soon as the pupil has learned the definition of the *noun*, he may profitably be put to selecting the *nouns* of sentences in his Grammar, in his Reader, or in any other book — or to designating this *class of words* in the names of things around him. So with the *verb*, the nature of which he will arrive at by induction before he arrives at the division which treats of it in his Grammar. The *noun* and *verb*, *two words* which form the *basis* of language, will then stand out to his view *in bold relief*, occupying always their proper and leading places in the construction of sentences. He will then be led to see the need, the use, and the proper office, of other words to aid in the expression of every variety, and every shade of thought.

9. *Repetition* should be required till all which belongs to the *memory* is made perfectly familiar. Some memories are rapid in the process of acquisition — others are more retentive. Both equally need *repetition* — these, to *acquire;* those, to *retain*, knowledge. *Reasoning on principles* is a higher exercise of the intellect than *memory*. The former should be superinduced, and gradually brought into exercise on those elements of knowledge which the

ENGLISH GRAMMAR:

A SIMPLE, CONCISE, AND COMPREHENSIVE

MANUAL

OF

The English Language.

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS, ACADEMIES, AND AS A BOOK FOR GENERAL REFERENCE IN THE LANGUAGE.

IN FOUR PARTS.

BY REV. R. W. BAILEY, A.M.

TENTH EDITION.

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PREFACE.

THE "hundred and one" English Grammars now in use have not diminished the demand among Teachers for a *new Grammar*. This demand has induced the Author to offer the following work, which has grown under his hand in an experience of more than thirty years in the education of English youth. Whether this is the *right thing*, the Author assumes not, except for himself, to decide. Time and opportunity, which "overthrow the *illusions of opinion*, establish the *decisions of nature*." Sensible that his Grammar will stand or fall by this test, the Author dismisses it, on probation, to the Publishers and the Public. To those who may use it, the following considerations are earnestly addressed: —

1. The classification of the *Parts of Speech*, in the following treatise, is *Tripartite:* embracing, 1. The *Subject-Noun;* 2. The *Verb;* 3. The *Particles*.

2. This classification is preserved through Part I. and Part II. It simplifies the subject to the mind of the learner. It magnifies the two leading parts of speech, the *noun* and the *verb*, attaching to these the other parts of speech and the adjuncts, as *subsidiary* or *connective*.

3. The *Rules* are arranged under a similar division — 1. The *Noun;* 2. The *Verb;* 3. The *Particles.* With a *Table of Contents* prefixed, the learner is able to find and apply the appropriate rule to each particular case with great readiness.

4. *Part I.* is limited to the *Simple Elements of Grammar,* embracing only general rules, omitting *exceptions* and *complex forms.* The definitions are concise, yet full, and should be *thoroughly committed to memory* once for all. Simple examples are cited for illustration. The pupil should be first exercised in these, without a *critical parsing* of complex and difficult sentences. The *details* of Grammar are numerous and complicated. If these details are *too soon,* or *too variously,* forced on the attention of the young learner, he becomes confused, and with difficulty comes to distinguish the *principles* from the *accidents,* the *philosophy* of *language* from its *conventional forms.* Let *exceptions* and *idioms* be left to a subsequent time. They should be introduced and recognized as belonging to the family, but *secondary* in the plan of its organization. After parsing the examples which are cited, the entire text may be profitably used for *parsing-lessons.* Extended parsing-lessons have been excluded, because they are rarely used by teachers, and because it is believed the common reading-books are best for this purpose. *"McGuffey's Series"* have been used by the author. These books furnish the most appropriate sentences for parsing, from the most simple to the most complex, and of every variety in prose and poetry.

5. *Part II.,* which is *subjectively* the same as Part I., and elaborated in the same order of arrangement, should next occupy the particular attention of the pupil. Everything committed to memory in the First Part, will be found here repeated — if repeated at all — in the *same words,* so that no confusion may occur. Attention is particularly cited to the chapter on *Language,* to that part of the second chapter which treats of *Modes and Tenses,* and to the

three chapters on *the Rules*, embracing remarks, critical, comprehensive, and capable of solving all difficulties likely to occur.

6. *Part III.* embraces a list of *Idioms* and *Difficult Phrases*, which have been collated with great care. These, in some instances, are repetitions of difficulties solved under the Rules, but here brought into review that they may be easily found, be more fully explained, and be made familiar.

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memory has treasured. Observation, early awakened, introduces the incipient exercise of reason. Attention should be directed, and distinctions made the subject of observation cotemporaneously with the earliest capabilities of the mind. A leading office of the teacher is to awaken the mind of the pupil and keep it awake. Unless he does this, he does nothing.

10. The learner is referred, for constant use, to the copious *Table of Contents*, at the beginning of the book, and at the beginning of each separate part and each important division, to enable him to find readily any thing for which he may be seeking. An *Alphabetical Index*, as a reference-table, will be found at the close of the volume.

The *Table of Contents* refers to *sections*.

The *Index* refers to the *pages* where the subjects are treated

11. *Part III.* embraces also Rules to aid the beginner in *Composition:* the Rules of *Punctuation* — with brief, but comprehensive, suggestions for forming a good style of writing, with a ready command of language — a list of *Obsolete terms* still retained in our translation of the Scriptures, and a list of the most important works for study or reference in this important department of learning.

12. *Part IV.* comprehends a treatise on *Prosody* and on *Orthography*. No teacher should dismiss an English student without a knowledge of the Rules of *Prosody* — and also the Rules of *Orthography*, so far as these have been omitted in their regular order in the Spelling-book.

13. We have sought to aggregate, and classify in a perspicuous form, *whatever a Grammar should contain.*

First,—Everything necessary to teach the Grammatical structure of the Language.

Secondly, — A classification, simple and natural, with the *essential principles* so separated and stated that they may not be confounded with the less important details.

Thirdly, — The arrangements and references are such that the learner may easily find what he wants.

Hence *this Grammar should be all studied*, — every part of it, *closely, fully, accurately*. The student is never a good Grammarian till he *understands his Grammar*, and no Grammar is suited to its object unless it embraces the *principles of the science*, clearly expressed, and a *solution of all the difficulties of interpretation in minute detail*. It is then a Grammar for the child and for the philosopher; — both must have the same.

14. Most of the published Grammars and Treatises on the English Language have been consulted, and have had their influence, in the construction of this Grammar. Without referring to them by name, the Author has thought it sufficient to give the results of his own judgment, enlightened by all the helps he could reach — all of which he has made a free use of, as common property — none of which has he copied, as a careful examination of this work will plainly show. He has not hesitated to agree with all in some things, and to differ with each in other things.

He has also been influenced by the authority of the proper expounders of the language, and felt controlled by their expositions so far as they have been fully and fairly expressed in the English and American Classics. To save room and simplify the work, he has limited himself to simple examples for illustration, without citing quotations from these authorities. He believes, however, that the principles laid down in this Grammar will be found to accord with *good usage*, so far as standard writers are authorized to prescribe rules.

To THE YOUNG — among whom he has lived even now to old age, and whom he desires to serve so long as such a class shall exist to need a *Manual of English Grammar* —

To TEACHERS — whose arduous labors he desires to encourage and alleviate —

To THE SCHOLARS of the present day — interested in the use, the preservation and transmission of a *pure English* —

THE AUTHOR — now excused from the labors of the School-room — presents this as his literary contribution and valedictory.

R. W. BAILEY.

STAUNTON, *Va.*, 1853.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO LIPPINCOTT, GRAMBO & CO.'S EDITION.

A call for the tenth thousand of the "Manual of English Grammar," within one year from the time of its first publication, has fully endorsed the author's estimate of his own work. The approbation of teachers and scholars, extensively expressed, has inspired the hope that this book may be found to supply the desideratum, long felt, of a practical discussion of the principles of the English language suited to common-school instruction. In this edition will be found a thorough correction of former typographical errors, some slight verbal alterations in several definitions, and a new classification of the irregular verbs. None of these alterations, however, will interfere with the use in classes of the present with former editions.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

SECT. 1. GRAMMAR is the Science of Language. It teaches the art of speaking and writing correctly.

It treats,

I. Of LETTERS—their form, force, and formation into words, called *Orthography*.

II. Of WORDS—their classification, derivation, and modifications, called *Etymology*.

III. Of SENTENCES—the *arrangement*, *agreement*, and *government* of words in a sentence, called *Syntax*.

IV. Of UTTERANCE—especially of the harmony of numbers in *versification*, including measure, quantity, accent, pause, &c., called *Prosody*.

§ 2. ENGLISH GRAMMAR treats of the principles and right construction of the *English Language*.

§ 3. The English scholar has acquired the elements of *Orthography* in the *Spelling-book*. Attention is now to be principally directed to *Etymology* and *Syntax*, comprising the *Grammatical Structure* and *Analysis* of *Language*.

§ 4. The English language comprises 75,000 words.

§ 5. All words may be divided into *three classes*.

1. The *Noun*, or *name* of a particular thing or subject.
2. The *Verb*, which predicates or declares something of the subject or thing.
3. The *Particles*, or words used for connecting the principal words, or for qualifying them, or showing relations between them.

FIRST CLASS OF WORDS.

§ 6. The *Noun* includes the *Adjective*, the *Article*, and the *Pronoun*.

1. The *Noun*, sometimes called the *Substantive*, is the *name* of any thing which can be made the subject of discourse. As, *Man*, *house*, *justice*, *virtue*. § 10—15, 159—166, 254—267.

2. The *Adjective* is that *part of the noun* which qualifies the simple *name*, or helps to describe it, and it is therefore called the *Adjective-noun*. As, A *good* man; the *grey* horse; *exact* justice. § 16—18, 167—8, 268.

The *Article* is that form of the *adjective* which is used to designate some particular person, place, or thing. As, *A* man; *the* man; *a* vice; *the* vice. § 18, 268, obs. 10.

3. The *Pronoun* is a form of the *noun* used to avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word. As, A man should pray, while *he* lives. § 19—32, 169—173, 259—261.

SECOND CLASS OF WORDS.

§ 7. The *Verb* is a word used to *assert* or *express* something of the *noun* or subject. As, A man *walks*. § 33—86, 174—219, 269, 70.

The *Predicate* is that form of the verb which employs two or more words in assertion. As, John *is studious;* John *is studying;* John *is a student.* § 206.

The *Participle* is a part of the verb, and takes its name from its participating the properties of a verb and an adjective. As, John is *studying.* § 208, 9.

THIRD CLASS OF WORDS.

§ 8. There are four *Particles* — the *Adverb*, *Preposition*, *Conjunction*, and *Interjection*.

The *Adverb* is a word used to qualify *verbs*, *adjectives*, and other *adverbs*. As, John walks *rapidly* — *very* rapidly; he is *very* nimble. § 87—92, 218—28, 271.

The *Preposition* is placed before a noun, which it governs, and shows a relation between it and some other word. As, Live *in* charity *with* all men. § 93—99, 229, 272.

The *Conjunction* is used to connect words and sentences together. As, Men *and* women die, *but* the soul lives. § 100, 230—236, 273.

The *Interjection* is an *exclamation*, expressing passion or emotion. As, Oh! ah! alas! § 101, 237, 274.

§ 9. There are, then, commonly reckoned *eight parts of speech*, viz.: —

First Class — *Noun*, *Adjective*, *Pronoun*.

Second Class — The *Verb*, with its compounds.

Third Class — *Adverb*, *Preposition*, *Conjunction*, *Interjection*.

Three of these — the *Noun*, *Pronoun*, and *Verb* are declined. The others are undeclined.

CHAPTER II.

FIRST CLASS OF WORDS.

Of the Noun.

§ 10. Nouns are varied by *Person*, *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

Person. § 162.

§ 11. There are three Persons of nouns.

The *First Person* denotes the person *speaking*. As, *I*, *John*, love.

The *Second Person* denotes the person *spoken to*. As, I love *you*.

The *Third Person* denotes the person *spoken of*. As, I love *my brother*.

Number. § 163—4.

§ 12. Nouns have two Numbers — *Singular* and *Plural*. As, *Horse*, *horses*.

Nouns denoting *one* are said to be in the *singular* number Those denoting *more than one* are in the *plural* number. As, *Horse*, *horses*; *house*, *houses*.

The *Plural Number* is usually formed by adding *s*, or *es*, to the singular. As, *Book*, *books*; *fox*, *foxes*; *dish*, *dishes*.

Gender. § 165.

§ 13. The distinction of *sex* is called *Gender*.

There are three distinctions of sex—*Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*.

The names of *males* are called *Masculine*. As, *Man*.

The names of *females* are called *Feminine*. As, *Woman*.

The names of things *without sex* are called *Neuter*. As, *House*, *tree*, &c.

Names that are applied to things which are *either* male or female are called *Common Gender*. As, *Child*, *parent*, *neighbor*.

Inanimate objects, distinguished for masculine qualities, for strength, boldness, energy, are often called *Masculine*. As, The *sun*, *time*, *death*, &c. Those distinguished for feminine qualities, as beauty, gentleness, purity, &c., are spoken of as *Feminine*. As, The *earth*, the *moon*, *ship*, *virtue*, &c.

Case. § 166.

§ 14. Case designates the *condition* of nouns in relation to other words.

Nouns have *three Cases*.

1. The *Nominative Case* — so called when it is the *name* of a subject in relation to the verb. As, *John* loves his book.

2. The *Possessive Case* denotes *possession*. As, *John's* book is *his* companion.

3. The *Objective Case* is the *object* of an action or of a relation. As, John reads his *book* in *school*.

Declension of Nouns.

§ 15. The *Declension of a Noun* is its inflection through its different forms of case.

The *Nominative Case* is the simple name. As, *Man*.

The *Objective Case* is like the nominative in form.

The *Possessive Case* is formed by adding *s*, *with an apostrophe*, to the nominative. As, *Man's destiny*.

DECLENSION OF MAN.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Man.	Men.
Poss.	Man's.	Men's.
Obj.	Man.	Men.

When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophic *s* is not added. As, Eagles' wings.

If the noun ends in *s*, *x*, *z*, or *ce*, and the following word begins with *s*, the apostrophic *s* may be omitted. As, For conscience' sake.

OF THE ADJECTIVE. § 167.

§ 16. *Adjectives* express quality in different degrees, and are varied in form to express *three Degrees of Comparison*—the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

The *Positive* degree is the first degree or simple quality. As, *Great*.

The *Comparative* degree increases the positive. As, *Greater*.

The *Superlative* degree increases the comparative. As, *Greatest*.

The degrees of comparison may decrease as well as increase the quality from the positive. As, *Wise, less wise, least wise*.

Rules of Comparison. § 168.

§ 17. The *Comparative* degree is formed by adding *r* or *er* to the *positive;* and the *Superlative* degree is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the *positive*. As,

Fine,	finer,	finest.
Great,	greater,	greatest.
Small,	smaller,	smallest.
Happy,	happier,	happiest.

The *e* is omitted when the word compared ends in *e*. As, *Wide*, *wider*, *widest*; *i* is added in *worth*, or *worthy*, *worthier*, *worthiest*.

Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by adding the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*. As,

Skilful,	*more* skilful,	*most* skilful.
Skilful,	*less* skilful,	*least* skilful.

Some adjectives admit of different forms of comparison. As,

Remote,	remoter,	remotest.
Remote,	more remote,	most remote.
Tender,	tenderer,	tenderest.
Tender,	more tender,	most tender.

Some adjectives are *irregularly* compared. As,

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

Some adjectives have *no positive*. As,

Nether,	nethermost.
Upper,	uppermost.
Inner,	innermost or inmost.

Some adjectives have *no comparative*. As,

Hind,	hindmost or hindermost.
Top,	topmost.

Some adjectives do not admit of degrees of comparison. As, *Round, square*, &c. Such adjectives express a quality which admits of no degrees.

The adjective *perfect* is used in degrees. As,

Perfect, *more* perfect, *most* perfect.

Various shades of degree are also expressed by other words. As, *Rather, somewhat, slightly, a little so, too, very, greatly, highly, exceedingly*, &c.

Degree of quality is sometimes expressed by the suffix *ish*. As, *White, whitish; black, blackish.*

§ 18. The *Article* is that form of the *adjective* which is used to designate some person, place, or thing, either definitely or indefinitely.

There are two Articles — *a* and *the.*

The is called the *Definite* article, because it defines or points out some particular thing. As, *The* man; *the* nation— meaning some *particular* man or nation.

A is called the *Indefinite* article, because it is used in a general and unlimited manner in relation to the thing it designates. As, *A* man; *a* nation — meaning *any* man or nation.

A becomes *an* before a vowel or silent *h*. As, *An* acorn; *an* hour.

When the indefinite article is followed by a vowel which is sounded by *y* or *w*, the *n* is not added. As, A *union;* a *eulogy.*

Of the Pronoun. § 169—173.

§ 19. *Pronouns* are divided into four classes, viz.—*Personal, Relative, Interrogative*, and *Adjective.*

Personal Pronouns are so called, because they relate to

persons. But the third person singular *neuter*, and the third person plural, apply either to *persons* or *things*.

The *Personal Pronouns* are *I, thou, he, she, it*, with their plurals, *we, ye*, or *you*, and *they*. These are strictly *substantive nouns*.

§ 20. *Declension of Personal Pronouns.*

FIRST PERSON.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	I.	We.
Poss.	My or mine.	Our or ours.
Obj.	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Thou.	Ye or you.
Poss.	Thy or thine.	Your or yours.
Obj.	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSON.

	Masculine.		*Feminine.*	
	Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	He.	They.	She.	They.
Poss.	His.	Their or theirs.	Her or hers.	Their or theirs.
Obj.	Him.	Them.	Her.	Them.

Neuter.

Singular.	*Plural.*
It.	They.
Its.	Their or theirs.
It.	Them.

§ 21. The possessive forms *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, are used in the *place of nouns*, and by their peculiar forms, imply the noun. As, The book is *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours*, or *theirs*—i. e., *my, thy, her, our, your*, or *their* book. § 267, *Obs.* 11.

§ 22. *You* is now generally used in the nominative singular for *thou*, except in solemn discourse, and also in the objective singular for *thee*. *Your* is used in the possessive singular for *thy*. *Mine* and *thine* are also used in solemn discourse, before nouns.

§ 23. The compounds *himself*, *herself*, *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, are often used for emphasis, either in the nominative or objective case. As, He *himself*; she *herself*; they *themselves*; me *myself*, &c.

Self, when used alone, is a noun. As, The love of *self* is universal.

Relative Pronouns. § 171.

§ 24. *Relative Pronouns* are so called, because they relate to some noun or subject going before, called the antecedent. The relative also connects the antecedent sentence with the relative sentence. As, We are grateful to *those who* serve us.

The Relative Pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

Who refers to *persons*. As, This is the *man who* served me. *Which* refers to *things* and *animals*. As, These are the *horses* and *carriage which* I used. *That* refers to *persons*, *things*, and *animals*, and is used for *who* or *which*. As, They are the *horses*, *carriage*, and *coachman*, *that* my friend sent me.

Declension of the Relative Pronouns.

	Sing. and Plu.	*Sing. and Plu.*	*Sing. and Plu.*
Nom.	Who,	Which,	That.
Poss.	Whose,	Whose,	Whose.
Obj.	Whom,	Which,	That.

Compound Relative Pronouns.

§ 25. *What* is called a *Compound Relative Pronoun*, because it includes the sense of both the *antecedent* and the *relative*, and is used for *that which* — for *those who* — for *those which*, &c. As, I know *what* is wanted — i. e., *those* persons *who* are wanted; *those* things *which* are wanted; *those* persons and things *that* are wanted: or, in the singular, *that which* is wanted.

The compound pronouns *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, are often used and parsed like *what*. As, *Whoever* sins, must suffer — i. e., *he who* sins, must suffer; *whatever* is, is right; *whichever* outweighs, outvalues.

Whoso, formerly used for *whosoever*, is now obsolete.

Which and *what* are sometimes used as adjectives. As, I am sick, for *which* reason I decline office; for *what* reason do you decline?

Interrogative Pronouns.

§ 26. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when employed in asking questions, are called *Interrogatives*. As, *Who* touched me? *What*, or *which*, do you want?

Whether, formerly used interrogatively for *which*, is now obsolete in this sense.

Adjective Pronouns. § 170.

§ 27. *Adjective Pronouns* have the nature of adjectives when they are used to *qualify* or *limit* the signification of the noun. They are divided into four classes, viz.:—

1. *Distributive* — *Each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.
2. *Demonstrative* — *This*, *that*, *the former*, *latter*, *these*, *those*.

3. *Possessive* — *His, her, its, thy, my, our, your, their, own.*

4. *Indefinite* — *One, other, much, more, most, some, any, all, such, both, several, none, another.*

§ 28. *Few, many, several, no, whole, whatever, whatsoever, whosesoever, whichsoever, whichever,* when attached to a noun, are *Indefinite Adjective Pronouns.* As, Sin, of *whatever* name, will be punished; *whosesoever* sins ye remit, they are remitted; *whichever* sin he practises, conscience condemns him; in no case *whatever* is sin excusable.

§ 29. The indefinite pronoun *other* is declinable, and has the plural form, *others.* In this character, it is strictly a substantive.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom.	Other.	Others.
Poss.	Other's.	Others'.
Obj.	Other.	Others.

§ 30. The indefinite pronoun *one* is declined in the singular, thus:

	Singular.
Nom.	One.
Poss.	One's.
Obj.	One.

§ 31. *Own* is not used as a possessive pronoun, except in combination with other possessives. As, The *boy's own* book; this book is *my own* — *my own* book.

§ 32. *None* is used in the singular or plural, in the sense of *not any.* It cannot be used with a noun, except as the equivalent of *not any* or *not one.* As, Have you children? *None* — i. e., *not any,* or *not one.*

REVIEW

Of Chapters I. and II., including the First Division of the Parts of Speech.

CHAPTER I. *Sec.* 1.—What is Grammar? What general divisions has the science of Grammar? Of what does *Orthography* treat? *Etymology?* *Syntax?* *Prosody?* 2. What does English Grammar teach? 3. Where are the elements of Orthography taught? To what is attention particularly directed in this treatise? 4. How many words are there in the English language? 5. Into how many classes are all words of the language divided? What are they? 6. What does the *first class* include? Define the *Noun.* The *Adjective.* The *Article.* The *Pronoun.* 7. What does the *second class* comprehend? What is the *Verb?* The *Predicate?* The *Participle?* 8. What does the *third class* comprise? Define the *Adverb.* The *Preposition.* The *Conjunction.* The *Interjection.* 9. How many Parts of Speech are there? Name them? How many, and which of these are declined?

CHAPTER II. *Sec.* 10.—How are *Nouns* varied? 11. How many *Persons* have Nouns? Define them. 12. How many *Numbers?* Define them. 13. How many *Genders?* Define them. What Nouns are called *Common* Gender? What class of inanimate things are sometimes called *Masculine* or *Feminine?* 14. What does *Case* in Nouns designate? How many *Cases* have Nouns? Define the Nominative. The Possessive. The Objective. 15. What do you understand by *Declension* in Nouns? What does the *Nominative* Case express? What is the *form* of the *Objective?* Of the *Possessive?* Decline *man; woman; eagles.* When the *plural* ends in *s*, how is the Possessive formed? In what other words may the apostrophic *s* be omitted? 16. What do *Adjectives* express? How many Degrees of Comparison have Adjectives? Name them. The *Positive* degree? The *Comparative?* The *Superlative?* 17. How is the Comparative degree formed? The Superlative? What adjectives are compared by *more* and *most?* What adjectives are irregularly compared? What adjectives have

no Positive? What, no Comparative? What, no Comparison? How is Quality expressed of adjectives in other ways? — 18. What is the Article? How many? Define *the.* Define *a.* When does *a* become *an?* When the indefinite article is followed by a vowel that has the sound of *y* or *w*, what form does the article take? 19. Into how many classes are *Pronouns* divided? Name them. Define *Personal Pronouns.* Name them. 20. Decline the personal pronoun *I.* Decline *thou; he; she; it.* 21. *Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs* — how are they used? 22. How are *you* and *thou* used? *Your* and *thy? Mine* and *thine,* before nouns? 23. How are the compounds *himself, herself, myself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves* used? What is *self?* 24. What are *Relative Pronouns?* What do they connect? Name them. What does *who* refer to? *Which? That?* Decline *who; which; that.* 25. Define *what.* What other compound pronouns are construed like *what?* What is said of *whose?* How are *which* and *what* sometimes used? 26. When are *who, which,* and *what,* interrogative pronouns? What is said of *whether?* 27. What is said of *Adjective Pronouns?* Into how many classes are they divided? Name them? Name the *Distributive. Demonstrative. Possessive. Indefinite.* 28. What other pronouns are sometimes *indefinite?* 29. What is said of *other?* Decline it. 30. *One?* 31. *Own?* 32. *None?*

GENERAL QUESTIONS.

A *Noun* is the *name* of a *thing* or a *subject.* Name the *things* in this *room*—in the *house-yard*—in the *garden*—in the *street.* What *sort* of words are all these *names?* What is the *color* of this *wall?* The *color* is a *quality* of the wall — name other qualities which it possesses. You say it is *white, light, hard, smooth, perpendicular, plastered, four-square, finished, convenient, lighted, whitewashed, clean, neat, handsome.* What *sort of words* are *these* you have just applied to the wall? Are they *Nouns,* or are they only a *part* of *the Noun?* Are they all necessary to define this wall? If you wished to speak of the wall in distinction from other parts of the room, how would you designate it? *Ans. The* wall. Why? If you wished to speak of the *wall* without reference to this or any other particular house, what would you call it? *Ans. A* wall.

What sort of word would this definition employ? *Ans. Indefinite Article.* Why? If you had occasion to refer to the *wall* several times in the same sentence, would you repeat the *name* of the *wall?* Why not? What word would you use instead of it? What sort of a *Pronoun* is *it?* Why would you use *it* rather than *he* or *she?* If you wished to speak of the *wall before* us in distinction from *other* walls, how would you define it? *Ans. This* wall. What sort of word is *this?* You say *this* is a *Demonstrative Adjective Pronoun,*—apply to *wall* a *Distributive Adjective Pronoun,*—a *Possessive,*—an *Indefinite.* Is a *Noun* the name of a *subject* as well as of a *thing?* of an *invisible* as well as a *visible* object? Name some subjects of thought or of conversation which belong to this class of words. Name others, and apply to them qualifying or defining Adjectives and Pronouns.

To Teachers. — The foregoing *Review* should be practised, and the questions varied, until the pupil is made perfectly familiar with this part of the Grammar.

CHAPTER III.

SECOND CLASS OF WORDS.

Of the Verb. § 174—217.

§ 33. The *Verb* is a word which *asserts* or *expresses* something of the *noun* or *nominative case;* as, John *reads.*

The verb is *varied* to conform to its nominative case in *number* and *person.* § 175, 6.

The verb is also varied to express *mode* and *tense,* or *manner* and *time.* § 177—209.

In regard to its *object,* the verb is *Transitive* or *Intransitive.* § 201—2.

The *Transitive* verb, in relation to its object, has an *Active Form* and a *Passive Form* — sometimes called Active and Passive *Voices.* § 203—5.

Conjugation. § 177—196.

§ 34. The *Conjugation* of the verb is its inflection through all the variations of *number, person, mode,* and *tense.*

The *conjugation* is, in its form, *Regular, Irregular,* or *Defective.*

§ 35. *Regular Verbs* form their imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, Pres. *love;* imp. *loved;* perf. part. *loved.* § 183.

§ 36. *Irregular Verbs* do not form their imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the present; as, Pres. *write;* imp. *wrote;* perf. part. *written.* § 217.

§ 37. *Defective Verbs* are those which are used only in some of the *modes* and *tenses.* § 83—86.

§ 38. The *Intransitive Verb* does not admit after it a noun as the *object* of the action; as, John *plays;* we *exist.*

§ 39. The *Transitive Verb* admits after it a noun which is the *object* of the action; as, John *reads Virgil.* §201, 2.

§ 40. The *Transitive Verb* has *two* forms — the *Active Form* and the *Passive Form.* § 203—5.

§ 41. *Active Verbs* represent the *subject* as *active;* as, The *hunter* killed a panther.

§ 42. *Passive Verbs* represent the *subject* as *passive;* as, The hunter was killed by a panther.

Number and Person.

§ 43. *Number* and *Person* refer to the *noun* or *name,* and the verb conforms in *number* and *person* with its *nominative* or *subject;* as,

Sing. Num. John *reads.*
Plu. Num. The boys *read.*

First Pers. I *read.*
Second Pers. Thou *readest.*
Third Pers. He *reads.* § 174–6.

Mode and Tense.

§ 44. *Mode* and *Tense* indicate the *manner* and *time* of the action or event. § 177—197.

The *Mode* or manner of the action is varied in *five* different forms: —

The *Indicative,*
Potential,
Subjunctive,
Imperative,
Infinitive.

§ 45. The *Indicative Mode* simply indicates or declares, as, John *reads*. § 191, 207.

§ 46. The *Potential Mode* expresses *power* or *ability*, *necessity*, *will*, or *obligation;* as, John *can* read; he *may* read; he *must* read; he *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* read. § 192.

§ 47. The *Subjunctive Mode* implies some *doubt* or *condition*, and therefore is always subjoined to a verb of some other mode. It is attended by a conditional particle — *if*, *lest*, *unless*, *though*, *except*, *whether*, *suppose*, *admit*, *grant*, &c.; as, *If* John reads, I *will* attend; *unless* he reads, I *will* go; *lest* John *should* play, I *will* read. § 193.

§ 48. The *Imperative Mode* expresses the imperative or commanding manner. It is also used for *entreating*, *permitting*, *exhorting;* as, *Read*, John; *study* your lesson; *return* to me. § 194.

§ 49. The *Infinitive Mode* expresses an *indefinite* or *general* form, without distinction of number or person, and without a nominative. It is accompanied with the particle *to*, expressed or understood; as, I wish *to read*, *to converse*, or *to sleep*. § 195, 197—8.

Tense. § 196.

§ 50. The verb is varied to express the *Tense* or *time* of the action, as *present*, *past*, or *future*.

The verb has one form for the *Present Tense*.

Three past tenses — *Imperfect Tense*, *Perfect Tense*, *Pluperfect Tense*.

Two future tenses — *First Future Tense*, *Second Future Tense*.

§ 51. The *Present Tense* employs that form of the verb which expresses *present time;* as, John reads.

§ 52. The *Imperfect Tense* expresses past time, but indefinite as to the time past; as, John read, or did read.

§ 53. The *Perfect Tense* expresses past time as now completed; as, John has read.

§ 54. The *Pluperfect Tense* expresses time past and completed at or before another defined past time; as, John had recited before he dined.

§ 55. The *First Future Tense* expresses future time indefinitely; as, John will read.

§ 56. The *Second Future Tense* expresses time as completed before another defined period of time; as, John will have recited before dinner.

Tenses of each Mode.

§ 57. The *Indicative* and *Subjunctive Modes* of expression employ all the six tenses.

§ 58. The *Potential Mode* does not use the future tenses —only the *present* and *three past tenses.*

§ 59. The *Imperative Mode* uses only the *present tense.*

§ 60. The *Infinitive Mode* uses only two tenses, the *present* and the *perfect.*

PARTICIPLES. § 208—9.

§ 61. The *Participle* is a part of the verb, and *participates* the meaning of the verb and the adjective.

§ 62. Verbs have three participles—

The *Present Participle*, ending in *ing;* as, *Loving;*
Perfect Participle; as, *Loved;* and
Compound Perfect Participle; as, *Having loved.*

AUXILIARY VERBS. § 189.

§ 63. Auxiliary or helping verbs are used in forming the modes and tenses of the other verbs. They are, *do*, *be*, *have*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.

§ 64. *Do*, *be*, *have*, and *will*, are also used as *principal verbs*, and have all the variations of mode and tense.

§ 65. *The principal Parts of the Verb.*

These are the parts from which all the other parts of the verb are derived. They are the *Present Tense*, the *Imperfect Tense*, and the *Perfect Participle*, of the *Indicative*.

§ 66. CONJUGATION *of the Regular Verb* LOVE.

By this formula, all regular verbs may be conjugated.

§ 67. To aid younger pupils in committing the following formula to memory, the simplest form is preserved.

It must be carefully observed that—except in solemn discourse, and addresses to the Deity — the form of the second person plural is used in the second person singular: as, You love, second person singular, *for* Thou lovest. The Formula gives only the masculine gender, *he;* yet the feminine, *she*, and the neuter, *it*, belong to the third person of the verb: as, *He, she*, or *it* loves. These facts are to be observed in all the Tenses of each *Mode*, and in the conjugation of all Verbs.

§ 68. In the third person singular, *hath* is often used, in solemn discourse, for *have* and for *has;* as, He hath a devil.

§ 69. The auxiliary *have* is used in the *perfect tense* — *had*, in the *pluperfect* — *shall* or *will*, in the *first future* — and *shall have* or *will have*, in the *second future*.

§70. Principal Parts.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

§71. INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Pers.	I love.	We love.
Second Pers.	Thou lovest.	Ye or you love.
Third Pers.	He loves.	They love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

I loved.	We loved.
Thou lovedst.	Ye or you loved.
He loved.	They loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

I have loved.	We have loved.
Thou hast loved.	Ye or you have loved.
He has loved.	They have loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

I had loved.	We had loved.
Thou hadst loved.	Ye or you had loved.
He had loved.	They had loved.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

I shall love.	We shall or will love.
Thou shalt or wilt love.	Ye or you shall or will love.
He shall or will love.	They shall or will love.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

I shall or will have loved.	We shall or will have loved.
Thou shalt or wilt have loved.	Ye or you shall or will have loved.
He shall or will have loved.	They shall or will have loved.

§72. POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I may, can, or must love.	We may, can, or must love.
Thou mayst, canst, or must love.	Ye or you may, can, or must love.
He may, can, or must love.	They may, can, or must love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

I might, could, would, or should love.	We might, could, would, or should love.
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst love.	Ye or you might, could, would, or should love.
He might, could, would, or should love.	They might, could, would, or should love.

PERFECT TENSE.

I may, can, or must have loved.	We may, can, or must have loved.
Thou mayst, canst, or must have loved.	Ye or you may, can, or must have loved.
He may, can, or must have loved.	They may, can, or must have loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

I might, could, would, or should have loved.	We might, could, would, or should have loved.
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have loved.	Ye or you might, could, would, or should have loved.
He might, could, would, or should have loved.	They might, could, would, or should have loved.

§73. SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

If I love.	If we love.
If thou lovest.	If ye or you love.
If he loves.	If they love.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
If I loved.	If we loved.
If thou lovedst.	If ye or you loved.
If he loved.	If they loved.

PERFECT TENSE.

If I have loved.	If we have loved.
If thou hast loved.	If ye or you have loved.
If he has loved.	If they have loved.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

If I had loved.	If we had loved.
If thou hadst loved.	If ye or you had loved.
If he had loved.	If they had loved.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

If I shall or will love.	If we shall or will love.
If thou shalt or wilt love.	If ye or you shall or will love.
If he shall or will love.	If they shall or will love.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

If I shall or will have loved.	If we shall or will have loved.
If thou shalt or wilt have loved.	If ye or you shall or will have loved.
If he shall or will have loved.	If they shall or will have loved.

In the second and third persons of the present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect, of the subjunctive, some good writers still preserve to the verb the same *form* as in the *first* person. But this form is obsolescent.

§74. IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Love, or love thou, or do thou love.	Love, or love ye or you, or do ye or you love.

The imperative mode is used for *commanding*, *entreating*, *exhorting*, or *permitting*, and therefore is expressed only in the *present tense* and to the *second person*.

§ 75. INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.	PERFECT TENSE.
To love.	To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.	*Perfect.*	*Compound Perfect.*
Loving.	Loved.	Having loved.

§ 76. *Passive Form.*

The verb in the *Passive Form* is conjugated by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its modes and tenses. Thus:—

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect.*
I am loved.	I was loved.	I have been loved.

§ 77. CONJUGATION *of the Irregular Verb* AM.

By this *formula*, any *irregular verb* may be readily conjugated. (See the List of Irregular Verbs, § 217, and the Formation of the Tenses, § 183.)

§ 78. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Am.	Was.	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I am.	We are.
Thou art.	Ye or you are.
He is.	They are.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I was.	We were.
Thou wast.	Ye or you were.
He was.	They were.

PERFECT TENSE.

I have been.	We have been.
Thou hast been.	Ye or you have been.
He has been.	They have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

I had been.	We had been.
Thou hadst been.	Ye or you had been.
He had been.	They had been.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

I shall or will be.	We shall or will be.
Thou shalt or wilt be.	Ye or you shall or will be.
He shall or will be.	They shall or will be.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

I shall or will have been.	We shall or will have been.
Thou shalt or wilt have been.	Ye or you shall or will have been
He shall or will have been.	They shall or will have been.

§79. POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

I may, can, or must be.	We may, can, or must be.
Thou mayst, canst, or must be.	Ye or you may, can, or must be.
He may, can, or must be.	They may, can, or must be.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

I might, could, would, or should be.	We might, could, would, or should be.
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.	Ye or you might, could, would, or should be.
He might, could, would, or should be.	They might, could, would, or should be.

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I may, can, or must have been.	We may, can, or must have been.
Thou mayst, canst, or must have been.	Ye or you may, can, or must have been.
He may, can, or must have been.	They may, can, or must have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

I might, could, would, or should have been.	We might, could, would, or should have been.
Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.	Ye or you might, could, would, or should have been.
He might, could, would, or should have been.	They might, could, would, or should have been.

180. SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

If I am.	If we are.
If thou art.	If ye or you are.
If he is.	If they are.

The subjunctive mode is formed, through all the tenses, by adding the conjunction *if*, or *though*, &c., to the indicative form. The form is now obsolescent, which retains the same form to the verb, through all the persons of each tense; as, If I *be;* if thou *be;* if he *be*, &c.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
If I was.	If we were.
If thou wast.	If ye or you were.
If he was.	If they were.

Second or Hypothetical Form.

If I were.	If we were.
If thou wert.	If ye or you were.
If he were.	If they were.

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
If I have been.	If we have been.
If thou hast been.	If ye or you have been.
If he has been.	If they have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

If I had been.	If we had been.
If thou hadst been.	If ye or you had been.
If he had been.	If they had been.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

If I shall or will be.	If we shall or will be.
If thou shalt or wilt be.	If ye or you shall or will be.
If he shall or will be.	If they shall or will be.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

If I shall or will have been.	If we shall or will have been.
If thou shalt or wilt have been.	If ye or you shall or will have been.
If he shall or will have been.	If they shall or will have been.

§ 81. IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Be, be thou, or do thou be. Be, be ye or you, or do ye or you be.

§ 82. INFINITIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.	PERFECT TENSE.
To be.	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present.	*Perfect.*	*Compound Perfect.*
Being.	Been.	Having been.

§83. Defective Verbs.

Defective verbs are so called, because they are used only in some of their modes and tenses. *Quoth* and *ought* are the most important of this class.

§84. *Quoth* is used only in the third person, in a peculiar form; as, *Quoth he.*

§85. *Ought* is conjugated only in the *present tense, indicative* and *subjunctive.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
I ought.	We ought.
Thou oughtest.	Ye or you ought.
He ought.	They ought.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

If I ought.	If we ought.
If thou oughtest.	If ye or you ought.
If he ought.	If they ought.

§86. *Beware* is also defective in the past *tenses.*

REVIEW.

Of the Second Class of Words — the Verbs.

Chapter III. *Sec.* 33. — What is a Verb? In what relations is the verb named — to its *nominative* — character of the action — its object? What two forms has the *Transitive* verb? 34. What is the Conjugation of a verb? How many kinds of verb in conjugation? 35. What is a Regular verb in conjugation? 36. Irregular? 37. Defective? 38. Intransitive? 39. Transitive? 40. Forms of

the transitive? 41. What are *Active* verbs? 42. What are *Passive* verbs? 43. What do *Number* and *Person* in verbs refer to? 44. What do *Mode* and *Tense* indicate? How many modes are there? Name them. 45. Define the *Indicative* mode. 46. The Potential. 47. Subjunctive. 48. Imperative. 49. Infinitive. 50. What does *Tense* express? How many forms of *Present* tense? Of *Past?* Of *Future?* 51. What does the Present form express? 52. Imperfect? 53. Perfect? 54. Pluperfect? 55. First Future? 56. Second Future? 57. How many tenses are employed in the *indicative* mode? In the subjunctive? 58. Potential? 59. Imperative? 60. Infinitive? 61. What is a Participle? 62. How many participiples have verbs? 63. What are Auxiliary verbs? 64. Which of these are sometimes used as principal verbs? 65. What are the *Principal Parts* of the verb? 66. How can you learn to conjugate all *regular* verbs? 67. What must be carefully observed in the Formula of the regular verb *love?* What is the common form of the second person singular and the second person plural? What is used for the singular in solemn style? What are the three pronouns of the third person? Why are these three pronouns necessary in the *third* person? (*Ans.* To express distinctions of gender.) 68. How is *hath* used? 69. What are the auxiliaries used in the different tenses? 70. Name the *principal parts* of the verb *love.* 71. Conjugate *love* in the *indicative mode.* 72. In the *potential.* 73. In the *subjunctive.* 74. In the *imperative.* 75. In the *infinitive.* Give the *Participles.* 76. How is the *Passive* formed? 77. How can you determine the conjugation of *irregular* verbs? What are the *principal parts* of the verb *am?* 78. Conjugate the *indicative mode.* 79. The *potential.* 80. The *subjunctive.* 81. The *imperative.* 82. The *infinitive.* What are the Participles? 83. What are *Defective* verbs? 84. How is *quoth* used? 85. *Ought?* 86. *Beware?*

CHAPTER IV.

THIRD CLASS OF WORDS:

PARTICLES.

§87. The Particles are the *Adverb*, *Preposition*, *Conjunction*, and *Interjection*.

OF THE ADVERB. § 218—228, 271.

§88. Adverbs belong principally to verbs, but are used to qualify not only *verbs*, but also *adjectives*, and *other adverbs*.

§89. Some adverbs are compared by adding *er* to form the *comparative*, and *est* to form the *superlative*; as,

Soon,	sooner,	soonest.

§90. Most adverbs which end in *ly* are compared by *more* and *most*—*less* and *least*; as,

Wisely,	more wisely,	most wisely.
Wisely,	less wisely,	least wisely.

§91. Some adverbs are irregularly compared; as,

Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.
Badly or ill,	worse,	worst.
Far,	farther,	farthest.
Forth,	further,	furthest.

§92. Adverbs may generally be known by answering to the questions, *how? when? where? how much? how often?* &c.

Of the Preposition. § 229, 272.

§ 93. Prepositions are used to connect words with one another, and show the relation between them.

§ 94. Prepositions show a relation between the words they govern and *nouns*, *verbs*, and *adjectives*.

§ 95. The *Simple Prepositions* are *original* words, belong to a class, and generally refer to place or position. There are *nineteen* of them, viz.: — *At*, *to*, *in*, *by*, *for*, *of*, *with*, *till*, *since*, *from*, *up*, *down*, *round*, *through*, *past*, *on*, *under*, *over*, *after*.

§ 96. The following are compounded by prefixing *a* — *Above*, *about*, *across*, *athwart*, *around*, *along*, *against*, *amid*, *amidst*, *among*, *amongst*.

§ 97. The following are compounded by prefixing *be* — *Below*, *beneath*, *before*, *behind*, *beside*, *besides*, *between*, *betwixt*, *beyond*.

§ 98. The following are compounded of two prepositions, or a preposition and an adverb — *Underneath*, *overthwart*, *toward*, *towards*, *throughout*, *within*, *without*, *unlike*, *unto*.

§ 99. The following are various in form—*Bating*, *during*, *touching*, *concerning*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *excepting*, *except*, *save*, *like*, *off*, *opposite*, *per*, *through*, *via*.

Of the Conjunction. § 230—236, 273.

§ 100. Conjunctions connect words and sentences. The following are conjunctions when they connect words or sentences. There are many others which sometimes become conjunctions by performing the office; and some of those here enumerated become other parts of speech by the sense in which they are used.

Also,	wherefore.	If,	
And,	whether.	Lest,	provided.
Although,	yet.	Or,	then.
As,	both.	Since,	therefore.
Because,	but.	That,	though.
Ere,	either.	Than,	so.
Except,	neither.	Unless,	still.
For,	nor.		

Of the Interjection. § 237, 274.

§ 101. Interjections are words of exclamation, expressing passion or emotion; as, *O, oh, ah, alas, aha, ho, hail, hallo, hum, hurra, lo, pshaw, alack, away,* &c.

§ 102. Interjections are disconnected with other words of the sentence, and usually commence it. They sometimes have a qualifying sense on particular words or phrases, but have no defined government or agreement.

REVIEW.

Of the Particles.

Chapter IV. *Sec.* 87.—Name the Particles. 88. What are *Adverbs?* 89. Are some adverbs *compared?* How? 90. How are adverbs which end in *ly* compared? 91. What adverbs are *irregularly* compared? 92. How may adverbs be known? 93. Define *Prepositions.* 94. Between what words do prepositions show a relation? 95. Name the *nineteen* simple prepositions. 96. Name the *twelve* prepositions formed by prefixing *a.* 97. Name the *nine* that are formed by prefixing *be.* 98. Name *ten* that are compounded of prepositions or adverbs. 99. Name the *sixteen* that are variously formed. 100. What is the office of *Conjunctions?* Are conjunctions often used interchangeably with other words? Enumerate the conjunctions. 101. What are *Interjections?* Enumerate them. Where are they placed? Have they *government,* or *agreement,* or *qualifying sense?*

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

§103. Summary of Rules.

Nominative Case.

Rule I. Noun nominative to verb.
II. Noun nominative after verb.
III. Nouns in apposition.
IV. Nouns independent by address.
V. Nouns independent by participle.
VI. Pronoun relative, nominative to verb.

Objective Case.

VII. Pronoun, relative objective.
VIII. Noun objective of transitive verb.
Noun object after participle.
IX. Two objects after transitive verb.
X. One object retained by passive verb.
XI. Object of preposition.
XII. Nouns objective of *time, place, &c.*

Possessive Case.

XIII. Nouns possessive governed by nouns.

Adjectives.

XIV. Adjectives, pronouns, and participles, agreement of.
The article — agreement.

The Verb.

XV. The verb, agreement with nominative case.
XVI. Verb in infinitive mode.

The Particles.

XVII. Adverbs — their relations.
XVIII. Prepositions.
XIX. Conjunctions.
XX. Interjections.

CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF THE FIRST CLASS OF WORDS.

Nouns Nominative.

RULE I.

§ 104. *A noun*, when the subject of a verb, is in the nominative case, and governs the verb in *number* and *person;* as, I *love;* thou *lovest;* he *loves;* we *love.* § 254.

RULE II.

§ 105. *A noun*, following an intransitive verb, is put in the same case with that before it, when both nouns refer to the same thing; as, John is his name; his name was called John; he became a disciple. § 255.

RULE III.

§ 106. *A noun*, meaning the same thing with another noun, is placed in *apposition* with it in the same case, whether *nominative* or *objective.* As, Cicero, the *Orator*, convicted Cataline, the *Conspirator.* § 256.

RULE IV.

§ 107. *A noun*, the name of a person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent; as, Children, obey your parents; parents, be faithful. § 257.

RULE V.

§ 108. *A noun*, joined with a participle, and disjoined from the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case independent; as, The sermon being ended, the people dispersed. § 258.

RULE VI.

§109. *A Pronoun* relative is nominative case to the verb which it governs, and agrees with the antecedent to which it refers, in *gender*, *number*, and *person;* as, I *who* love; thou who lovest; he who loves. § 259.

NOUNS OBJECTIVE.

RULE VII.

§110. *A Pronoun* relative is governed by the verb, or by some other word, when the rest of the sentence depends on another subject; as, We honor him *whom* God approves; we love those by *whom* we are loved; God approves those *whose* works approve them. § 260—61.

RULE VIII.

§111. *A noun*, the object of a transitive verb or its participle, is in the objective case, and is governed by the verb; as, I love my *father;* he went about doing good. § 262.

RULE IX.

§112. *Two nouns* in the objective case, one of the person, the other of the thing, may follow and be governed by verbs which signify to *ask*, *teach*, *call*, *make*, *pay*, *allow*, *promise*, *constitute*, *cost*, *offer*, &c.; as, He asked me a question; he taught me grammar; he called me John; he made me a scholar; he paid me money, &c. § 263.

RULE X.

§113. *Two nouns*, the objects of a transitive verb, yield one of them as the nominative, when the verb takes the passive form; as, I was asked a question; a question was asked me. § 264.

RULE XI.

§ 114. *A noun* in the objective case is governed by a preposition which shows its relation in the sentence; as, We live in hope of glory. § 265.

RULE XII.

§ 115. *A noun*, signifying *time*, *place*, *distance*, *measure*, *direction*, *value*, &c., may be in the objective case without any word to govern it; as, He lived a century; he went home; he walked a mile; he weighed ninety pounds; he measured six feet; he went his way. § 266.

NOUNS POSSESSIVE.

RULE XIII.

§ 116. *A noun* in the possessive case is governed by the noun which it possesses; as, *John's* book is *his* property. § 267.

ADJECTIVE NOUNS.

RULE XIV.

§ 117. Adjectives, pronouns, and participles, agree in number with the nouns they qualify or describe; as, *This* book; *these* books; *each*, *one*, or *every* book; *two* books; *his* book; *a* book; *the* book or books. § 268.

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

§ 118. The construction of *verbs*, in regard to their *subjects* and *objects*, has already been given, in the preceding *Rules* on the Syntax of *Nouns*. Those rules are applied

by the pupil *in parsing the nouns*, and need not here be repeated. The following come into use in parsing the verb.

RULE XV.

§ 119. The *verb* is made to agree with its *subject* or nominative case, in *number* and *person;* as, I love; thou lovest; he loves. § 269.

RULE XVI.

§ 120. The verb in the *infinitive* mode is governed by the *verb*, *noun*, or *adjective*, that modifies it; as, I *hope* to see you; I expect *you* to come; it is *pleasant* to meet you. § 270.

CHAPTER IV.

Of Particles.

RULE XVII.

§ 121. *Adverbs* qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, Come quickly, very quickly; I am happy, very happy. § 271.

RULE XVIII.

§ 122. A *preposition* governs a noun in the objective case, and shows its relation to other words; as, You live in a fine house of granite. § 272.

RULE XIX.

§ 123. *Conjunctions* connect words and sentences; as, You *and* I shall be rewarded, *if* we do our duty. § 273.

RULE XX.

§ 124. *Interjections* are often independent exclamations, but sometimes qualify, by giving emphasis to words and sentences; as, O, for a lodge; alas! poor Yorick. § 274.

SIMPLE SENTENCES, FOR ANALYSIS.

§125. Let the pupil point out the noun or nominative and the verb.

Birds fly; dogs bark; cats fight; horses run; man thinks; animals breathe; vegetables grow; John reads; James studies; Thomas plays.

Nominative, Verb, and Object.

John reads Virgil; James studies grammar.

Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

John's conduct honors him; he studies his book.

The following stanza contains *all the different parts of speech.* Point them out, and parse them.

O, how stupendous was the power
That raised me with a word!
And every day, and every hour,
I lean upon the Lord.

---

§126. To Teachers. — If teachers will exercise pupils on the short sentences in the preceding collection, and also in the examples which follow, until they are made perfectly familiar to the mind, in connection with the definitions to which these examples are attached, a rapidity of progress will be made far beyond what can be effected by directing the mind to new and more difficult sentences. Let the simple principles of analysis and rules of grammatical construction be first made familiar; all that remains will then be the new or varied application of these rules and principles. Confusion is thereby avoided, and knowledge rendered definite, practical, and permanent.

PART II.

COMPRISING MINUTE AND ACCURATE DETAILS IN

ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, AND ANALYSIS.

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PART II.

CHAPTER I.

Language.

§127. It is now time that the attention of the learner should be cited to some more general views of *Language*, introductory to a critical investigation of its *Etymology* and *Syntax*.

§128. *Thoughts* may be defined to be the *conversation of the mind with itself* on subjects of its cognizance. The *expression* of these thoughts to others is called *Language*.

§129. This expression may be made by signs — *sign language*.

§130. It may be made by the voice in articulate sounds — *vocal language*.

§131. It may be made by written words — *written language*.

§132. It may be made by images, hieroglyphics, paintings, or pictures — *symbolical language*

§133. These signs of ideas, whether by motions visible to the eye, by sounds audible, by written words, or by images, hieroglyphics, and pictures, are *conventional* — understood by common consent to represent what may convey the thoughts or operations of one mind to another mind. — So we come to understand one another.

§134. The proper *use* of language, then, is to express our thoughts — not to conceal them.

§135. Hence a correct *knowledge* of language is necessary to our right understanding of each other, and to mental development — necessary to truth, and to progress in any department of duty. Lord Bacon has said, "Language is often called an *instrument* of thought, but it is also the *nutriment* of thought, a medium essential to the activity of our speculative powers, although invisible and imperceptible in its operation, and an element modifying, by its qualities and changes, the growth and complexion of the faculties which it feeds."

§136. The elements of the English language are *twenty-six letters* of the alphabet. Out of these letters, *words* are formed — out of words, *sentences*, to express thought of every variety.

§137. The *perfection of language* — its perspicuous, rhetorical, effective use, requires a *correct grammatical construction.*

§138. Language has grown out of the *social relations and necessities* of the race. Intercommunication of mind with mind is necessary to these social relations and to progress. To this intercommunication, language is necessary.

§139. Originating in a common necessity, applied to subjects held in common by minds similarly constituted, the *same radical structure* must be retained in every language Hence, *all languages*, in their essential principles, are *alike.*

§140. *General Grammar*, which comprises the laws that belong to *language*, in other words, the laws which govern the operations of the human mind, is an expression of the thoughts by words, written or spoken. *English Grammar* comprises also the peculiar laws which govern the *English*

language in the formation and changes of words, called *Etymology;* and in the arrangement of words into sentences, called *Syntax.*

§ 141. The English Language, having for its staple the Anglo-Saxon of Germany, has been in a course of change and gradual formation for more than a thousand years. The conquest of Britain by the Romans, near the commencement of the Christian era, brought in the *Latin* language. The subsequent conquests by the Saxons, the Angles, and other tribes of Germany, during the *fifth and sixth centuries*, introduced the *Anglo-Saxon* language. In the middle of the *eighth century*, "the venerable Bede," the great historian of his day, found three languages used in Britain — the *British*, the *Latin*, and the *Anglo-Saxon*. He wrote in the *Latin*. The *Norman conquest*, again, in the *eleventh century*, introduced the *Norman French*. Chaucer, the "father of English poetry," if not of the English language itself, found, in the *fourteenth century*, the *semi-Saxon* mixed with *Gaelic Latin* and *Norman French*, "undisciplined in grammar, irregular in idiom and orthography." He adopted the Anglo-Saxon. His genius and popularity contributed much to bring it into use and improve it. Hence it became, from that time, the basis of our language. Derivations from the Greek and Latin have been freely engrafted on this parent stock, and also, to some extent, from the French, Italian, Spanish, and German. From the time of Chaucer, the English language commenced a process of crystallization, and in the reign of Elizabeth, in the *sixteenth century*, it settled into form in the English classics from that period to the "Augustan Age" of English literature under queen Anne, in the early part of the eighteenth century.

§ 142. The following quotations may serve to show the changes in the language during the last five hundred years.

Extract from Chaucer, in the Fourteenth Century.

"And all we that ben in this aray
And maken all this lamentation,
We losten alle our husbondes in that toun."

From Wickliffe's Translation of the Bible, in the Fourteenth Century.

"He guyueth lif to alle men and brething, and alle thingis, and made von al kynde of men to inhabit on al the face of the erthe." —*Acts* xvii. 26.

Our translation of the Bible shows the form of the language in the *seventeenth century*. § 373.

§ 143. The English language *as it is*, then, is the result of a gradual formation during centuries. Like all living languages, it is still in a process of change. New words and new forms of expression are taking the places of others which are becoming obsolescent or obsolete. But changes are now less necessary than formerly. Still, *progress* in every department of learning may require the introduction of new words or phrases, or even new grammatical constructions or idioms. But these changes, before they are admitted, must be subjected to a rigid criticism, to grammatical rule, and to symmetry with the received language Especially should changes be resisted when the accepted usage is required to be abandoned for unnecessary idiom, for a new rule of construction, or a solecism. We must discriminate — accept the good, and throw the bad away. If a great name is found to sanction an error, we may not implicitly follow any more than we may practise his "*limping gait*," or imitate his "*lisping tongue*." There can be no *authority* good enough to legalize false grammar any more than bad manners or bad morals.

§ **144.** Even good writers are not always perfect, nor above a false taste. They must be held to a strict account for the proper exercise of their influence on the purity of their mother-tongue. Lexicographers and grammarians, with no power to make laws, stand as sentinels to protect the language against the intrusion of provincialisms and foreign corruptions. On their fidelity depends, in a great degree, the preservation of the language in its purity and progress.

§ **145.** A mere compiler, therefore, is not a man to make a dictionary or a grammar. There must be *literary taste*, discriminating judgment, a proper application of authority, of fundamental principles, of radical laws and grammatical rules. In such a court, before such a judgment-bar, any one word or construction of any one writer, or even several good writers, may be ruled out.

§ **146.** Every class of sentences and every sentence must be interpreted, and admitted by the *received rules of grammar;* otherwise, the language will come to abound in anomalies, and be made unnecessarily complicated. Better throw away even a good writer, or put him in the wrong, than permit him to introduce a bad precedent.

§ **147.** Since language, in its letters, its words and modifications, is *conventional*, changes, before they can be admitted, require *authority*.

§ **148.** What, then, is *authority* in the English language? *Standard writers*, who have furnished its classics, are authority in any language. But then, not a single dash of the pen in any one writer, nor even the deliberate usage of a single writer. A good writer may be guilty of a "*lapsus linguæ*," of a blunder, of a solecism. He may even be wrong-headed, in fault himself, and fail to secure the

approval necessary to give authority to language. The use that gives authority must be not only *general* and *national*, but *present*. Many words and modes of speech, once general and national, are *now* obsolete; and there are many in partial use at the present time which are not general and national, and therefore not properly authenticated. There are others now in general use that deserve to be expunged, and probably will be. § 286, 344, 359.

§ 149. It is not enough, then, that any word or grammatical construction be quoted from a single writer, however eminent. How does it square with the rules? What is the general mind? What is the present approved use? Has it been adopted? or is it a mere vulgarism? Any one may coin a word or broach an idiom or phrase. If it be approved, adopted, it becomes at length incorporated with the language, and is authority, whatever the obscurity of its origin. If it be rejected, if not generally used and approved, it is no authority, however honorable its paternity.

§ 150. We have now a splendid literature, preserved in a splendid language. The casket and the treasure are our inheritance. But we are not to assume that nothing can be added to increase the value of either. Our own authors are, some of them, men of renown. Some, while they have contributed largely to the literature of our language, have also by the productions of their pens contributed much to give beauty and variety of expression to the language — at least, to develope its rich and felicitous adaptations to the embodiment of thought in prose and poetry.

§ 151. Our language has arrived at its present completeness for the copious, varied, and exact expression of thought by a long process of change, gradually consummated, maturely adopted, generally sanctioned, and now embalmed

in a rich and finished literature, the classic treasures of the English scholar.

§ 152. This, our language, we wish to preserve in its purity, and teach correctly. It is our vernacular — *the first language to be learned by our youth.* Why not? They must speak it, and read it, before they can proceed to learn other languages. Why not speak it, and read it, and understand it, with grammatical accuracy?

§ 153. The principles of general language are the same. These having been well and definitely understood in our own, the study of all other languages will consist in the variations of accidents. It is a false step to learn the English through the Latin or any other language. We have first to learn *language*, begin where we may. Let it be our mother-tongue. Let our youth be those who have exercised their childhood *at home.* Let them study their own country, before they enter on foreign travel. Why expatriate them so early that they must be for ever foreigners at home? Are we aided in understanding the English language by the previous study of the Latin? Not less, the Latin, or any foreign language, by a critical knowledge of the English. The English youth should first be an *English scholar.*

§ 154. Our object in this treatise on grammar has been to present the great principles of the language in a form the most simple and perspicuous — to divest the whole of multifarious specifications — to lead the mind of the learner directly to apprehend the philosophical structure of language in an obvious outline, and in a distinct definition of principles — to separate *principles* from *accidents* and *details*, and so to arrange the whole that details and exceptions may be readily referred to their appropriate relations.

§ 155. The elementary treatise in Part I., as a concise manual, contains what is essential to *general grammar* and essential to the *English*. It is short, definite, and can easily be made familiar. Part II., which now follows, elaborates the subject so fully, so minutely and comprehensively, that the advanced student has little more to do than to make himself familiar with it. Great labor has been bestowed on this part, that no important difficulty in the language, requiring solution, may be omitted — no idiom neglected — no result, so far as grammarians and men of letters have decided, be wanting. If we have answered our object, a Grammar is here furnished for the child and the philosopher. Both must have the same.

§ 156. If the learner has gone through with the first part of Etymology and Syntax, as presented in this treatise — if he can now repeat from memory, with accuracy, every definition and every rule — if he has applied these general principles to the analysis of sentences, leaving the minute and more difficult questions for future solution — if he has done this, he has come to comprehend the principles unembarrassed by the *accidents*, and can more easily master the *details*, now that he has gained the power to classify and arrange them without confusion of ideas.

REVIEW

Of Chapter I., Part II.

§ 157. *Sec.* 127. What is the subject of the last Chapter? 128. What is *Language?* 129. *Sign* language? 130. *Vocal* language? 131. *Written* language? 132. In what other ways have thoughts been expressed? 133. Why are these forms termed *conventional?* (*Ans.* Because it is by agreement for mutual convenience.) 134. What is the proper *use* of language? 135. To what end is a

correct knowledge of language necessary? 136. What are the elements of the English language? 137. What does the perfection of language require? 138. Whence has language grown? 139. Why are all languages essentially alike? 140. *General* Grammar? The English Grammar? 141. Give a history of the English language. 142. What specimens are given of its changes? 143. How may changes be admitted? 144. What is said of good writers in this relation? Of Lexicographers and Grammarians? 145. What qualifications are required of a Grammarian? 146. How may new forms be admitted? 147. What is required to admit new words or phrases? 148. What is *authority?* 149. May a single good writer introduce an innovation? 150. What is said of our language as it is? 151. How has our language arrived at what it is? 152. What language should be first studied? 153. Why? 154. What has been sought in this Treatise on Grammar? 155. What does Part I. contain? Part II.? 156. What has the learner now done? What can he do?

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§158. To TEACHERS.—After Part I. of this Grammar has been *committed to memory* and rendered perfectly familiar by *frequent repetition*, then Part II. is to be carefully *studied*, not committed *verbally* to memory. The memory is often lumbered too much by a mass which becomes incoherent and confused. The principles and definitions should have a *verbal* deposit in the mind—they are then easily distinguished by the pupil, and separated from the accidents. For illustration—take Nouns in the formation of *Number*. Part I. gives the regular formation only—the addition of *s* to the singular. This is committed to memory and made familiar. Part II. then (Sec. 164) presents all the variations from the regular form under nineteen specifications. To commit these all to memory, as is sometimes done, is a drudgery that creates disgust; and, after it is accomplished, the pupil will find the attainment less available than a more general and comprehensive *study* of them.

Let the Teacher, in this and all similar specifications throughout Part II., require the learner to *answer the questions in the Review.* If he can do this readily, he will always be able to apply the Rule wherever the text requires it. Thus, in specification 2, when the

singular ends in *x*, *ch* (soft), *sh*, *s*, *ss*, and *z*, how is the plural formed? 3. How, when the singular ends in *o* preceded by a consonant? What exceptions to this? 4. When the singular ends in *y*, how is the plural formed? What exceptions to this rule?

When the pupil can answer the questions through the whole seventeen variations, he is well furnished with the necessary knowledge in the formation of the plural of Nouns, and at the smallest amount of labor.

So, also, with the List of *Irregular Verbs*. They should be so studied, that, when the Teacher announces the *Indicative Present*, the pupil may be able promptly to state the other parts. This is an easy task; while it would be a great labor to commit them all to memory. And yet they must not be passed over, as often they are, as a mere list for reference.

These few suggestions give the key to the only proper and practical use of the *Grammar* in the study of Language. If adopted, the progress of the student will be greatly facilitated, and the study of *English Grammar* will be divested of much of that lumbered and indefinite character, which often renders it the most unpopular study in our schools.

CHAPTER II.

ON THE FIRST CLASS OF WORDS.

OF THE NOUN.

§159. The *Noun* is sometimes called *Substantive*, because it is the subject-matter of discourse.

§160. *Any part of speech* may be used as *a noun* when it constitutes a *name*, or the *subject of discourse;* as, *True* is an adjective; *a* is an article; *I* is a pronoun; *is* is a verb; *truly* is an adverb; *in* is a preposition; *and* is a conjunction; *oh* is an interjection. Each of these several parts of speech, as used in the definition, is a *noun*, the subject of its sentence, and nominative case to the verb. So it may be of any other word, clause, or sentence.

§161. Nouns are divided and defined in classes according to their import. They are called —

1. *Proper*, when used to designate a particular person, place, or thing; as, *John*, *Boston*, *Iowa*.
2. *Common*, when they are used to designate any other than a proper name.
3. *Abstract*, when they are used to designate qualities; as, *Virtue*, *justice*, *truth*, *love*, &c.
4. *Collective*, when they include a plurality; as, *Assembly*, *army*, *people*, &c.
5. *Verbal*, or *Participial*, when they are derived from verbs; as, The *beginning*.

§ 162. *Person*, as applied to nouns and pronouns, contemplates —

First, the person *speaking*.
Second, the person *spoken to*.
Third, the person *spoken of*.

This threefold distinction answers to the natural demand in language, and is sufficiently definite. All subjects of discourse, though without distinction of gender, are, for convenience, classed in the *third person*, as spoken of, and are represented by the pronoun *it* in the singular, and by *they* in the plural number.

Person, then, in grammar, applies to the *speaker* as the *first person*; the *hearer*, or the one who is addressed, as the *second person*; and the *one spoken of*, whether man, animal, or thing, as the *third person*.

§ 163. *Number*, as applied to nouns, divides them into two classes — those that designate *one*, and those that designate *more than one*.

The *Singular Number* applies to nouns that express or imply *unity*; as, A *man*; an *assembly*.

The *Plural Number* applies to nouns that express or imply *plurality*, or more than one; as, *Men*, *horses*, *people*.

Any *definite number* is expressed by the use of the *numeral adjectives*; as, *Three* men; *ten* horses, &c.

§ 164. Nouns usually designate the singular or plural by their *terminations* or forms.

1. The plural number is regularly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, Horse, *horses*.

2. When the singular ends in *x*, *ch* (soft), *sh*, *s*, *ss*, and *z*, and sometimes when in *o* and *y*, the plural is formed by adding *es*; as, Box, *boxes*; church, *churches*; lash, *lashes* kiss, *kisses*.

3. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, form the plural by adding *es;* as, Cargo, *cargoes;* hero, *heroes.*— The following are usually written with *s* only in the plural: *Canto, grotto, junto, memento, portico, quarto, octavo, solo, tyro, zero.*

4. *Y* final, *after a consonant*, changes into *ies;* as, Body, *bodies;* lady, *ladies.* But *y* final, *after a vowel*, forms the plural regularly; as, Day, *days;* valley, *valleys;* money, *moneys.*

5. Some nouns ending in *f* and *fe*, change *f* into *ves;* as, Life, *lives;* loaf, *loaves.* But many ending in *f* and *fe*, form the plural regularly; as, *Brief, chief, dwarf, fife, gulf, grief, kerchief, mischief, hoof, proof, roof, scarf, turf, surf;* and those ending in *ff*, except *staff.*

6. Some plurals are irregularly formed; as,

Man	Men.	Mouse	Mice.
Woman	Women.	Louse	Lice.
Child	Children.	Penny	Pence or pennies.
Foot	Feet.	Brother	Brethren or Brothers.
Ox	Oxen.		
Tooth	Teeth.	Die (for gaming)	Dice.
Goose	Geese.	Die (for coining)	Dies.

7. Compound words vary the principal word to form the plural; as, *Fathers*-in-law, *mothers*-in-law, land-*lords*, father-*lands*. Those compound words ending in *ful*, form the plural regularly; as, *Handfuls.*

8. Some nouns have no plural form; as, *Wheat, pitch, gold, silver, molasses, wine, flour, industry, pride, temperance, meekness,* &c

9. Some nouns have no singular form; as, *Bellows, scissors, tongs, ashes, annals, archives, assets, billiards, bowels, calends, clothes, dregs, entrails, politics, alms, pains, wages.*

goods, hose, hysterics, ides, literati, nippers, nones, orgies, shears, snuffers, victuals.

10. Some nouns have the same form in the singular and plural; as, *Sheep, deer, swine, amends, means, riches, alms, mathematics, metaphysics, ethics, optics.* So the following, from the Latin: *Apparatus, hiatus, impetus, caries, congeries, series, species, superficies.*

11. The family-name, comprising a *plurality of persons*, forms a collective noun, and the title only takes the plural form; as, The *Misses* Day; the *Messrs.* Smith. But if the numeral adjective is applied, the personal name takes the plural form; as, The *two Miss Days*; the *three Mr. Smiths.* § 256. *Obs.* 5. § 342.

12. The words *horse, foot, infantry, cavalry, cannon, sail, head*, and others of this sort, implying *plurality*, are nouns of multitude, and in the plural number. But when used so as to imply *unity*, they are in the singular.

13. Nouns adopted from other languages often form their plurals in those languages. Those ending in *is* change the termination into *es;* as the following: —

Amanuensis ..	Amanuenses.	Emphasis.....	Emphases.
Antithesis	Antitheses.	Hypothesis ...	Hypotheses.
Analysis	Analyses.	Metamorphosis	Metamorphoses.
Axis.....	Axes.	Oasis	Oases.
Basis	Bases.	Parenthesis...	Parentheses.
Borealis.....	Boreales.	Phasis	Phases.
Crisis	Crises.	Synthesis.....	Syntheses.
Diæresis	Diæreses.	Thesis	Theses.
Ellipsis	Ellipses.		

14. A few change *is* into *ides;* as,

Ephemeris....	Ephemerides.	Chrysalis.....	Chrysalides.

15. The following change *x* into *ces:*

Apex	Apices. Apexes.	Cicatrix	Cicatrices.
Appendix	Appendices. Appendixes.	Index	Indices. Indexes.
Calix	Calices.	Radix	Radices.
Calx	Calces. Calxes.	Vertex	Vertices. Vertexes.
		Vortex	Vortices.

16. The following change *a* into *æ* in the *plural:*

Formula	Formulæ.	Nebula	Nebulæ.
Lamina	Laminæ.	Scoria	Scoriæ.
Larva	Larvæ.		

17. The following change *us* into *i:*

Alumnus	Alumni.	Nautilus	Nautili.
Calculus	Calculi.	Nucleus	Nuclei.
Focus	Foci.	Obolus	Oboli.
Fungus	Fungi. Funguses.	Polypus	Polypi.
		Radius	Radii.
Genius	Genii. Geniuses.	Sarcophagus	Sarcophagi.
		Stimulus	Stimuli.
Magus	Magi.	Tumulus	Tumuli.

18. The following change *um* and *on* into *a:*

Addendum	Addenda.	Aphelion	Aphelia.
Animalculum	Animalcula.	Perihelion	Perihelia.
Arcanum	Arcana.	Gymnasium	Gymnasia. Gymnasiums.
Automaton	Automata.		
Criterion	Criteria. Criterions.	Medium	Media. Mediums.
Corrigendum	Corrigenda.	Memorandum	Memoranda. Memorandums.
Datum	Data.		
Desideratum	Desiderata.	Momentum	Momenta. Momentums.
Effluvium	Effluvia.		
Emporium	Emporia.	Phenomenon	Phenomena.
Encomium	Encomia. Encomiums.	Scholium	Scholia. Scholiums.
		Speculum	Specula.
Erratum	Errata.	Stratum	Strata.
Ephemeron	Ephemera.		

19. Some nouns from other languages form the plural variously; thus,

Bandit	Banditti. Bandits.	Lamina	Laminæ.
Beau.....	Beaux.	Larva	Larvæ.
Cantharis	Cantharides.	Miasma	Miasmata.
Cherub.....	Cherubim. Cherubs.	Monsieur	Messieurs.
Dogma.....	Dogmata. Dogmas.	Nebula.....	Nebulæ.
Ephemeris	Ephemerides.	Seraph.....	Seraphim. Seraphs.
Formula.....	Formulæ. Formulas.	Stamen.....	Stamina. Stamens.
Genus.....	Genera.	Tripos	Tripodes.
		Viscus	Viscera.

§165. *Gender*, in English nouns, is designated strictly by distinction of sex. Males are termed *masculine* — females, *feminine* — and things without distinction of sex are termed *neuter*.

But the young of animals often employ the neuter pronoun, for the reason that the sex is not always obvious; as, we say of an infant, *It* sleeps; of a lamb, *It* plays.

Gender is sometimes applied to inanimate things personified; as, Heaven opens wide *her* ever-during gates.

Inanimate things, distinguished for *power*, or *strength*, or *size*, are often termed *masculine*. Things distinguished for *beauty* or *productiveness*, are termed *feminine;* as, we say, The sun is the king of day; the moon is the queen of night.

Where a person or class may be mixed, or of either gender, the noun is called *common* gender; as, *Parent*, *neighbor*, *cattle*, *birds*, &c.

The gender of nouns is expressed — 1. By the termination; as.

Actor	Actress.	Patron	Patroness.
Abbot.....	Abbess.	Poet	Poetess.
Administrator.	Administratrix.	Prince	Princess.
Ambassador ..	Ambassadress.	Priest.....	Priestess.
Author.....	Authoress.	Protector	Protectress.
Arbiter.....	Arbitress.	Prophet	Prophetess.
Governor	Governess.	Shepherd	Shepherdess.
Giant	Giantess.	Sultan	Sultana.
Heir	Heiress.	Songster.....	Songstress.
Host	Hostess.	Testator.....	Testatrix.
Hunter.....	Huntress.	Tiger	Tigress.
Jew	Jewess.	Tutor	Tutoress.
Landgrave....	Landgravine.	Tailor.....	Tailoress.
Lion	Lioness.	Viscount	Viscountess.
Marquis.....	Marchioness.	Widower	Widow.
Peer.....	Peeress.		

2. By different words; as,

Bachelor	Maid.	Hart.....	Roe.
Beau.....	Belle.	King.....	Queen.
Boy.....	Girl.	Lad.....	Lass.
Brother	Sister.	Lord.....	Lady.
Drake	Duck.	Man	Woman.
Father	Mother.	Master	Mistress.
Friar or Monk.	Nun.	Nephew.....	Niece.
Gander.....	Goose.	Son	Daughter.
Gentleman....	Lady.	Stag	Hind.
Husband	Wife.	Uncle	Aunt.

3. By prefixing or affixing other words; as,

Man-servant ..	Maid-servant.	Land-lord	Land-lady.
He-goat	She-goat.	Gentle-man ...	Gentle-woman.

§ **166.** *Case*, in nouns, is simply their condition in relation to other words in the sentence; as,

1. The subject of discourse.
2. The object of a verb or preposition.
3. As implying possession.

The *first* is the name of a person, place, or thing, and is therefore called the *Nominative* or *naming* case.

The *second* is the object of the action or thing asserted, and is therefore called the *Objective* case.

The *third* indicates the relation of *possession*, and is therefore called the *Possessive* case.

The *nominative* and *objective* cases are alike in form.

The *possessive* case is regularly formed by adding the apostrophe with the letter *s* to the nominative; as,

Nom. *John* loves.
Obj. John loves *virtue*.
Poss. John loves *virtue's* ways.

The apostrophic *s* is sometimes omitted in forming the possessive case; as,

1. Where the noun ends in *ss*; as, For goodness' sake.

2. Where the noun ends in letters of similar sounds with those that commence the following noun; as, For conscience' sake.

The English possessive case corresponds with the Latin genitive, and may be thrown into the objective form, with a preposition; as, *Jupiter's* satellites — the satellites *of Jupiter*.

Nouns are sometimes placed independently of other parts of the sentence. These may be parsed as in the nominative case independent; as,

1. When used in address; as, *Sirs*, what shall we do? Rule IV.

2. When connected with a participle; as, The sermon being ended, &c. Rule V.

3. When it means the same thing as another noun to which it stands related in apposition; as, Paul, the Apostle. Rule III.

The *subject* of a verb, whether a noun, a pronoun, a verb in the infinitive mode, a phrase, or a sentence, becomes a nominative case; as, *John* studies; *he* learns well; *to study diligently* is right; *that he studies diligently* is admitted.

Of the Adjective.

§167. *Adjectives* are used to describe, to define, or to limit the meaning of nouns.

Descriptive adjectives are used to describe the qualities of nouns; as, A *good* man; an *honorable* man.

Proper adjectives are so called because they are derived from *proper names;* as, The *Roman* sword.

Participial or *Verbal* adjectives are so called because they are derived from verbs. Participles become adjectives whenever they are used to describe nouns; as, An *admitted* rule; a *standing* tree; an *injured* man; a *flourishing* city; *blasted* fruit.

Definitive adjectives are such as are used to define or limit the meaning of nouns; as, *A learned* man; *two* books; *this* book.

The articles *a* and *the* are definitive adjectives—they are used to define or limit the meaning of the noun.

Numeral adjectives are definitive adjectives; as, *One, two, three men,* &c.

Ordinal adjectives are definitive adjectives; as, *First, second,* &c.

Adjectives which imply number must agree with nouns in the singular or plural number, according to the sense.

Degrees of Comparison.

§168. *Quality* is expressed by adjectives in different degrees, and they are varied accordingly.

From the positive, which expresses the simple quality,

they are varied to increase or diminish this quality two degrees; as, *Positive*, great; *comparative*, greater; *superlative*, greatest; — little, less, least.

Double superlatives, or double comparatives, are not admissible. But adverbs are sometimes added, as intensitives; as, The *very* least; the *very* best.

Some adjectives do not admit degrees of comparison, because they express what is not capable of increase or diminution; as, *perpendicular*, *horizontal*, *square*, *true*. Yet, even with these, qualifying adverbs are sometimes used; as, *Exactly* perpendicular; *perfectly* horizontal, &c.

Some adjectives are superlative only in sense; as, *Extreme*, *chief*. Yet *extremest* is sometimes used by good writers; *chiefest*, more seldom. *Extreme* north, is an indefinite term, and admits of a higher degree — the *extremest* north. See § 338.

Some adjectives lessen the positive without a strict comparison; as, *Whitish*, *yellowish*, *greenish*.

When two objects are compared, the comparative should generally be used; as, John is *wiser* than James. But more than two objects compared require the superlative; as, John is the *wisest* of all. But the superlative *may* be used to express the highest degree in comparison, whether of two or more; as, Of the two, John is the *wisest*.

The comparative degree and the adjective pronoun *other* are followed by *than* — *such* is followed by *as* or *that*; as, John is *wiser than* James; his conduct was *such that* he excelled all; it was *such as* deserves praise.

Lesser is admitted as the comparative, equivalent to *less*; as, The *Lesser* Asia; the *lesser* co-efficient.

When a comparison is instituted between one and all others of the class, the *comparative* is to be used; as, Socrates was wiser than any other Athenian. When the compa-

rison is *inclusive of all of the class*, the *superlative* must be used; as, Socrates was the wisest of the Athenians.

Of the Pronoun.

§ 169. The *Pronoun* is a substitute for the noun, as the name imports; as, The man is happy, because *he* is good.

Some pronouns, by their forms, denote *persons;* as, *I thou, he, she, it, we, ye* or *you, they.*

These pronouns have also *gender, number,* and *case.*

The distinction of *gender* is provided for in the form or variation of the *third* person only, or the person *spoken of,* and who may be absent.

The *first person,* speaking, and the *second person,* spoken to, must be present, and the distinction of gender apparent.

It, being in the neuter gender, is, strictly speaking, without the distinction of *person. Person* belongs only to intelligent beings. But *it* is *personal* in its relation to discourse, and for convenience is classed, as nouns are, under the accident of *person.*

The *numbers* and *cases* of pronouns are arranged as those of nouns.

Some pronouns are used as leaders in asking questions, and are therefore called *Interrogative* pronouns; as, *What* did you say? *who* did it? *which* of the candidates do you prefer?

Adjective Pronouns.

§ 170. When pronouns describe or define nouns, they are called *Adjective Pronouns.*

These are classed in *four* divisions, viz.: —

1. Distributive.
2. Demonstrative.
3. Possessive.
4. Indefinite.

The character of each class is designated by its name. (Those belonging to each class are given in § 27.)

Adjective pronouns belong or refer to nouns in the singular or plural number, according to the sense. They always agree with their antecedents in *gender* and *number*.

Each, *either*, *neither*, *this*, *that*, and all other adjective pronouns, when they imply unity, belong to nouns in the singular number, and require verbs in the singular.

These, *those*, *many*, and *both*, and all which imply plurality, belong to plural nouns, and require verbs in the plural. § 268, *Obs.* 1.

Any, *all*, *some*, *none*, *more*, *most*, *such*, *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, *former*, *latter*, &c., may have their nouns in the singular or plural, according to the sense.

Each other, and *one another*, when used together, should be parsed separately; as, Let brethren love each other — let *each* love the *other*; love one another — *one* love *another*. *Every* implies all; *each*, all distributively.

Either is sometimes employed in the sense of *each*; as, The banks on *either side* rose in high and precipitous bluffs.

Either and *neither* imply an alternative in a choice between two; as, Select *either*, I will take the other; I will take *neither* — you may have both. But the number may be extended while the *dual* form is retained; as, Either John or James or Thomas may go. Here the relation is between *one* and either or all of the rest.

Either is also employed, more strictly, in reference to more than two; as, There were twenty in the company, *either* of whom was fit to command — *neither* of whom was unable to command.

Whether, as a pronoun, is now obsolete, and *which* is used in place of it; as, *Which* (*whether*) of the two do you choose?

This and *these* refer to persons or things last mentioned in construction — *that* and *those*, to persons or things first mentioned; as, *Honor* and *shame* from no condition rise — *this* belongs to the wicked, *that* to the good: for *these* shall be exalted, *those* abased.

Relative Pronouns.

§171. *Relative Pronouns* are those which stand in the place of nouns, and relate directly to their antecedents, which they represent. These are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. §24, 25.

As is also used as a relative pronoun after *such* and *so*; as, The Republic honors *such* men *as* serve her faithfully.

Than, when it follows *more*, has sometimes the nature of a relative pronoun, and is parsed as such; as, *More* men apply for pensions *than* deserve reward.

The ellipsis may be supplied, so as to bring back *than* and *as* to their original office of conjunctions. But they have been generally rendered in such connections as pronouns — the construction is simple and clear and admitted.

The antecedent of a relative pronoun may be a word, a phrase, or a sentence, that constitutes a subject; but it must constitute a substantive noun, and the relative must agree with its *antecedent* in *gender*, *number*, and *person*.

The relative sometimes agrees with an antecedent in the *possessive* case — *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*; as, We respect *his* memory, *who* has done his country service; how uncertain *his* position, *who* lives on princes' favor; Heaven be *their* resource, *who* rely on charity.

The relative *who* refers to persons — *which*, to animals or things — *that*, to persons, animals, or things. *What*, as a compound pronoun, resolved into its component parts,

answers to the office of *who*, or *which*, or *that*, with its antecedent.

The use of *which*, in reference to persons, was formerly allowed, but is now obsolete; as, Our *Father*, *which* art in heaven.

§ **172.** *That* is used instead of *who* and *which* —

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree; as, Of all statesmen, many regard Webster as the greatest *that* ever lived.

2. After the words *same* and *all*, and sometimes after *no*, *some*, and *any*; as, I mentioned *all that* were present.

3. When the antecedent includes both *persons* and *things*, as, The soldiers and ordnance *that* we saw.

4. After the interrogative *who*; as, Who, *that* heard him, could doubt?

5. After personal pronouns; as, He that doubts is dull of apprehension.

When the relative is preceded by two antecedents of different persons, it must be made to agree with the last; as, I and the man who is responsible.

§ **173.** *Myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*, are compound words, with the pronouns prefixed to the noun *self*. They are used sometimes in place of the simple pronoun; as, I blame myself. Sometimes they are used for *emphatic repetition*, and sometimes for *euphony*. They are used either in the nominative or objective, while the pronoun, whether nominative, possessive, or objective, in form, retains a uniform orthography. *Iself*, *youself*, *heself*, *theyselves*, might present a more regular formation for the nominative, but at a needless expense of euphony.

REVIEW

Of Chapter II.—NOUN.

159. What is the Noun sometimes called? 160. May any Part of Speech become a Noun? Why? 161. Into what five classes are Nouns divided? What is a *Proper* Noun? *Common? Abstract? Collective?* Verbal? 162. How many *Persons* have Nouns? Why? 163. How many *Numbers* have Nouns? What is the Singular? The Plural? 164. How is the *Plural* regularly formed? How is the Plural formed when the Singular ends in *x*, *ch* (soft), *sh*, *s*, *ss*, *z*? How, when *o* final is preceded by a Consonant? Name the exceptions. How, when *y* final is preceded by a Consonant? How, when *y* final is preceded by a Vowel? Plural of Nouns ending in *f* and *fe*? Exceptions? Irregular plurals? Plurals of compound words? What Nouns have no plural? What Nouns have no singular? What are the same in both numbers? Where is the plural designated, when a title is affixed to a name common to two or more? What takes place if a Numeral Adjective is applied? How are Nouns of Multitude used? How is the plural formed in Nouns adopted from other languages? Plural of some singulars in *is*? Repeat the plurals to the singulars given. Another class in *is*—how is the plural formed? The plural of the singular in *x*? Repeat the plurals, after the singular is given. Plurals of those whose singular is in *us*? Repeat the plurals. Plurals of those that end in *um* and *on*? Repeat the plurals to each singular. Some other plurals are variously formed—give the plurals to the singulars as repeated.

Gender.—165. How many Genders have Nouns? What are *Males* called? *Females?* Those *without sex?* The Neuter is sometimes applied to *persons—when?* Is Gender ever applied to things? Example. What classes of inanimate things are called *Male* and *Female?* What Nouns are called *Common* Gender? How is Gender expressed—three ways? By *termination*—give the feminines to the names given. By *different words*—give the feminine of the masculine. By *prefixes* or *affixes*—give the feminine.

Case.—166. How many Cases have Nouns? What is *Case?* Define the three Cases. How do they differ in *form?* When is

the apostrophic *s* omitted? May the Possessive be expressed in any other form? When are Nouns independent? First class? Second class? Third class? May the Nominative be anything but a single name?

Adjective.

167. What is the use of the Adjective? *Descriptive* Adjective? *Proper? Participial* or *Verbal? Definitive?* The *Article? Numeral? Ordinal?* How do Adjectives agree in Number with Nouns?

Degrees of Comparison.—168. How is *Quality* expressed? How many Degrees of Comparison are there? Do they increase or lessen the Degree? Are double Superlatives or double Comparatives used? What office have Adverbs in affecting the quality expressed by Adjectives? Are all Adjectives capable of comparison? Are some simple Superlatives? What is said of *extreme? Of chief?* Is quality varied sometimes in degree without regular comparison? When only two objects are compared, may the Superlative be used? Why? What does *than* follow? *As?* Is *lesser* used as a comparative? When the comparison is between one and all others of a class, what Degree of Comparison is used? When the comparison is *inclusive* of all of *the class*, what Degree of Comparison is used?

Pronoun.

169. What is a Pronoun? What, *Personal Pronouns?* What modifications have they besides *Persons?* What Person does the distinction of Gender pertain to? Why? What is said of the person of the Pronoun *it?* What are the *Numbers* and *Cases* of Pronouns? What are *Interrogative* Pronouns?

Adjective Pronouns.—170. What are the four classes? How do they refer to *antecedents?* What Adjective Pronouns are used with Nouns *singular?* What, in the *plural?* What, either *singular* or *plural?* How are *each other* and *one another* used? How is *either* used in the sense of *each? Either* and *neither*—imply how many? *Whether*—what is said of it? *This* and *that, these* and *those*—how used to refer?

Relative Pronoun.—171. What is the *Relative Pronoun?* How does it agree with its *antecedent? Than? As?* May an Ellipsis

change the character of *than* and *as*? What *may* the *antecedent* be? What *must* it be? May a relative agree with a possessive antecedent? What is said of *it*, used indefinitely? *Who* refers to *persons*. *Which? That?* May *which* refer to *persons?* Did it formerly? 172. When is *that* used instead of *who* or *which? First? Second? Third? Fourth? Fifth?* When the Relative has two antecedents, of different persons, which does it refer to? 173. The Compound Pronouns *myself, thyself,* &c. — how are they compounded? How are they used?

CHAPTER III.

ON THE SECOND CLASS OF WORDS.

Of the Verb.

§ **174.** The *Verb* itself has no *number* or *person*, but is varied in form to agree with the number and person of the nominative case.

Person—in the Form of the Verb.

§ **175.** In the *First Person* singular, the Verb is used in its simple form: as, I love.

In the *Second Person*, *st* or *est* is added to the simple form: as, Thou lovest. But this is only used in prayer and solemn discourse. The common form, now used for the second person singular, is the same as the second person plural—You *love*.

The *Third Person* singular adds *s* to the simple form of the Verb: as, He loves. In solemn discourse it ends in *th* or *eth*: as, He *saith*; he *loveth*.

In the plural number the form of the Verb is not varied on account of *person*.

In the other Modes and Tenses, the variations on account of person are very slight, except in the forms that are irregular.

Be or *Am* is very irregular in modifications to denote persons, as is shown in the Formula, Part I., § 77.

The Subjunctive of all verbs takes the same form as the Indicative, preceded by the conditional particle. This is the approved use of the present day.

Number.

§ **176.** The Verb has the *Singular* form:

1. When it has one subject singular: as, John loves.

2. When it has two or more subjects singular, taken separately: as, John or James loves.

3. When its subject is a phrase or sentence: as, *To be good* is to be happy; *that we are all mortal* is admitted.

4. When its subject is a collective noun singular, or a subject in any form implying *unity:* as, Congress is in session.

The Verb has the *Plural* form:

1. When the *subject* has the Plural form: as, All men are mortal.

2. When two or more nominatives singular are connected by *and:* as, John *and* James love.

3. When the nominative is a collective noun plural, or any subject implying plurality: as, The people are noisy.

Mode and Tense.

§ **177.** The *Modes* and *Tenses* are the most important modifications of the Verb, introduced to express the *manner* and the *time* of the action or thing asserted.

§ **178.** These modifications of the Verb in Mode and Tense are called *Conjugation*, because they *join together* all the parts through all the variations.

Some verbs are *Regular* in their conjugation, and some are *Irregular.*

§ **179.** The Verb is called *regular*, when the *Imperfect Tense* and *Perfect Participle* are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the *Present Tense* of the Indicative. This gives *regularity* to the modes and tenses, through all their forms.

This is shown in the conjugation of the verb *Love*, Part I., § 70–75.

§ 180. The Verb is called *irregular*, when it does not form the Imperfect Tense and Perfect Participle by adding *d* or *ed* to the *Present Tense*. This is shown in the conjugation of the verb *am*, given in Part I., § 78–81.

The *irregular* verb *am*, has been constructed by the combination of three or four fragments of verbs *similar* in their *signification*, but each *defective* in *form*. *Am*, Present, is defective in the *Preterite* — and *was*, Preterite, is defective in the *Present*. These two defective verbs, combined with another defective verb, *be*, and, perhaps, still another verb, *is*, complete the conjugation of the *irregular* verb *am*.

The *irregular* verb *go*, is in like manner formed of *go*, *Present*, which is defective in the *Preterite*, and *went*, *Preterite*, which is defective in the *Present*.

§ 181. A *defective verb* is that which wants some of the modes and tenses; while an *irregular verb* has all the modes and tenses, though *irregularly* formed.

§ 182. By a careful examination of the *regular verb Love* and of the *irregular verb Am*, given in this work; by careful attention to the *following Rules* for the *formation of the Tenses;* and by a knowledge of the *Irregular Verbs*, as given in the List, § 217, the learner will find little difficulty in conjugating any verb in the English language, whether regular or irregular in its formation.

Formation of Verbs. § 70–86.

§ 183. The First Person Singular of the Indicative Present is the Root of the Verb. This, with the Imperfect Tense and Perfect Participle, are the principal parts of the Verb, out of which the others are formed.

In the Indicative Mode.

1. The *First Person Singular* of the *Imperfect Tense* is formed from the Present, in regular verbs, by adding *d* or *ed* to the Present Tense of the Indicative: as, I *loved*. In *irregular* verbs it is irregularly formed. § 217.

2. The *Perfect Tense*, first person singular, is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *have* to the *Perfect Participle:* as, I *have loved*.

3. The *Pluperfect Tense* is formed by prefixing *had* to the Perfect Participle: as, I *had loved*.

4. The *First Future Tense* is formed by prefixing *shall* or *will* to the Present Tense: as, I *shall* or *will love*.

5. The *Second Future Tense* is formed by prefixing *shall have* or *will have* to the Perfect Participle: as, I *shall have* loved, or I *will have* loved.

In the Potential Mode.

§ **184.** 1. The *Present Tense* is formed by prefixing *may*, *can*, or *must*, to the *Indicative Present:* as, I *may*, *can*, or *must* love.

2. The *Imperfect Tense* is formed by placing *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, before the *Indicative Present:* as, I *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* love.

3. The *Perfect Tense* is formed by placing *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*, before the perfect participle; as, I *may*, *can*, or *must have* loved.

4. The *Pluperfect Tense* is formed by placing *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should have*, before the perfect participle; as, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, *have* loved.

§ **185.** In the Subjunctive Mode the tenses are formed like those of the indicative, with the conditional particle *if*, *lest*, &c., prefixed: as, *If* I love.

§ 186. The IMPERATIVE MODE is the same in form as the indicative present, first person singular; as, *Love*—the nominative *thou* being understood, and always in the present tense.

The imperative of the irregular verb *am*, like the present participle of that verb, always uses the form *be;* as, Be thou, or be ye or you.

§ 187. INFINITIVE.—5. The *Infinitive present* is formed by placing the particle *to* before the indicative present; as, *To* love. *To* is then a component part of the verb.

6. The *Infinitive perfect* is formed by placing *to* before the indicative perfect; as, *To* have loved.

§ 188. PARTICIPLES.—7. The *Present participle* is formed from the indicative present, by changing the termination into *ing;* as, *Loving.*

The present participle of *am* is *being*, regularly formed from the indicative present *be*, a form now obsolete, but still found in the old English writers.

8. The *Perfect participle* is formed by adding *ed* to the indicative present, or *d* only when the verb ends in *e;* as, *Loved.*

9. The *Compound participle* is formed by placing the present participle *having* before the perfect participle of the verb; as, *Having loved.*

§ 189. There are some parts of the verb which are never used, except to modify the verb in some of its modes and tenses. These are, therefore, called *Auxiliary verbs*, because they are used to *help* in a varied expression of the *manner* or *time* of the action or of the thing asserted by the verb.

The *auxiliaries* are *may, can, must, might, would, could, should, shall,* and *will.*

Will, when it is used to express an act or operation of the mind, is a principal verb, and takes the auxiliaries to complete its formation in the several tenses.

Do, *be*, and *have*, sometimes used as auxiliaries, are also used as principal verbs.

The *auxiliaries* only are varied in forming the *compound tenses*. They are all capable of variation in form, except *must*.

§ **190.** The MODES and TENSES of verbs are not arbitrary modifications, but are adapted to express the *manner* and *time* of the thing asserted by the verb.

§ **191.** The INDICATIVE is direct in its manner of asserting, and most definite of all the forms of the verb in its *tenses*. It simply indicates or declares a thing; as, *Present tense*, I love, do love, or am loving.

The *imperfect tense* expresses past time, but *imperfect* as to the precise time past; as, I loved, did love, or was loving. It is therefore the *past indefinite*.

The *perfect tense* expresses past time now completed; as, I *have* loved, or have been loving. It is therefore the *past definite tense*.

The *pluperfect tense* expresses past time previous to another past time designated; as, I *had* loved, or had been loving.

The *first future tense* expresses simply time to come; as, I shall love, or shall be loving.

The *second future tense* expresses a future time *previous* to another defined period of time; as, I *shall have* loved, or *shall have been* loving.

§ **192.** The POTENTIAL MODE is sufficiently explicit as to *manner*, implying *power*, *liberty*, *will*, or *obligation*. These are expressed by the auxiliaries *may* and *might*, implying *liberty* — *can* and *could*, *ability* — *must* and *should*,

obligation — *would*, implying *will* or *willingness*. These are, therefore, something more than *signs* of the *potential* mode. They modify the meaning of the principal verb; as, *Indicative*, I go; *possibility*, I *may* go; *ability*, I *can* go; *modified power*, I *might* go; *will* or *willingness*, I *would* go; *liberty*, I *could* go; *obligation*, I *should* go.

In regard to *time*, the tenses of the POTENTIAL are less definite, or of greater latitude of meaning. The same forms are sometimes used to express *past time* — sometimes, *present* — and sometimes, *future*. The *imperfect tense* is used to denote either *present*, *past*, or *future*. *May*, *can*, and *must*, refer either to *present* or *future time*. *Might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, refer to the *present*, *past*, or *future*.

Might, *could*, *would*, *should*, are most often used with latitude of meaning in designating time. Thus, it may be said, in *past time*, I *could* not pay you yesterday, for I was not in funds; *present time*, I *would* do it now, if I *could*, *future time*, I *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* pay you to-morrow.

The introduction of adverbs, or qualifying clauses, often controls the tense, and changes it. So does the leading affirmation in a compound sentence; as, If I live, I will go.

The copiousness and variety of our language in forms of expression, always enable the writer to give a meaning to the sentence which renders the application to time sufficiently definite in every particular case.

§193. The SUBJUNCTIVE MODE always implies *doubt*, *contingency*, or *supposition*. It is called *subjunctive*, because it is always *subjoined* to some other verb in a compound sentence—never separate and *dis*joined from another verb. It is preceded by the conjunction *if*, *unless*, *except*, *lest*, or some word implying *doubt*, *contingency*, or *supposition*.

Some grammarians have put the verb in the *indicative*, where the condition is assumed, though attended by the usual sign of the subjunctive; as, "If you are offended, you may justly seek redress." But although it be granted that you are offended, yet the right to seek redress is still founded on the supposition here expressed in form, and *offended* is properly in the *subjunctive mode*.

Some grammarians have, also, encountered a difficulty in the use of the *tenses* of the *subjunctive mode*. Noah Webster says, "In the subjunctive mode there is a peculiarity in the tense, which should be noticed. When I say, '*If it rains*,' it is understood that I am *uncertain* of the fact at the time of speaking. But when I say, '*If it rained, we should be obliged to seek shelter*,' it is not understood that I am uncertain of the fact. On the contrary, it is understood that I *am certain* that it *does not rain* at the time of speaking. . . . Or, if I say, '*If it did not rain, I would take a walk*,' I convey the idea that *it does rain* at the moment of speaking. This form of our tenses in the subjunctive mode has never been the subject of much notice, nor ever received its due explanation and arrangement. For this hypothetical verb is actually a *present tense*, or, at least, *indefinite* — it certainly does not belong to *past time*."

In examining the difficulty here suggested by Dr. Webster, let us, for illustration, take another example, better suited to trace the mental operation, and to present the true state of the case; as,

"*Were* I Alexander, I *would accept* the terms."
"So *would I, were I* Parmenio."

Now, the difficulty stated is, that this conversation, which is *present*, employs *past time* in the use of the subjunctive

or hypothetical verb, and therefore needs not only "explanation," but "arrangement."

No *absolute present time* can give a proper expression to what necessarily covers a portion of *past time*. Let us inquire, then, how far the authorized form expresses definitely and chronologically the ideas which are sought to be conveyed.

Parmenio thinks — *what?* Why, "if things had been so arranged that I had been placed in Alexander's circumstances, I would now accept the terms." The mind, in its thoughts, runs into *past time*. The expression is a *transcript of the thoughts*. "Were I Alexander—had I been placed in your stead — I *would* accept the terms." *Would*, as it is often used, here expresses *present time*, and the expression is modified by *past* and *present* time. No one feels that there is any ambiguity in this form of expression. It is philosophically correct, in accordance with the natural modes of thought, and what better arrangement can be expected or desired?

It must be granted, however, that our example has introduced a less troublesome combination of past and present time. Still, it combines the two divisions of time, and furnishes the interpretation. "If it *did not* rain, I *would* walk out." It *did* rain, the last *day* — the last *hour* — the last *minute* — it has been raining up to the present-time — otherwise, "I would walk out" — "If it did *not* rain, I *would* walk out." There is a combination of *past time* and of the *instant* future in the thought and in the expression.

A *supposition* is conveniently, if not necessarily, made in *past time*. A supposition of a case differing from what is *actually known to exist*, must be made in the *past tense*. If I say, "If it *rains*," the inference is that I do not now know whether it does or does not rain. If I wish to make a sup-

position differing from the fact in the case, I *must* employ *past time* — thus, If it did now rain; or, if it did not now rain. This supposition in the *past tense* is brought to apply to the *present* by the use of the adverb *now;* or, the same effect may be produced by the influence of the indicative or potential, which controls the general import of the sentence. Take the following examples: — If I had the money, I would pay you now; I will pay you now, if you will receive it; I would pay you now, if I could. The modification of time by the leading verb, in each of these examples, makes the sense clear. The form of expression is in agreement with the operations of the mind, a chronological transcript of its thoughts.

But the difficulty, if it be one of such magnitude as to call for "explanation and arrangement," may be still further relieved by the use of the second form subjunctive *imperfect*, often used also to express *present* time — If it were. To this form add the progressive present, and we have the expression — *If it were not raining, I would walk out;* if *it were raining*, we should be obliged to seek shelter.

While the modes and tenses of our English arrangement are probably not incapable of improvement, they may still be regarded as remarkably definite, perspicuous, and copious.

§194. The IMPERATIVE MODE is used for *commanding*, *entreating*, *exhorting*, *permitting*, and in the present tense only. It is not varied on account of *person* or *number* — is used in the *second person* only, and the nominative is usually understood; as, Love; love thou; love ye or you.

§195. The INFINITIVE MODE is so called from its *indefinite* character. It has no distinction of *number* or *person* and has no nominative case — it implies the subject u

itself. It readily takes the character of a subject or of an object to another verb; as, *To be good* is to be happy—i. e., being good is being happy.

The *infinitive* is sometimes used with other verbs, so as to involve an apparent discrepancy of tense, where there is, nevertheless, great precision of meaning; thus, I went to see the elephant. *Went* is in the *past tense*, and *to see* is in the *present tense*, and both refer to the same transaction. Yet this is chronologically correct: I *went* at a *time past*. In relation to that precise time referred to, the infinitive *to see* expresses *the time then present*. The present and past time combined express the idea intended to be conveyed. I *shall go to see* the elephant. Here the *present* and *future* time combined express, in relation to that precise *future time*, what the mind contemplates as *then a present action*. So, I expected to go — I intended to go — I wished to go — I ought to have gone, *to see* the elephant.

All these expressions are as definite as language can well be made to describe actions. *Expected, intended, wished,* belong to the class already explained. I say, now, I will try to go at a future time; I ought to have gone; I ought to go; I will try to go. In all these instances, the infinitive is modified in its application to time by the tense of the governing verb, as the infinitive is always modified by its governing word, whether that word be a *verb*, a *noun*, or an *adjective*. So in other modes, the verb is modified in its tense by adjuncts and adverbs. In the phrase, I will go now, the adverb *now* limits the *indicative future* to the *present*, or to the time immediately succeeding, if not cotemporaneous with, the assertion.— If you *are* here *to-morrow*, I *will pay* you my note. The verb *are*, in this example, is in the *present tense*, referring to a transaction in the future, and yet perfectly definite, and perfectly well understood.

It is the definition of a *future time* that will *then be present time.* So the historian, in recording *past events* for a thousand years, describes them often in the *present tense,* and properly. We understand him.

§196. The natural distinctions of TIME are *three*—*present, past,* and *future.* But *past time* is distinguished by *three* subdivisions, and *future time* by *two* subdivisions.

The subdivision of these terms, and their precision in the expression of time, may be illustrated by the compound form, thus—Take the irregular verb *write.*

Present tense, I *write,* or *am writing.*

Imperfect tense, I *wrote,* or *was writing.* This is *past* in time, but imperfect as to the precise time past. It therefore employs, in the compound form, *was,* the past tense of the verb, and the present participle *writing,* and expresses that which *was present* at some indefinite time *past.* Hence, called *Imperfect.*

Perfect tense, I *have written, or have been writing. Have* is present, *been* is past, *writing* is present. This designates an action done in a period of *past time* now completed. Hence, called *Perfect tense.*

Pluperfect tense, I *had written,* or *had been writing. Had* designates past time, *been* designates past time, and *writing* present time: an action in a time that *was present,* but *prior* to some other *past time.* Hence, called *Pluperfect,* or *more than perfect.*

First future tense, I *shall write,* or *shall be writing. Shall* designates the future, and *be writing* the present. This indicates an action that will be *present* at a *future* time.

Second future tense, I *shall have written,* or I *shall have been writing.* Here *shall* is future, *have been* is past, and *writing* is present. This indicates a time *present at a time that will be past* when some *future time* referred to shall be *present.*

The general sense of *shall* and *will* is simply *future:* but they often express somethimg more than the modification of *time.*

Shall expresses what one *owes,* or is *obliged* or *destined* to do, to be, to suffer, &c.

Will expresses *will* or *willingness, determination,* or *inclination.*

The man overboard cried out—'I *will* drown, nobody *shall* save me.' He intended—'I *shall* drown, nobody *will* save me.'

A careful regard to these simple definitions will insure a correct use of *shall* and *will,* often perplexing, and incorrectly used.

Thus, it will be perceived that the arrangement of the tenses is made with a view to designate, not only the *three natural divisions* of time, the *present*, *past*, and *future*, but also to define *three divisions of past time* and *two divisions of future time.*

While, therefore, it is true that the different modes and tenses are, to some extent, complicated and indefinite, it can hardly be admitted that our language is deficient in power to express clearly whatever is necessary to perspicuity of style.

In this respect, it encounters only the difficulties which are incidental to language as a medium of communication for thoughts. Scarcely a *single word* in language is limited to a *single meaning.* Yet it is made, in most cases, sufficiently clear by the connection in which its use appears.

§ 197. The term *governed*, as applied to the infinitive verb, refers to the control which the word on which the verb depends has in giving it form and place, and power to express the idea intended to be conveyed. These governing words are usually *verbs*, *nouns*, or *adjectives.* But other words sometimes govern and modify the infinitive. *Than* and *as*, when the conjunction *that* is omitted, in certain constructions, require the infinitive mode, and then they govern it. These governing words may be placed in the construction as *adverbs*, as *prepositions*, or as *conjunctions.*

To is the usual sign of the infinitive mode.

§ 198. No assertion can be made by the infinitive mode without another verb.

§ 199. No assertion can be made without a *finite* verb.

§ 200. The verb always asserts something of the nominative case.

§ **201.** *Transitive*, or *intransitive*, is applied to the verb in relation to *the object of its action.*

It often asserts the action of the nominative case as the agent.

It sometimes asserts the action of this agent on another object.

Those verbs which terminate the action of an agent on an object, are called *Transitive*, because they *transfer* the action to the object; as, John strikes James.

§ **202.** Those verbs which do not terminate the action on an object, are called *Intransitive;* as, John walks.

§ **203.** *Transitive verbs*, beside the *active form* already given in the conjugation of the verb *love*, have also a *passive form*, where the nominative case, instead of being the *agent* or actor, is made the *passive recipient* of the action; as, John *is struck* by James. These two forms of the transitive verb are sometimes called the *Active* and *Passive Voices.*

§ **204.** *Intransitive verbs* do not admit the *passive form*, except in a few instances; as, He is come; they are gone. These have the *passive form*, without the definite character of passive verbs.

§ **205.** The verb in the *active form* is made *passive* by adding the verb *be*, through all its modes and tenses, to the perfect participle of the transitive verb.

§ **206.** The verb is sometimes called the *Predicate*, because it affirms or declares something of the subject. But the predicate includes that which is affirmed, and therefore may be comprehensive of other words than the simple verb; as, John is happy. The thing here affirmed of John is, that he *is happy* — 'is happy' is the *predicate.*

§ **207.** Some grammarians have resolved all the modes into the *Indicative*, except the *Infinitive*, which is treated as

a substantive. Thus, *indicative, I go; potential indicative,* I *can* go, or am able to go; *subjunctive indicative, If* I go; *Imperative indicative, Go ye.* Others, again, have arranged the participle as a *Participial Mode.*

But *mode* — modify it as we may, as expressive of *manner*, in which the action is represented — has variations, designated by five different forms, viz., *Indicative, Imperative, Potential, Subjunctive*, and *Infinitive.* These distinctions exist in the nature of the subject, and the laws of the human mind require them to be made. It is of little consequence, therefore, whether we have a *Potential Indicative* or a simple *Potential.* They both mean the same thing, and the same thing demands the distinction, in whatever form expressed.

It is not easy to perceive, then, what is gained by these departures from the ordinary classification. It is believed, therefore, that until some improvement in simplicity, perspicuity, or convenience, can furnish a reason for the change, the sound judgment of the literary world will adhere to the long-established classifications, forms, and nomenclature, of the English language as it now is. New gems may be added, and some excrescences rejected, but its essential form, in classification and accidents, as it now stands and has stood for more than two centuries, will be transmitted by its classic writers — as the Greek and Latin have come down to us, imperishable as the thoughts that embalm the language in which they are expressed.

§ **208.** The PARTICIPLE is a part of the verb. It has a similar construction with the adjective, and, when used to express a general quality of the noun, it is used as an adjective, and takes the name of a *participial* or verbal adjective. When belonging to the verb, it is a component part of it; when belonging to the noun, it is an adjective.

As a part of the *verb*, it has reference to *time*, and has three forms accordingly.

1. *Present participle*, which ends in *ing;* as, Loving.

2. *Perfect participle*, which, when regularly formed, ends in *d* or *ed;* as, Loved. The *irregular* verbs form thei *perfect participles* irregularly; as, Do, done; eat, eaten, &c

3. *Compound perfect participles*, which consist of the perfect participle of a principal verb, added to *having*, or *being*, or *having been;* as, *Having* loved; *being* loved; *having been* loved.

Participles affirm nothing, but imply something either doing or done, or are used in reference to nouns and pronouns.

Some participles of intransitive verbs, joined with the verb *to be*, assume the *passive form*, while they do not strictly answer to the passive signification; as, I am come; he is gone, &c.

Participles are *transitive;* as, *Seeing — intransitive;* as, *Being — active;* as, *Seeing, having seen — passive;* as, *Seen, having been seen.*

The present participle in *ing* expresses an action or the suffering of an action, a being, a state of being, or condition of a thing, as continuing and progressive.

The present participle of an active verb has an active signification; as, John is *building* a house. Participles of this class, however, are used in a passive sense; as, The house *is building*, or *is being built* — i. e., in progress of building. A passive form of this sort is needed, and by a consent, now quite general among good writers, this construction is admitted, and may be considered as settled.

The participles in *ing*, derived from active verbs, are often used as nouns, while, at the same time, they perform the office of governing a noun in the objective case; as, in

the example which may be cited from the preceding sentence, 'They perform the office of *governing* a noun.'

§ 209. The present participle, used as a noun, sometimes produces confusion in the mind of the learner, unless its uses are well defined. It should, therefore, receive the attention necessary to definite ideas of its character and uses. It loses its verbal character, except that its substantive signification is modified by its verbal derivation. It performs all the offices of a noun. It is sometimes, though rarely, used in the possessive, as well as nominative and objective, case. It admits the possessive case before it, and the objective case after it, and may perform the double office of governing the objective case in its character as a participle, while it is itself the object of a preposition in the character of a noun.

Example — 'Have you heard of John's *receiving* his legacy?' Here, *receiving* is a noun possessed by *John's*, governs *legacy* as a participle, and is governed by the preposition *of*. This analysis does not militate with the fact that all which follows *of* is its general object. *Receiving* is as specifically the object of *of*, as *reception* would be in the following form — 'Have you heard of John's *reception* of his legacy?' But, if we should say, 'John's *becoming* a rich man is ruining his habits of industry,' then, the present participle *becoming* would neither be a noun, nor would it govern *man* as its object, nor would it be the noun possessed by the word *John's*. It is, then, used indefinitely with the rest of the clause, 'becoming a rich man,' which clause, as a noun, is possessed by *John's*, and is nominative case to *is ruining*. 'The desire of *being happy* is universal.' Here *being happy* is the noun, and governed by *of*.

§ 210. IMPERSONAL VERBS are properly those whose subject, or nominative, has no variation of person, and

hence they are sometimes called *Uni*-personal. They include all those whose nominative is used in an indefinite sense; as, It rains; it is warm; it repents me. Also, the three anomalous —

Methinks	or methinketh.	*Imp.* Methought.
Meseems	or meseemeth.	Meseemed.
Melists	or melisteth.	Melisted.

§ 211. *Synopsis of the Verb* LOVE.

PASSIVE FORM.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present. To be loved. *Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved.
Perfect. Loved.
Comp. Perf. Having been loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present. I am loved.
Imperfect. I was loved.
Perfect. I have been loved.
Pluperfect. I had been loved.
Future. I shall be loved.
Sec. Future. I shall have been loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present. I may, can, or must be loved.
Imperfect. I might, could, would, or should be loved.
Perfect. I may, can, or must have been loved.
Pluperfect. I might, could, would, or should have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The same as the Indicative, with the conjunction *if* prefixed through all the modes and tenses.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Be loved, or do thou be loved.
Be ye or you loved, or do ye or you be loved.

§ 212. *Synopsis of the Verb* To Be.

This will be found in the foregoing Synopsis, if the *perfect participle loved* be omitted.

§ 213. *Synopsis of the Regular Verb* Love.

ACTIVE FORM.

INFINITIVE.

			Progressive Form.
Present.	To love.	*Present.*	To be loving.
Perfect.	To have loved.	*Perfect.*	To have been loving.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving. *Perfect.* Loved. *Comp. Perfect.* Having loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

		Progressive Form.
Present.	I love.	I am loving.
Imperfect.	I loved.	I was loving.
Perfect.	I have loved.	I have been loving.
Pluperfect.	I had loved.	I had been loving.
Future.	I shall love.	I shall be loving.
Sec. Future.	I shall have loved.	I shall have been loving.

In the same way, go through all the modes and tenses.

The *progressive form* represents the action in progress at the time of speaking, and is formed by annexing the *present participle* to the verb *to be*, through all its modes and tenses.

§ 214. Emphatic Form.

For emphatic expression, the auxiliary *do* is added to the *present tense*, and *did* to the *imperfect tense*.

Present.	*Imperfect.*
I do love.	I did love.
You do love.	You did love.
He does love.	He did love.
We do love.	We did love.
Ye or you do love.	Ye or you did love.
They do love.	They did love.

Interrogative Form.

In interrogative sentences, the verb, or its auxiliary, comes before the nominative; as, Do I love? shall I love? can I love? may I love? will he love? did he love?

In the *passive form*, the parts of the verb *be* precede the nominative in the present and imperfect indicative. In the other tenses, the auxiliary precedes the nominative; as, Was he loved? is he loved? will he be loved? has he been loved?

When the auxiliary is omitted, the verb precedes its nominative; as, Believest thou? lovest thou me?

Negative Form.

In the *negative form*, *not* is placed between the auxiliary and the verb; as, I do not love; I did not, will not, may not, can not, love, &c.

When the auxiliary is omitted, *not* may follow the verb; as, He loves me not.

Never may be placed before or after the auxiliary of the verb; as, He never will love; he will never love.

§ **215.** By the *Formula*, as given in the conjugation of the verb *love*, any *Regular Verb* may be conjugated through all its modes and tenses.

By the *Formula* of the verb *to be*, any *Irregular Verb* may be conjugated.

The *Present*, *Imperfect*, and *Perfect Participle*, of all *Irregular Verbs*, are given in the *List of Irregular Verbs*. The other parts are formed as in the formula of *am*.

In their *Conjugation*, verbs are either *Regular* or *Irregular*.

Regular verbs form their imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding *ed* to the present tense, or *d* only when the verb ends in *e*. The verb *love* is of this class. As, *pres.*, love; *imperf.*, loved; *perf. part.*, loved.

Irregular verbs are so called because they have an irregular formation of the imperfect tense and perfect participle. This may be shown in the conjugation of the verb *am;* as, *pres.*, am; *imperf.*, was; *perf. part.*, been.

We have learned that verbs are —

1. *Transitive*, or *Intransitive*, in relation to the object-noun or the object of their action.
2. *Active*, or *Passive*, in relation to their nominative-noun.
3. *Regular*, or *Irregular*, in their conjugation.

Transitive verbs terminate their action on an object.
Intransitive verbs do not terminate their action on an object.
Active verbs represent the nominative as the agent of the action.
Passive verbs represent the nominative as the recipient of the action.
Regular verbs have a regular form in conjugation.
Irregular verbs have not that regular form in conjugation

§ **216.** *Am*, or *be*, is called the *Substantive Verb*, because the sense of it is, *to exist, to stand, remain, be fixed, to have a real existence.* So God, in announcing himself to Abraham, said, "I am that I am" — i. e., I am *the I am.*

This word is worthy of special study. It is very comprehensive, and is found in all languages with similar irregularities. It may be regarded as in some sense the basis of speech. Its signification is *substantive.* Hence all *names* or *nouns* are, in sense, but modifications of it. *To be* is *being* or *existence. To run* is being or existing in a certain state or act. So, *to think* is to be thinking; *justice* is to be just, or a being or an existence of certain ascertained moral entities. *To judge* is to be judging; *to love* is to be loving, or to

exist in a particular state, act, or affection. Thus we see that all nouns and all verbs have a significant relation to this verb, which they have to no other word.

"How are you?" — a very common salutation — means, "How stand you?" — How exist you? Or, What is your state or condition, in health, &c.?

The verb *to be* is worthy, then, of special study, both philosophically and grammatically. In Grammar, it is of most extensive use, and very irregular in its conjugation.

Am, be, is, was, were, are all fragmentary parts, and have no root in common.

The combination of words derived from different roots to complete the conjugation is true also of the irregular verb *go — went, gone.*

The study of the irregular verbs is too often neglected, or imperfectly prosecuted. They are not more difficult to comprehend than other verbs, since the formations from the principal parts are always regular: the only irregularity is in these principal parts. Hence the necessity of an accurate knowledge of these variations.

Irregular Verbs.

§ 217. The following is a very complete *List of Irregular Verbs.* It should be so carefully studied, that the announcement of the *indicative present* may suggest readily the *imperfect,* and the *perfect participle.*

List of Irregular Verbs.

They are classified according to the following five forms: —

1. When the *present* and *imperfect tenses* and *perfect participle* are alike in form.
2. When the *imperfect tense* and *perfect participle* are alike.
3. When the *present* and *imperfect tenses* and *perfect participle* differ in form from each other.
4. When the *conjugation* is in the form of *regular* verbs, with variations.
5. Other *irregular* forms.

FIRST FORM.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Let,	let,	let.
Put,	put,	put.
Read,	read,	read.
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Set,	set,	set.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Split,	split,	split.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.

SECOND FORM.

Abide,	abode,	abode.
Bend,	bent,	bent.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Hang,	hung,	hung.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Say,	said,	said.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
String,	strung,	strung.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound.

THIRD FORM.

Am, *or* be,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Blow,	blew,	blown.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Come,	came,	come.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lie,	lay,	laid.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
See,	saw,	seen.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shew,	shewed,	shewn.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Take,	took,	taken.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Wear.	wore,	worn.

FOURTH FORM.

Awake,	awaked, *or* awoke,	awaked.
Bereave,	bereaved, bereft,	bereaved. bereft.
Build,	builded, built,	builded. built.
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned. burnt.
Catch,	catched,* caught,	catched.* caught.
Cleave, (*to adhere,*)	cleaved, clave,*	cleaved.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed. clad.
Crow,	crowed, crew,	crowed.
Dare,	dared, durst,	dared.
Deal,	dealed, dealt,	dealed. dealt.
Dig,	digged, dug,	digged. dug.
Dream.	dreamed, dreamt,	dreamed. dreamt.
Dwell.	dwelled, dwelt,	dwelled. dwelt.
Freight.	freighted,	freighted. fraught.
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded. gilt.
Gird,	girded, girt,	girded. girt.
Grave,	graved,	graved. graven.
Heave,	heaved, hove,	heaved. hoven.*
Hew,	hewed,	hewed. hewn.
Kneel,	kneeled, knelt,	kneeled. knelt.
Knit,	knitted, knit,	knitted. knit.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted. lit.
Load,	loaded,	loaded. loaden.*
Pen,	penned, pent,	penned. pent.
Quit,	quitted, quit,	quitted. quit.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed. sawn.
Seethe,	seethed, sod,	seethed. sodden.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved. shaven.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped. shapen.
Shear,	sheared,	sheared shorn.
Shine,	shined, shone,	shined. shone.
Slit,	slitted, slit,	slitted. slit.
Sow,	sowed,	sowed. sown.
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled spelt.
Spill,	spilled, spilt,	spilled spilt.
Sweat,	sweated, sweat,	sweated. sweat.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled. swollen.
Thrive,	thrived, throve,	thrived. thriven.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed. waxen.
Wet,	wetted, wet,	wetted. wet.

* In this List, all the words marked by an asterisk (*) are obsolete.

Present.	*Imperfect.*	*Perf. Part.*
Whet,	whetted, whet,	whetted. whet.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked. wrought.
Wring,	wringed, wrung,	wringed. wrung.

FIFTH FORM.

Bear, (*to bring forth*)	bore, bare,	born.
Bear, (*to sustain*)	bore, bare,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beat. beaten.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid. bidden.
Bite,	bit,	bit. bitten.
Break,	broke, brake,	broken.
Chide,	chid,	chidden. chid.
Cleave,	cleft, clave,*	cleft. cloven.
Drink,	drank.	drank. drank.
Drive,	drove, drave,*	driven.
Eat,	ate, eat,	Eaten.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten. forgot.
Get,	got, gat,*	gotten. got.
Hide,	hid,	hidden. hid.
Hold,	held,	held, holden.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Ride,	rode, rid,*	ridden. rode.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Shrink.	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Slide,	slid,	slid. slidden.
Sling,	slung, slang,	slung.
Smite,	smote,	smitten. smit.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken. spoke.
Spin,	spun, span,*	spun.
Spit,	spit, spat,*	spit. spitten.*
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
Stride,	strode, strid,	stridden. strid.
Strike,	struck	struck. stricken.*
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Tear.	tore, tare,*	torn.
Tread,	trod,	trodden. trod.
Weave,	wove,	woven. wove.
Write,	wrote, writ,*	written. writ.*

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE THIRD CLASS OF WORDS.

ADVERB, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, AND INTERJECTION.

§ **218.** The ADVERB has no relations of concord or government. It takes its name from its leading office to qualify or aid the verb in expressing more definitely, comprehensively, and concisely, the idea it seeks to convey. It performs a similar service to the adjective, sometimes to other adverbs, to clauses of a sentence, to a whole sentence, and even to a noun or a preposition. It is, indeed, a kind of omnibus, and expresses in a single word what it would otherwise require several words to express. Hence, it is a very convenient word, and gives spirit, point, and power, to language.

§ **219.** Adverbs are very numerous, and are easily formed from other parts of speech; as,

1. From *adjectives*, by adding *ly*, or by changing the termination into *ly*. The *ly* is a contraction of *like*, and gives signification accordingly; as, *Brave* — bravelike, *bravely*. So of *sensibly*, *greatly*, *largely*, *humorously*, &c.

2. From *nouns*, and other words, by prefixes and suffixes in various forms; as, *Ashore*, *ahead*, *abed*, *aboard*, *abroad*, *aground*, *apart*, *astarboard*, *alarboard*, *awreck*, *away*, *along*, *afloat*, *aslant*, *askew*, *away*, *astride*, *coastwise*, *lengthwise*, *edgewise*, *otherwise*, *likewise*, *contrariwise*, *anywise*, *nowise*, *sideways*, *straitway*, *noway*, *whereabout*, *thereabout*, *hereabout*, *roundabout*, *wherefore*, *therefore*, *heretofore*, *before*, &c.

§ **220.** To a great extent, adverbs are compounded of other words, compressed in meaning as well as in form, as may readily be seen by tracing the etymology of those enumerated above, and this list could be increased indefinitely. For instance, *aslant* expresses what would require otherwise several words—'out of a perpendicular direction.' *Askew* — 'with a wry look'; *coastwise* — 'along the coast'; *lengthwise* — 'in a longitudinal direction'; *heretofore* — 'a time before that which is here or present.' These examples may serve to show how adverbs render language concise and forcible. They very readily combine other words for this purpose, and with great effect.

§ **221.** Adverbs are sometimes formed out of several words, which usage has placed in juxtaposition, and which are capable of being used separately or in combination; as, *Nevertheless, inasmuch*, &c. Each of these words is composed of three small words, which may be parsed separately or in combination.

§ **222.** Adverbs are often other words pressed, without alteration, into the service; as, *But*, commonly a conjunction, is made an adverb, in the sense of *only;* as, I have *but* to add.

§ **223.** *Yes, no, yea, nay*, frequently qualify the sentences that follow or precede them. They are uttered in affirmation or denial of something that is said, and therefore are not independent, but modify the subject affirmed or denied.

§ **224.** One negative only is used for negation. Two negatives in the same sentence give an affirmative sense; as, He comes not *un*frequently — i. e., frequently. Emphatic repetition does not come under this rule; as, I will never, *no, never*, submit to wrong.

§ **225.** Adverbs are sometimes used as nouns; as, I came

from *far;* from *here,* I return; I will write from *there;* till *then,* doubt me not.

Adverbs are sometimes *connective,* qualifying and connecting two sentences; as, I shall go *when* he comes.

§ **226.** Adverbs are classified according to their import; as,

1. Of *manner* or *quality;* as, *Chiefly, thus, so, well, ill, softly, bravely.*

2. Of *time;* as, *Now, yesterday, to-morrow, then, when, seldom, often, soon, while, whilst, already, still, since, ago, hereafter, hitherto, lately, presently, by-and-by.*

3. Of *place;* as, *Here, there, nowhere, hither, hitherto, whither, hence, thence, whence, whithersoever, separately, singly, collectively, wholly.*

4. Of *degree;* as, *Very, exceedingly, greatly, more, most, less, least, better, best, extremely, nearly, almost, enough.*

5. Of *cause;* as, *Therefore, wherefore, hence.*

6. Of *number;* as, *Once, twice, often, first, secondly, thirdly,* &c.

7. Of *doubt;* as, *Perhaps, possibly, perchance, peradventure.*

8. Of *affirmation;* as, *Yes, certainly.*

9. Of *negation;* as, *Nay, not, no, nowise.*

10. Of *direction;* as, *Upward, downward, forward, backward, homeward, hitherward, thitherward, heavenward.*

§ **227.** Adverbs should be carefully placed so as most clearly to show what word in the sentence they are designed to qualify.

They are usually placed *before* adjectives, *after* simple verbs, *between* the auxiliary and the verb.

Not is usually placed after the verb, with the present participle before it.

Never, *often*, *sometimes*, *always*, are generally placed before the verb.

Enough follows the adjective that is qualified.

There and *where*, emphatic, introduce the sentence.

Only, *merely*, *chiefly*, *first*, *at least*, should be carefully placed in connection with the words they qualify.

§ 228. The adverb is a very important member of the family of words, on account both of its numerical and practical power. It requires its proper place, and can never be put in a false position without diminishing the force or altering the meaning of language. We have seen how readily the adverb may combine with other words, or press them into its service — how concisely and comprehensively it can express thoughts — how directly it can modify, control, confirm, or reverse, the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a noun, a clause, a sentence. The use, and the right use, of the adverb, should be closely studied, well understood, carefully practised, by him who seeks for accuracy, copiousness, precision, or power, in speaking or writing.

Prepositions and adverbs agree in this—they both qualify the action or state expressed by the verb. They differ in this — that, while *adverbs* define the *manner* and *circumstances* of the action or state of the verb generally, *prepositions* are confined to the specific office of denoting its local relations.

§ 229. PREPOSITIONS connect words with one another — but differ from conjunctions, in that they exercise a government of case over the words that follow them, and show a relation between those words and other words in the sentence.

Prepositions and conjunctions, most of them, were other parts of speech, and therefore had a significancy not now

generally attributed to them. This may be exemplified in the conjunction *if*, which is derived from the Saxon verb *gifan* (give). But, except for etymological investigation, the learner need not be perplexed with these considerations. The character of the preposition is now well defined — it connects, shows a relation, and governs its noun in position and case.

The origin, however, of prepositions, already referred to, may be noticed in a class of words, such as *except*, *excepting*, *touching*, *notwithstanding*, *concerning*, &c., which are now in a process of change from the verb and participle to the preposition.

§ **230.** CONJUNCTIONS connect propositions. If words only — these words, when properly analyzed, are found to belong to different propositions. Conjunctions have no government, except, contingently, of mode.

Conjunctions are sometimes divided, properly enough, by their signification, into two classes — *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

The *former* simply connect their subjects; the *latter* also connect, but without entire coincidence; as, I submit, *but* protest.

The *copulative* conjunctions are — *And*, *also*, *because*, *both*, *for*, *if*, *since*, *that*, *then*, *therefore*, *wherefore*.

The *disjunctive* conjunctions are — *As*, *although*, *but*, *either*, *except*, *lest*, *neither*, *nor*, *or*, *provided*, *so*, *than*, *though*, *unless*, *whether*, *yet*, *still*, *ere*.

§ **231.** *Corresponding* conjunctions have a qualifying influence in the connection of sentences, either connecting more closely, or expressing opposition of meaning in a greater degree than the single conjunction; as, He is *both* good *and* great; he is *neither* good *nor* great.

Sometimes one of these corresponding words is an *adverb*, and sometimes a *pronoun*, while its corresponding signification is still preserved.

§ 232. *Both*, *either*, *neither*, and *whether*, are sometimes used as *adjective pronouns*. *That* is sometimes an *adjective pronoun*, and sometimes a *relative pronoun*. *For* and *except* are sometimes *prepositions*. *Since* and *but* are sometimes *prepositions*, and sometimes *adverbs*.

§ 233. The conjunction, whose office it is to connect together words and sentences, has its natural *position* between the words it connects. It is sometimes transposed for *poetic* effect — rarely, in *prose*.

§ 234. Conjunctions simply connect, without indicating relation.

§ 235. Adverbs sometimes connect sentences, and are called *Connective Adverbs*. They qualify while they connect; as, I will decide *when* I come.

§ 236. *Double* conjunctions are sometimes used with propriety, but only to give a shade of meaning demanded by the sense; as, God is love, *and yet* men refuse to love Him.

§ 237. INTERJECTIONS are words of exclamation, expressing, usually, sudden passion or emotion; as, *Ah me! Alas!*

Interjections are often disconnected from other words of the sentence, and usually commence it; but are suggested by, or suggest, the sentiments of contiguous sentences, and therefore are not so far *independent* as to take them out from grammatical arrangement.

REVIEW.

Chapter III. — The Verb.

174. What governs the Verb in Number and Person? 175. What is the form of the Verb in the *first* person singular? In the *second* person singular? In the *third* person? In the Tenses and Modes? In the plural number? 176. In what circumstances has the Verb a singular form? In what, a plural form? 177. What is the most important modification of the Verb? 178. Why called *Conjugation?* 179. What is a *Regular* Verb? *Regular* in what respect? 180. What an *Irregular* Verb? *Irregular* in what respect? How is the *irregular* verb *am* constructed? How is the *irregular* verb *go* constructed? 181. What is a *Defective* Verb? Difference between *irregular* and *defective?* 182. How may the learner find the conjugation of different verbs? 183. Give the formation of the *Indicative* tenses. 184. The Potential. 185. The Subjunctive. 186. The Imperative. 187. The Infinitive. 188. Participles. 189. What are Auxiliary Verbs? 190. What do *Modes* and *Tenses* express? 191. What does the Indicative express? Its tenses — Present? Imperfect? Perfect? Pluperfect? Future? Second Future? 192. What is the *manner* of the *Potential?* How are the various senses of the Potential expressed? What is said of the Potential *tenses?* 193. What does the *Subjunctive* Mode express? Why called *Subjunctive?* May it have the *Subjunctive* form and *Indicative* manner? What is said of the peculiar use of the Past Tense of the Subjunctive? Explain this subject. May the Modes and Tenses of the English Verb be regarded as deficient in perspicuity of expression? 194. What *manner* does the *Imperative* express? What *tense? Person? Nominative?* 195. What *manner* does the *Infinitive Mode* express? In what respects *indefinite?* What is said of discrepancy of *tense* in the use of the Infinitive with other modes and tenses? 196. What are the natural distinctions of *time?* How many subdivisions has *past time? Future?* Explain, by the use of the irregular verb *write.* Present Tense. Imperfect Tense. Perfect Tense. Pluperfect Tense. First Future Tense. Second Future. What is said of the English language for perspicuity? What is the nature of the difficulty it encounters in the expression of thought? 197. What is the import of the term *governed,* in the Rule applied to the *Infinitive?* 198.

Can the Infinitive Mode affirm or assert? 199. Can any assertion be made without a Finite Verb? 200. Of what does the Verb assert something? 201. What is the application of the terms *transitive* and *intransitive?* What is a *Transitive* Verb? 202. *Intransitive?* 203. What are the *Active* and *Passive* forms? The difference between them? 204. Does the *Intransitive* Verb admit the *Passive* form? 205. How is the *Active* form made *Passive?* 206. What is a *Predicate?* Why is the Verb so called? 207. What is said of a comprehensive *Indicative?* 208. *Participles*—what is their nature? What are their forms? Transitive? Intransitive? Active? Passive? What does the Present Participle ending in *ing* express? What does the Present Participle of an Active Verb express? Are these sometimes used *passively?* What is said of *building* and *being built?* Participle in *ing* used as a Noun—what is said of it? 209. How far are these distinctions in the Participle to be noticed? 210. What are Impersonal Verbs? Name them. 211. Give the *synopsis* of the verb *love,* in the *Passive* form. Subjunctive Mode. Imperative. 212. Give *synopsis* of the verb *to be.* 213. Give *synopsis* of verb *love, Active* form. 214. Explain the *Emphatic* form. 215. *Interrogative* form. 216. *Negative* form. 217. Give the *Imperfect Tense* and *Perfect Participle* of every irregular verb, as the *Indicative Present* is announced.

Chapter IV. — The Particles.

218. Do concord and government pertain to *Adverbs?* From what is their name derived? What words do they qualify? 219. Are they numerous? From what are they formed? 220. What is said of compound Adverbs? 221. Of words in juxtaposition? 222. Do other words often become Adverbs? 223. What is said of *yes, no, yea,* &c.? 224. What is the effect of two Negatives? 225. Are Adverbs used as Nouns? 226. How are they classified in import? 227. What is their position? 228. Their importance? 229. Define the *Preposition.* 230. *Conjunctions.* Two general divisions. Name the *Copulative* Conjunctions. The *Disjunctive.* 231. *Corresponding Conjunctions* are what? Are other parts of speech used *corresponding?* 232. *Both, either, neither? Whether? That? For, except? Since, but?* 233. *Position* of Conjunctions? 234. Conjunctions *do* what?—*not do,* what? 235. What are *connective Adverbs?* 236. Double Conjunctions? 237. *Interjections*—what? Do they belong to *grammatical arrangement?*

SYNTAX OF PART II.

CHAPTER I.

§ 238. The *analysis* of a sentence is in order to the *parsing* of its several words. *Language* — superinduced on a demand for a medium of communicating thought — has a natural and necessary construction. The *analysis* and *grammatical interpretation* of all the parts and all the words of a sentence, thus formed, and for such a purpose, constitutes a knowledge of Grammar.

§ 239. The *analysis* of a sentence — as it is necessary to a clear apprehension of its meaning — is the first step in *parsing*. This requires that the sentence be resolved into its simple parts, and that each of those parts, whether words or adjunct phrases, be referred to their proper grammatical relations.

§ 240. *Parsing* consists in designating the words of a sentence according to their several *parts of speech*, and their grammatical relations to one another, with the application of the Rules of Syntax for their government and agreement. Without these there can be no process of intelligent interpretation.

§ 241. *Government* is that power which one word may have over another in controlling its *position*, *number*, *person*, *gender*, *case*, *mode*, or any of its accidents.

§ 242. *Agreement* is the conformity one word has with another in *number*, *person*, *gender*, *case*, or any of its accidents.

§ 243. A *simple sentence* consists of a *noun* and a *verb:* as, Mar lives. Or it consists of a *subject* and its *predicate* — the thing o which something is asserted, and the terms of the affirmation: as Man, a child of mortality, is a living being. Here the noun i attended by an adjunct phrase, which, with the principal noun forms the *subject* — and the *verb* is attended by an adjunct phrase which, with the verb, forms the predicate.

§ **244.** The simple *noun* is called the *grammatical subject*, and the simple *verb*, the *grammatical predicate*. The *noun*, with its qualifying words, is called the *logical subject*, and the *verb*, with its qualifying words, the *logical predicate*.

§ **245.** A *compound sentence* contains two or more simple sentences, or what may be resolved into two or more simple sentences: as, Man lives, and thinks. It contains two or more subjects, *or* predicates, *or* objects, on which, by the supply of ellipses, two or more simple sentences may be constructed.

§ **246.** *Adjuncts* are qualifying words, phrases, or sentences, joined to a simple sentence, to amplify, limit, or qualify, its principal parts. These adjuncts may themselves be words, phrases, or sentences. An adjunct may be qualified by an adjunct.

§ **247.** *Sentences* may be conveniently designated also, as *principal*, and *adjunct:* as, "Whether it be considered a favor or an annoyance, you owe this letter to my habit of early rising." The last clause of this sentence, which contains the *Indicative* affirmation, is the *principal* sentence; and the first clause, introduced by *whether*, is the *adjunct* sentence.

§ **248.** A *phrase* is two or more words, grammatically arranged, but not constituting a distinct proposition: as, In the beginning—To speak plainly, &c.

§ **249.** In *analysis* and *parsing*, the words of a sentence must first be arranged in their natural, grammatical order. This order is often transposed in *prose*, but more frequently in *poetry*.

§ **250.** In the natural order the *nominative case*, or *subject*, comes *before* the *verb*—the *objective case*, or *object*, *after* the *verb*—the *possessive case*, immediately *before* the *noun* it possesses. The *pronoun* follows the construction of the *noun;* but, if it be a *relative*, it must be placed so that its *antecedent* may be obvious. The *adjective* has its natural place before the *noun*.

The *verb* follows its *nominative*—the *adverb*, in position *near* the *verb*, or so that its reference to related words may be most easily perceived.

The *preposition* is placed before its *objective case*, and in near connection with its related words or clauses—the *conjunction*, between the words, clauses, or sentences it connects—and the *interjection*, usually, before the word or sentence, which expresses the cause of the passion or emotion.

§ **251.** The following process of *analysis* and *parsing* is the natural one.

1. Resolve compound sentences into simple ones.

2. Designate the *noun* and *verb* of each simple sentence, with the *object* of the verb.

3. Designate the *adjuncts*, and qualifying clauses of these principal parts of the sentence, whether they be words or phrases.

4. Designate the *connective words*.

5. The *principal parts* of the sentence, the *noun* and *verb*, being designated—the relation of all the other words to these and to one another, and the connections, being arranged in their proper order in the mind — the grammatical construction of the sentence is obvious, and the rules of grammatical interpretation are readily applied.

§ **252.** *Parsing*, then, consists in a lucid arrangement of all the parts and words in a sentence. It is rather a *result* of *analysis*, than a process of induction leading to analysis. The true analysis of a sentence is the development of its grammatical construction. *Parsing* is merely a recital of relations thus discovered, and an application of the rules that govern these relations.

§ **253.** This process of analysis and grammatical construction should become so familiar, that it may not require attention separate from the exercise of reading itself. When the learner undertakes to analyze a sentence, the first effort he makes is to understand it. This, also, is the first effort of the mind in reading. This effort naturally directs his attention, *first* to the subject, *then* to the *predicate* or thing asserted, *then* to the *object*, *then* to the qualifying words, clauses, adjuncts and connectives. Thus he becomes a grammarian, and applies the principles of Grammar to the sentences *as he reads them*, with the same ease and familiarity that he develops the thoughts they are suited to convey to the mind.

CHAPTER II.

RULES, WITH CRITICAL OBSERVATIONS.

OF THE NOUN.

Rules for Nouns Nominative.

§254. RULE I. A *noun*, when the subject of a verb, is the nominative case, and governs the verb in number and person.

OBS. 1. — The rule requires the verb to agree with its noun or nominative in number and person.

OBS. 2. — Every nominative case, as the subject of a sentence, has its own verb, expressed or understood. Every sentence must have a noun nominative and a verb agreeing with it.

OBS. 3.—The *nominative case* to the verb may be a simple name, a verb in the infinitive mode, or any clause in a sentence, or even a sentence itself, whenever either of these is used as a subject. The same word, clause, or sentence may then be the *antecedent* to a relative, or the *subject* to an adjective: as, '*To be good* is to be happy;' '*Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart*, which is the first commandment with promise;' '*His dying without a will*, left a legacy of contention;' '*His being a son* makes him an heir.'

OBS. 4. — Two or more nominative cases connected by the conjunction *and* usually require a plural verb: as, 'John and James are brothers.' But when unity in the subject is implied, though composed of more than one nominative, the verb may be singular: as, 'Why is dust and ashes proud?'

OBS. 5. — Between two nominatives of different *numbers* or *persons*, the verb agrees with the *first:* as, 'His meat was locusts and wild honey;' 'Thou art the man.' But when the principal subject is the last, this controls the verb: 'The wages of sin is *death;*' 'Who art *thou?*' 'What are *we?*'

Obs. 6. — Two or more nominatives singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular number: as, 'John or James is in fault.' When two or more nominatives, connected by *and*, apply to one subject, the verb is singular: as, 'The patriot and statesman of Marshfield is no more.'

Obs. 7. — If two or more nominatives are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the *plural*, which should then be placed nearest to it: as, 'Neither honor nor riches are to be despised.'

Obs. 8.—The sense of the nominative, as implying *unity* or *plurality*, must determine the form of the verb. When different persons are named, it is generally required to use a verb for each: as, 'Either you are elected or I am.' 'News, means,' &c., are used either in the singular or plural.

Obs. 9. — A *collective* noun requires a verb to be in the singular or plural, according to the sense: as, 'Congress is in session:' 'The House are discussing the Tariff.'

Obs. 10.—*It*, used indefinitely, is always the nominative, requiring the singular verb: as, 'It is I;' 'It was they;' 'It was the soldiers.' *One* is also used indefinitely: as, 'One would think the world deranged.' *They* is also used indefinitely: as, 'They say.'

Obs. 11.—The *distributive* adjective pronouns require a singular verb: as, 'Each citizen owes allegiance;' 'Every citizen owes allegiance; 'Either is a competent witness;' 'Neither is a competent witness.' *Every*, however, is sometimes used as a *collective*, and has a *plural sense:* as, 'Every mountain and island were moved out of their places.'—*Rev.* vi. 14.

A distributive phrase constitutes a singular member, sometimes with a plural adjective: as, 'Full many a flower;' 'Many a day,' &c.

'One hundred head of cattle;' 'One hundred sail of the line;' A thousand foot and a thousand horse; 'A few; a great many; a hundred;' &c., are *plural.*

'Every twelvemonth;' 'A twelvemonth,' are *singular*, as a measure of unity.

Obs. 12.—The *adverb not* may exclude its noun from governing the verb: as, '*Honor*, not riches, *is* his aim.' But in this case riches is the nominative of a new sentence with a plural verb.

Obs. 13. — *Adjuncts* to a *singular* nominative may constitute it

plural, and require a plural verb: as, 'John, with James and Peter, constitute the committee;' 'But a small part of the soldiers were detailed.'

Obs. 14.—When a *relative pronoun* is nominative case to a verb, the *number* and *person* must be determined by the *antecedent*, with which the relative must agree.

Obs. 15.—A *participle* used as a *noun*, is called a *participial* or *verbal noun*, and may be in the *nominative* or *objective*, or even *possessive case:* as, 'His *being's* end and aim;' 'He felt that *writing's* truth;' 'In the *beginning;*' '*Dying* is but *going home.*'

Obs. 16.—Every phrase, parsed as a subject, should be analyzed, and the relations of its separate words grammatically traced out.

Obs. 17.—A few verbs are called impersonal, because they admit of no change of person. Yet the subject or nominative is implied in the anomalous form of the verb itself: as, '*Methinks,*' for 'I think;' '*methought,*' for 'I thought;' '*meseems,*' for 'I seem to myself;' '*melists,*' for 'I list.' In the phrases, 'As appears, as follows,' &c., *it*, understood, is the nominative to the verb.

Obs. 18.—The *imperative mode* does not usually express the nominative, but leaves it to be understood: as: 'Do good—be merciful,' &c. The quotations from Genesis—'Let there be light,' 'Let us make man'—are not exceptions. The *first* is a command of authority, and may be regarded as an appeal to that Almighty energy by which the creation was effected. The *latter* expression is in the form of exhortation, counsel, or co-operation—and in council, man was made. Or it may be regarded as a general form of command, to express a fact: as, 'He that heareth, *let him* hear.'

Obs. 19.—*Need* and *dare* are sometimes used in a general sense without a nominative: as, 'There *needed* no prophet to tell us that;' 'There *wanted* no advocates to secure the voice of the people.' It is better, however, to supply *it*, as a nominative, than admit an anomala. Sometimes, when intransitive, they have the plural form with a singular noun: as, 'He need not fear;' 'He dare not hurt you.'

Obs. 20.—If two or more nominatives are of different *persons*, the verb agrees with that placed nearest to it: as, 'Neither I nor my brother is eligible.' But it is better to say, 'I am not eligible, nor is my brother.'

Obs. 21.—In naming several persons, civility requires that the *second person*, or the person addressed, should be named *first* in order; and the *first person*, or the person speaking, *last*.

Obs. 22.—All words placed as captions, titles to books, to treatises, to paragraphs, or as signatures, &c., are abridged expressions, and are to be grammatically disposed of by adding such words as are necessary to complete a sentence: as, 'Chap. I.,' i. e. 'This chapter is the *first*,' or 'this is the *first* chapter.'

Obs. 23.—In *position*, the nominative naturally stands before the verb. But this order is varied: 1. In *interrogative* sentences: as, 'Believest thou?' 2. In the use of the imperative: as, 'Go thou.' 3. When the adverb *there* introduces a sentence: as, 'There is a calm.' 4. In poetic license. But when interrogative sentences employ two words in the predicate, the nominative is placed between them: as, 'Will he come?' 'Has he recovered?' 'Is he sick?' *Who*, *which* and *what*, interrogative, come before the verb: as, '*Who* is wise?'

§ **255.** Rule II. A *noun*, following an intransitive verb, is put in the same case with that before it, when both nouns refer to the same thing.

Obs. 1.—Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly the verb *to be*, and the passive verbs of *choosing*, *naming*, *appointing*, &c.: as, 'He was called John;' 'He became a disciple;' 'I thought it was he, but it was not he.'

Obs. 2.—In some instances, the intransitive verb takes a transitive sense, and must be construed accordingly: as, 'I dreamed a dream;' 'He run a race;' 'He lived a useful life;' 'He died a triumphant death;' 'He ascended a mountain;' 'He looked death in the face;' 'He stopped to breathe his horses;' 'We talked the hours of night away;' 'They laughed him to scorn,' &c.

Obs. 3.—When, by the construction of a sentence, an intransitive verb in the infinitive mode follows a transitive verb and its object, a noun may be in the objective case after the intransitive verb, to correspond with that before it: as, 'I supposed it to be *him*.'

Obs. 4.—The noun or pronoun used in predication must be construed in the nominative or objective, according to the Rules of

Syntax: as, '1 thought it was *he*' — not *him* — 'but it was not *he*.' The sentence, *it was he*, is the object of the transitive verb *thought*. But it is a simple sentence, and must conform as such to rule. *It* is nominative case to *was*, and *he* is nominative case after *was*. This construction is agreeable to the Latin idiom, where the omission of *quod*, *ut*, or *ne*, requires the *infinitive* and *accusative* to come in the place of a *nominative* and a *finite verb*: as, '*Nescire quid ac ciderit, antequam natus es, est semper esse puerum*,' requires th *te* in the accusative, before *esse*, because *quod*, or *ut*, is omitted And this requires *puerum* in the accusative, after *esse*, by the rule and not by an exception. '*To be ignorant of what happened befor you were born, is to be always a boy*.' Insert *quod* in the Latin, an it must read, *est quod semper es puer* — *that you are always a boy*. The elegance of the change in Latin is obvious. In that language, this idiom is very common. Ours is analogous — 'I thought it to be him, but it was not he.' But, in the example first given, the conjunction *that*, answering to *quod* in Latin, is implied, and must be inserted to complete the sentence — 'I thought that it was he, but it was not he.' I thought it to be *him*, but it was not he.

Obs. 5.—Therefore, when the conjunction *that* is omitted in English after a transitive verb, the noun nominative following it may be put in the objective and the verb in the infinitive mode: as, 'I believe him to be an honest man,' for 'I believe that he is an honest man;' 'He commanded the horse to be saddled,' for 'He commanded that the horse should be saddled;' 'I confess myself to be in fault,' for 'I confess that I am in fault;' 'Let him be punished,' for 'See that he is punished.' § 270, 285.

§ 256. RULE III. A *noun*, meaning the same thing with another noun, is placed in apposition with it in the same case, whether nominative or objective.

Obs. 1.—Nouns used for emphatic repetition belong to this class: as, '*Our fathers*, where are they? and *the prophets*, do they live for ever?' *Myself, himself, itself, themselves*, are often used for emphatic repetition: as, 'I *myself*, he *himself*, they *themselves*.' The objective form of the pronoun is preserved in the compound word for the sake of euphony, whether it be used in the nominative or objective case.

Emphatic repetition is common, and adds force to language: as, '*Gad*, a troop shall overcome *him*;' '*He* that heareth, let *him* hear,' which should be, '*Him* that heareth.'

Obs. 2. — A verb in the infinitive mode, a clause, or a sentence, possessing a substantive character, is often, under this rule, put in apposition with a noun, and a noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence: as, 'He aided me when I was poor, a *kindness* I shall always remember.'

Obs. 3.—First names and titles are by some grammarians parsed as in apposition with the principal name. Others parse such names and titles as compound nouns: as, 'General Zachary Taylor.' But since the first name and title are used to define the particular person meant, *General* and *Zachary* may properly be considered as *adjectives*. There are many men by the name of Taylor, but General Zachary Taylor is defined or described by the *two first words*. We, therefore, call them adjectives, without repudiating the other interpretation, nearly, if not quite, as well sustained. § 268, *Obs.* 2.

Obs. 4.—*Nouns* which mean the same thing are frequently connected by *as*: 'I preserve my diploma *as* an evidence of my graduation.' In this example, *as* may, as a conjunction, connect the two words *diploma* and *evidence*; or it may qualify a verb understood by supplying an ellipsis—'*as* I would preserve an evidence;' or it may govern *evidence*, as a preposition in the sense of *for*. Either of these interpretations will develope the true meaning. We prefer the last.

Obs. 5.—A title applied to a name common to two or more, belongs to a *collective noun*, and hence takes properly the plural form: as, 'The Messrs. Smith;' 'The Generals Benjamin and Franklin Pierce.' But if a numeral adjective is used, the plural form is given to the name only: as, 'The two Mr. Smiths.' We assign this class of words, therefore, to that of plural forms, rather than nouns in apposition. § 164, *Obs.* 11. § 342.

Obs. 6.—A noun nominative or objective in form, may be in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive case. But then they are considered as in the same case, with the possessive form omitted in the nouns; as, 'Here rests *his* head upon the lap of earth, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown.' *Youth* may be in apposition with *his*, the sign of the possessive omitted (Rule XIII., Obs. 7), or it may be in apposition with *head* (a part put for the whole, by *metonomy*), and nominative case to *rests*.

§ 257. RULE IV. A *noun*, the name of a person or thing addressed, is in the nominative case independent.

OBS. 1. — The nominative is the *naming* case, the name of the subject of the verb, the subject of discourse. When, therefore, a subject is named and has no definite predicate or verb, it is independent of the other parts of the sentence, and is in the nominative case: as, 'Welcome, illustrious *stranger*.'

OBS. 2. — Nouns in the nominative independent may always be supplied with verbs, or placed in apposition with other nominatives: as, 'Friends, give me your attention;' 'Friends, countrymen, lovers, hear me;' 'Come, gentle spring.' These names addressed are in apposition with the nominatives to the verbs, or are independent.

§ 258. RULE V. A *noun*, joined with a participle, and disjoined from the rest of the sentence, is the nominative case independent: as, 'The *sermon* being ended, the people dispersed' — i. e., when the *sermon* was ended; generally speaking, virtue has its reward even in this life — i. e., *we*, speaking generally. *We*, understood, is nominative independent with *speaking*.

OBS. 1. — The noun of this class is the *subject of the participle*, and may always be resolved into a simple sentence: as, 'When the sermon was ended;' 'As we generally speak,' &c.

§ 259. RULE VI. The *pronoun* relative is nominative case to the verb, which it governs, and must agree with the antecedent to which it refers in gender, number, and person.

OBS. 1.—The relative pronoun is here introduced in the arrangement of Rules, the *sixth* in number, because in this form of it, it is classed as the nominative. We here refer to its relation to the *antecedent*.

OBS. 2. — The Rules of Grammar must not be violated for mere convenience or brevity of expression. *All pronouns* must be controlled by the nouns to which they refer. We may properly say

'Neither John nor James may neglect *his* book;' but we cannot say, 'Neither John nor Mary may neglect *his* book.' We must say, 'Neither John may neglect *his* book, nor Mary *hers*.' *All pronouns* must agree with their antecedents in *gender*, *number*, and *person*.

Obs. 3.—If two or more nouns are connected by *and*, the pronoun is required to be in the plural number: as, 'John, James, and Mary, must study *their* books.' If connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun is singular: as, 'Neither John nor James may neglect *his* book.' If one of the antecedent nouns is plural, the pronoun referring to them must be plural: as, 'Neither John nor his brothers have neglected *their* books.'

Obs. 4.—The relative also agrees in gender with the antecedent as, 'The boys and girls, *who* belong to the *class which* has just been formed, must recite together;' 'John may recite to *his* sister—Jane to *her* brother.'

Obs. 5.—When nouns connected are of *different persons*, the form of the pronoun referring to them prefers the *first* person to the *second*, and the *second* to the *third*: as, 'You and he and I must render *our* account;' 'You and he must render *your* account.'

Obs. 6.—The neuter pronoun *it* often refers to nouns without regard to *gender*, *number*, or *person*—to clauses, sentences, or verbs in the infinitive mode, &c.

Obs. 7.—*This* and *these* refer to the *latter* or last-mentioned of two antecedents—*that* and *those* to the *former* or first-mentioned: as, '*Thieves* and *robbers* are greatly multiplied: *these* infest the country, *those* the city.'

Obs. 8.—The *antecedent* of the relative pronoun must be carefully traced, in order to interpret correctly the sense of the passage. *Who* refers to *persons*—*which* to *animals* and *things*. The use of *which*, referring to persons, sometimes found in the Scriptures and ancient writings, is now obsolete. To render this relation clear, great care should be used in the construction of sentences. Take an illustration—'A gentleman saw a lady drop a pocket-handkerchief in the mud, which he picked up, and put in his pocket.' Here he is made to put the *mud* in his pocket. The following arrangement makes the sense unequivocal: 'A gentleman saw a

lady drop in the mud a handkerchief, which he picked up, and put in his pocket.'

Obs. 9. — The pronoun *his*, and other pronouns in the *possessive* case, are often *antecedents* to relative pronouns; as, 'How admonitory is *his* end, *who* has died a drunkard!' 'How various *his* employments, *whom* the world calls idle!' 'Heaven be *their* resource, *who* have no other than the charity of the world;' 'The rill is tuneless to *his* ear, *who* feels no harmony within.'

Obs. 10.—When a relative and antecedent have each a verb, the *relative* is commonly nominative to the *first*, and the *antecedent* is nominative to the *second* verb: as, 'He, who excels, is promoted.'

Obs. 11.—The relative pronoun can relate to a *noun only*, as its antecedent, or that which is substituted for a noun. A grammatical construction not conformed to this rule is simply false.

Obs. 12. — The Anglo-Saxons used the pronoun masculine in referring to the neuter gender, as some modern languages do. The Scriptures, therefore, have frequently the use of *his* for *its* — a form of expression now obsolete: as, 'If the salt have lost *his* savor (*its* savor).

Obs. 13. — The position of the relative is generally before the verb and after the antecedent.

§ 260. *Objective Case.*

Nouns in the objective case may be governed by *transitive verbs*, by *participles*, or by *prepositions*.

The *subject* of the sentence, with the Rules that apply to it as the nominative case, have now been considered in the preceding *six* Rules.

The seventh Rule defines the relation and government of the *relative pronoun*, when it is used as the *object* instead of the *subject*. Its relations to the antecedent are the same in both forms. It is only necessary, therefore, to define the Rule itself.

§ 261. Rule VII. A *pronoun relative* is governed by the verb, or some other word, when the verb of the sentence depends on another subject as the nominative: as, 'You are the parent *whom* I love — to *whom* I am deeply indebted — *whose* welfare I seek — for *which* I labor.'

Obs. 1.—The compound pronoun *what* may be resolved into *that which, those which*, &c.: as, 'This is *what* I wanted' — *that which* I wanted.

Obs. 2. — *Whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever*, &c., are construed as compounds, like *what*: as, 'Whatever is, is right.'

Rules for Nouns Objective.

§ 262. Rule VIII. A *noun*, the object of a transitive verb or participle, is in the objective case, and is governed by the verb or participle.

Obs. 1. — This object may be a *noun*, a *pronoun*, a *substantive phrase*, or a *sentence*.

A *noun*: 'John loves *his book*.'

A *pronoun*: 'John loves *me*.'

A *phrase*: 'I desire *all to be present*.'

A *sentence*: 'Addison says, *everything is beautiful in its season*.'

Obs. 2. *Two objectives* sometimes come under the government of one active verb — by Rule IX.

Obs. 3. — Intransitive verbs admit an objective after them when used in a transitive sense: as, 'They laughed *him* to scorn;' 'He looked *him* in the face;' 'We talked the *night* away;' 'He returned the *money*;' 'The wind blows the chaff.' In the expression, 'The wind blows *a gale*,' *a gale* is adverbial, in the sense of *violently*.

Obs. 4. — Participles have the same government as their verbs: as, 'Believing the *report*, I acted accordingly;' 'Having heard the *evidence*, the court adjourned.'

Obs. 5.—The participle in *ing*, when used as a noun, may also, in its verbal character, govern the objective case: as, 'In *hearing* many *witnesses*, much time was consumed.' But, if the participle have an article before it, it should have a preposition after it, to govern the objective: as, 'In the hearing of many witnesses, the prisoner confessed his guilt.'

Obs. 6. — The objective case takes position, in its natural order, *after* the verb that governs it. But the *relative pronoun*, when it is made the object of the verb, comes *before* it. By transposition, also, in *poetry*, and sometimes in *prose*, the object is placed before the verb that governs it.

§ 263. RULE IX. *Two nouns* in the objective case, one of the person, the other of the thing, may follow and be governed by verbs which signify to *ask*, *teach*, *call*, *make*, *pay*, *allow*, *promise*, *constitute*, *offer*, &c.: as, 'He asked me a question;' 'He taught me grammar;' 'He called me John;' 'He paid me my price,' &c.

OBS. 1.—In most cases, where two objectives come after a transitive verb, one of the nouns may be governed by a preposition. But the action of the verb often passes over so directly on both objects, that it has come to be adopted as a rule in grammar to assign to the verb the government of both. This is in analogy with the Latin.

§ 264. RULE X. *Two nouns*, the objects of a transitive verb, yield one as the nominative, when the verb takes the passive form: as, 'I was asked a question by him;' 'I was taught grammar by him;' 'I was called John;' 'I was paid my price,' &c.

§ 265. RULE XI. A *noun* in the objective case may be governed by a preposition which shows its relation in the sentence.

OBS. 1.—The word governed by a preposition is always a noun in its character, and objective in relation to the preposition, whether it be a single word, a phrase, or a sentence.

OBS. 2.—The word to which the object of the preposition stands related is usually a verb, a noun, or an adjective, sometimes a pronoun or an adverb.

OBS. 3.—Any word which does the office of a preposition takes its character. *Conjunctions* are sometimes used for prepositions: as, *But*, in the sense of *except*; *ere*, for *before*—'All escaped, *but* one;' 'He is dead *ere* this.' *Participles* are sometimes used for prepositions: *concerning*, for *in regard to*; *respecting*, for *in respect to*, &c. These, however, are often parsed as participles, and, as such, made to govern the objective case. Where words can plainly be used in their original character, it is best so to construe them.

Obs. 4.—*Than* and *as* are sometimes used so as to give them a prepositional character: as, 'Cæsar, *than* whom none was greater.' This form of expression is not uncommon. The same construction sometimes admits *as* to the office of a preposition: as, 'I respect him more *as* a Christian than *as* a king'—than in the character of a king.

Than and *as* should never be used as prepositions, where, as in comparative sentences, they can take the place of *conjunctions* or *adverbs:* as, 'Christ died to redeem such rebels as *I am*,' not as *me*.

Obs. 5.—*Double* or *compound prepositions* are sometimes used. They should, however, be avoided or separately parsed, whenever the construction will permit.

Obs. 6.—*As to, as for, aboard of, but for, instead of, out of*—these words may usually be divided, and the first word of each pair be parsed as an adverb. For example—'As to this argument, it is a sophism'—'as it relates to this argument.' *As* qualifies *relates*. 'They came *out* of great tribulation'—*out* qualifies *came*.

Obs. 7.—*Despite of, devoid of, previous to,* are found in such relations, that the first word belongs to a noun as an *adjective:* as, 'He is *devoid* of fear;' 'He used the time *previous* to office-hours.' Or these may be sometimes construed adverbially: as, 'He arrived previous to the time appointed.'

Obs. 8.—*From among, from between, from off*—in the use of these, the first word, as a preposition, usually governs the whole clause following, while the second preposition governs its own object: as, 'One came out from among the tombs;' 'There came forth a light from between the cherubim;' 'There went up incense from off the altar.'

Obs. 9.—*In lieu of, in regard to, in respect to, in spite of*—in these phrases, the first word, as a preposition, governs the second as a noun: as, 'I return love *in lieu* of hatred—forbearance *in spite* of provocation;' '*In regard* to my motives you mistake;' '*I respect* to yours, I venture no judgment.'

Obs. 10.—*Allowing, according, considering, concerning, during respecting, supposing, excepting, notwithstanding*—these are sometimes used and classed as prepositions, but can often be parsed more in accordance with the sense as participles. When used a

prepositions they must always show a relation between their object and some other word: as, 'I speak concerning charity.'

Obs. 11.—*A* is sometimes used in the sense of a preposition: as, 'The gale drove the vessel *a* wreck'—*to* wreck; 'There is evil *a* brewing;' 'He set the people *a* reading;' 'He went *a* hunting—*a* fishing.'

Obs. 12.—In the *use of prepositions*, reference must be had to the sense of the related words before and after them. They generally follow *nouns*, *verbs*, or *adjectives*.

Obs. 13.—The construction of prepositions after *nouns*. We say, 'abhorrence, acknowledgment, betrayal, diminution, independence, need, reduction, righteousness *of*'—we say, 'aversion, exception, regard, union *to*'—we say, 'accordance, compassion, compliance *with*'—we say, 'concurrence, confidence, difficulty, tuition *in*'—we say, exception, regard *to*, prejudice *against*,' &c.

Obs. 14.—In the construction of *prepositions* with *verbs*, we say, 'accuse, acquit, disapprove *of*; accord *with* or *to*; ask *of*, *for*, or *after*; bestow *upon*; concur *with* or *in*; copy *from* or *after*; profit *by*; prevail *with*, *on*, *upon*, or *against*; vest *in* or *with*; wait *on* or *upon*,' &c.

Obs. 15.—In the construction of *prepositions* with adjectives, we say, 'agreeable *to*; beloved *by*; comparable *with*; dependent *on*; expert *in*; necessary *for*; sure *of*; free *from*.'

Obs. 16.—In regard to *place*, *to* is used after verbs of motion to a place: as, 'He went *to* England, France, Iowa,' &c.

At or *in* is used after the verb *to be*: as, 'He is *at* or *in* Washington, Boston, Paris,' &c.

In is used to denote *residence*: as, "He lives *in* Washington, Boston, Paris,' &c.

At is used to designate houses of residence, marked locations, foreign courts, or cities: as, 'He resides *at* Valley Forge; *at* the Orkneys; *at* St. James's; *at* Washington; *at* Rome.'

In designates streets of a city, and *at* the dwellings in the streets: as, 'He resides *at* No. 3, *in* State street.'

Obs. 17.—The particular prepositions to be used must depend on the sense in each particular case. We may, for example, '*fall* off or from, to or into, on or upon, in or into' a place. We may

'accommodate, compare, adapt, reconcile, reduce, unite *to*.' We may '*rest* on or upon, in or within' a place.

OBS. 18.—Except for poetic measure, the preposition should not be transposed from its natural position before its object.

OBS. 19.—The preposition and its object should generally be placed as near as possible to its related word.

§ **266.** RULE XII. A *noun*, signifying *time, place, distance, measure, direction, quantity, value*, &c., may be in the objective case, without any word to govern it: as, 'He lived a century;' 'He went home;' 'He walked a mile;' 'He weighed ninety pounds;' 'He measured six feet;' 'He went his way;' 'He weighed twenty pounds more than his brother;' 'Heat the furnace *one-seven times* more than it is wont to be heated;' 'The cap is worth a dime' —worth qualifies cap; 'It is not worth my while'—while is a noun.

OBS. 1.—Nouns under this rule may be always governed by a preposition, by supplying an ellipsis.

RULE FOR THE NOUN POSSESSIVE.

§ **267.** RULE XIII. *Nouns* in the *possessive case* are governed by the nouns they possess.

OBS. 1.—Nouns of this class indicate possession, either of *ownership*, of *authorship*, or of *relation*.

First, of *ownership:* as, '*John's* book'—the property of John. *Secondly*, of *authorship:* as, 'Payson's works'—the *authorship* belongs to Payson. *Thirdly*, of *relation:* as, 'Boys' shoes'—shoes such as boys use; 'Childrens' shoes'—shoes such as children use. In each of these examples, all is implied that belongs to the possessive case of nouns.

OBS. 2.—The double possessive is interpreted in the same manner: as, 'Gould's Adams' Latin Grammar'—*Adams'* possesses Grammar by *authorship*—*Gould's* possesses Adams' Grammar by *authorship*—both are *Latin* Grammar.

OBS. 3.—The use of the apostrophe in the possessive is somewhat various and not well defined. To some extent it is regulated by

taste. But it must be subject, first to perspicuity, and then to euphony—always to rule.

Obs. 4.—When common possession by several persons is implied, the possessive form is applied to the last of two or more nouns: as, 'Smith and Brown's store.' But, if separate possession is implied, each of the two or more nouns requires the possessive form: as, 'Smith's and Brown's and Jones' stores.

Obs. 5.—When two or more nouns are so closely allied as to be all necessary to the definition, the possessive form is placed at the close: as, 'John Baptist's head;' 'Webster, Clay and Calhoun, the American Triumvirate's speeches.' In this example the three names are in the possessive, by virtue of the single application of the form, and they are all in apposition with *Triumvirate*. The same form of the possessive applies where several words together take a substantive character. 'He spoke of *the Author of Nature's* being responsible.'

Obs. 6.—When, of two nouns, one is explanatory of the other, the latter should have the possessive form: as, 'Brown, the goldsmith's, store.' But if the noun possessed be understood, either form is admissible: as, 'I purchased at Brown's, the goldsmith,' or at 'Brown, the goldmith's.'

Obs. 7.—The English *possessive* is the Latin *genitive*, and may be often expressed by the objective with the preposition *of*, to indicate its relation to the noun it possesses. This is frequently the most elegant and perspicuous form. It is better to say, 'This is a Psalm of David, the priest and king,' than to say, 'This is David's Psalm, the priest and king.'

Obs. 8.—Nouns plural that end in *s*, add the apostrophe only to form the possessive: as, 'Eagles' wings.'

Obs. 9.—Some nouns singular, ending in *s* or *ss*, and nouns end-in *ce*, add the apostrophe only: as, 'Mechanics' Fair;' 'For conscience' sake;' 'For goodness' sake.' This, however, is not done except when necessary to avoid the hissing sound of *s* doubled. We say, 'His Grace's presence.'

Obs. 10.—The possessive form is often loosely applied: as, 'This is a discovery of Newton's, or of Newton.' Either of these forms may be correct; meaning, in the first form, a discovery from among Newton's discoveries, or, in the second form, his by disco-

very. Precision sometimes requires special care in the use of the possessive. If I say, 'This is a portrait of mine, or my portrait,' it may mean a portrait *owned* by me. But if I say, 'A portrait of myself,' it is evident I mean my own likeness.

OBS. 11. — *Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs,* are used as substitutes for the ordinary form of the possessive adjective pronoun and noun: as, 'This hat is mine,' meaning my hat; 'This is yours;' 'The slate is his;' 'The pencil is hers;' 'The paper is ours, or yours, or theirs.' These possessives may be parsed as used for *my*, &c., defining *hat* implied. Either way gives the sense.

OBS. 12. — The participle in *ing*, when used as a noun, is sometimes, though not frequently, found in the possessive case: as, 'His *being's* end and aim;' 'He felt that *writing's* truth.'

RULE FOR THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 268. RULE XIV. *Adjectives, pronouns,* and *participles,* agree in *number* with the nouns they qualify or describe.

OBS. 1. — When pronouns are used to describe nouns, they take the character of adjectives, and agree with the nouns they describe. They are then called *adjective pronouns:* as, '*This* man, *these* men, *his* name, *her* name.' They must conform to their antecedents in *gender, number,* and *person.* They are singular or plural, according to the sense: as, '*None* (not any) *were* absent;' '*None* (not one) *was* absent.' '*Several* men;' 'Each in his *several* sphere.'

OBS. 2.—Nouns, when used to define or describe nouns, take the character of adjectives: as, 'An *iron* cage, a *brass* ring, a *gold* pencil.' § 256, *Obs.* 3.

OBS. 3. — Participles, when used to define or describe nouns, are called *participial adjectives:* as, 'He is a slandered man;' 'This is a standing rule.'

OBS. 4.—The ordinal numbers, *first, second,* &c., *one, each, every, either, neither,* are joined with nouns in the singular number.

OBS. 5.—Cardinal numbers, except *one,* viz., *two, three,* &c., *few, many, several, both,* require plural nouns.

OBS. 6. — Any adjective which can be used in a singular sense, is construed accordingly: as, 'Full many a flower;' 'Many a day. *Many* is here singular.

Obs. 7. — 'One hundred head of cattle;' 'One hundred sail of ships;' 'A thousand foot and twelve hundred horse:' these and similar expressions imply plurality, and are construed accordingly: so, 'A few, a great many, a hundred, a multitude.'

Obs. 8. — 'A ten-foot pole, a ten-gallon keg, a fifty-six-pound weight, a four-quart measure, a twelve-month:' these are units of measure, of weight, or of time, viz.: *a pole* containing the foot-measure ten times repeated; *a keg* containing the capacity of a gallon ten times repeated; *a weight* containing a pound fifty-six times repeated; *a measure* containing the capacity of a quart four times repeated; *a period of time* measured by a month twelve times repeated. § 337.

Obs. 9. — *A* sometimes modifies the adjective following it, and gives to it a positive meaning: as, 'A few were present'—that is, *some*, in distinction from *none*. Omit the article, and the sense is negative: 'Few were present'—that is, *not many*.

Obs. 10. — The article *the* is used with nouns either in the singular or plural number: as, '*The* man, *the* men.' It is also used to modify the sense of an adjective: as, 'He is the stronger of the two.' It is also used to modify the sense of an *adverb:* as, 'The *more* I know of him, the *better* I like him.'

Obs. 11. — When *two* objects are compared, the comparative is used — when more than two, the superlative: as, 'John is a better scholar than James; 'but Henry is the best of all.' The superlative is proper to be used in any case to designate the highest or lowest degree: as, 'John and James are good scholars; but John is the best.'

Obs. 12. — Double comparatives or superlatives, in English, are inadmissible. In the speech of Paul to Festus, the term 'the most straitest sect' is a literal translation from the Greek, but is not agreeable to the English idiom. Adverbs are sometimes properly used to give intensity to the superlative: as, 'The *very* straitest sect.' *Extremest, veriest,* and *chiefest,* are sometimes used by good writers. § 168, 338.

Obs. 13. — *Whichsoever, whosesoever, whatsoever,* indefinite adjective pronouns, are sometimes divided by the interposition of the noun to which they belong: as, 'Which argument soever;' 'Whose

property soever;' 'What name soever.' This form is regarded as euphonic and elegant, and is practised by the best writers. It does not change the grammatical construction; but *whose* and *soever* are to be parsed as the adjective pronoun, agreeing with the noun. The same occurs on the interposition of an adverb, taking the divided word as an *adverb*, or *adjective*, or a *pronoun*: as, 'How *much* soever we may feel their force;' 'How *high* soever.' Other words may be divided: as, 'To us ward.'

CHAPTER III.

RULES FOR THE VERB.

§ **269.** RULE XV. The verb is made to agree with the subject or nominative case in *number* and *person*.

OBS. 1. — The infinitive mode and the participle have no variations of form on account of number or person.

OBS. 2. — The variations of the verb to conform to the number and person of the nominative are principally in the auxiliaries, and in the irregular verb *be*. The two Formulas, given in Part I., of the regular verb *love* and the irregular verb *be*, will enable the learner readily to adapt and apply the variations to all other verbs.

§ **270.** RULE XVI. The verb in the infinitive mode is governed by the *verb*, *noun*, or *adjective*, that modifies it: as, 'I *hope* to see you;' 'I expect *you* to come;' 'It is *pleasant* to meet you.'

OBS. 1. — The infinitive mode is never used as a predicate, and has no nominative case. Hence its name, *infinitive* or *indefinite*. It is modified by the *word* on which it depends, and by which, therefore, it is said to be governed. This word is usually a *verb*, a *noun*, or an *adjective*.

OBS. 2.—The omission of the conjunction *that*, in compound sentences, often throws out the nominative, and elegantly employs the infinitive form of the verb, preceded by *than* or *as*, by which it is

governed: as, 'His argument was so abstruse *as* to be incomprehensible;' 'It needed nothing more *than* to be comprehended;' — for 'that it was incomprehensible,' and 'it needed nothing more, only *that* it should be comprehended;' — 'The object was so high *as* to be invisible' — for '*that* it was invisible.'

Than and *as*, when thus used, must submit to the general rule, and be parsed according to the sense in each particular case. Sometimes they have the qualifying sense of an *adverb*, and sometimes the governing sense of a preposition to the clause that follows them.

When the principal verb is transitive, the nominative becomes the objective, and the infinitive depends upon it: as, 'He commanded the boys to study their lessons' — for 'he commanded *that* the boys should study their lessons.' See Rule II., Obs. 4 and 5.

Obs. 3. — The infinitive sometimes follows, and depends upon, various other parts of speech or phrases: as, 'He was *inclined* to go;' 'He was *about* to go;' 'He was *threatening* to go;' 'He knew *how* to go;' 'Be so good *as* to sing.'

Obs. 4. — The infinitive is sometimes used independently: as, 'To be candid, you are in error.' This form of expression is common, and manifestly elliptical. Thus, 'If you will allow me to be candid,' &c.

Obs. 5. — Verbs that follow *bid*, *darē*, *make*, *feel*, *see*, *hear*, *need*, &c., are construed in the infinitive, without the sign *to* before them; as, 'He bid me *follow*;' 'I dare *follow*;' 'See him *weep*;' 'He felt the spear *pierce* his side;' 'Hear it *thunder*;' 'Who need *fear*?' &c.

Obs. 6. — The verb in the infinitive has a substantive meaning, and is frequently used as a noun, either in the nominative or objective case: as, '*To do good* is to obey God' — that is, 'doing good is to obey God.' *Doing* and *obeying* are the substantive forms of *to do* and *to obey* — they are substantives.

Obs. 7. — If the infinitive, or a participle of the intransitive verb *to be*, or of a passive verb of *naming*, *choosing*, &c., is used substantively, the noun or adjective which follows it partakes of the same character, and, with the verb or participle, forms the subject: as, '*To be good* is to be happy;' 'Being good is being happy;' 'Goodness constitutes happiness.' Here *good* and *happy* are used

indefinitely, and form a constituent part of the subject. So, 'To be a good man is praiseworthy.' Here *a good man* is used indefinitely, forming, with *to be*, the subject of the verb *is*. 'His being a good man is praiseworthy.' *Man* is neither the subject nor object of the sentence, nor has it any government. It is a *part* of the subject of the verb *is*, with which subject *praiseworthy* agrees as an adjective.

CHAPTER IV.

RULES FOR THE PARTICLES.

§ 271. RULE XVII. *Adverbs* qualify *verbs*, *participles*, *adjectives*, and *other adverbs*.

OBS. 1. — Adverbs sometimes qualify nouns: as, '*Even infants* recognize their friends.' They may qualify *prepositions:* as, 'He has read *almost through* Virgil;' 'He read the book almost *to* the end;' 'I arrived *just before* nightfall;' 'He went *directly under* the bridge.' They may qualify a *phrase* or *sentence:* as, 'He was *greatly in fault;*' '*Even in their ashes* live their wonted fires.' Some prefer to apply the qualifying sense of the adverb to the phrase that follows, instead of the preposition, in the second class of examples.

OBS. 2. — In most cases where adverbs stand at the commencement of a sentence, they qualify either what succeeds, or what precedes, or an ellipsis: as, '*Yes, no, therefore, then, however, well, why, there, now,* &c. In parsing, a close analysis should be applied, not only to assign adjuncts to their proper connections, but to each word its appropriate force, by designating its separate relations, and by supplying ellipses. Expletives and independent phrases should be carefully avoided, otherwise the language is liable to be rendered loose and indefinite. *Yes, no,* and words of this class, should be appropriately applied, as well as words of emphatic repetition; as in Pitt's celebrated conclusion of a speech

on the American Revolution: 'If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign soldier remained in my country, I would never lay down my arms — no, *never, never*, never!' This emphatic negative is full of force on the verb and on the declaration. Take its counterpart, our 'Declaration of Independence.' The unanimous *yea* that completed its adoption, re-echoed from a million of voices throug the land — that was any thing but an *expletive*. It qualified the declaration, and affirmed it. This illustration is made to enforce the position that this word, and adverbs of this class, should not be regarded as expletives, but, on the contrary, *especially emphatic*, giving power to language by strengthening and enforcing its import. The qualifying sense of these affirmatives and negatives, though separated from the rest of the sentence, is frequently very apparent and forcible.

Obs. 3. — A phrase or sentence is sometimes used adverbially, to qualify a word or sentence. But then the word or phrase used adverbially should be analysed, and each word parsed separately: as, 'He goes *with trembling step*;' 'I will go *before the house adjourns*.'

Obs. 4. — *Hence, thence*, and *whence*, imply the preposition *from*: as, 'Hence, *from this place*; thence, *from that place*; whence, *from which place*.' But the use of the preposition by good writers has given it authority. *From here, from there, from where*, are also sometimes used. They are adverbial, but should be parsed as nouns with their governing prepositions. *At once* and *by far* may be referred to the same class.

Obs. 5. — *Here, there*, and *where*, are used after verbs of motion, instead of *hither, thither*, and *whither*, except in solemn discourse.

Obs. 6. — *There* is used before a verb, to introduce a sentence in a general sense, for *euphony* or *emphasis*, without regard to place. But it, perhaps, never fails to have a qualifying sense of some sort, and should be made to do its office: as, 'There is mercy in every place' — i. e., 'Mercy is there in every place.'

Obs. 7. — *Where* is sometimes used for *in which*: as, 'He wrote a treatise on theology, *where* he broached many new theories.' *When, then, now*, and *while*, are used as *nouns*: as, 'Until *when*, until *then*, until *now*, there was peace;' 'A little *while*, and ye shall not see me.' *Then* and *often* are used as *adjectives*: as, 'The *then*

necessity was his justification;' '*Often* times;' 'Often infirmities,' &c. The sense here is sufficiently explicit, but the style is rendered harsh, and should be avoided.

OBS. 8. — *So* is often used elliptically for a noun or for a sentence: as, 'He never pays his debts—I was told *so*.' *So* is sometimes used in the sense of *if*, and introduces the subjunctive mode: '*So* he pay his debts, little is thought of how he gets the money.'

OBS. 9. — *Only*, *chiefly*, *merely*, *solely*, *also*, *too*, sometimes qualify nouns in the nature of adjectives: as, 'Not your boys only, but mine *also*, study well;' 'He *chiefly* was in fault;' 'Yet, not he *only* was guilty, but his brother *too*, and his cousin *also*.'

OBS. 10. — Two negatives, qualifying the same sentence, except in emphatic repetition, give an affirmative sense: as, 'It is not *un*common' — i. e., it is common; 'I will *not never* do it' — i. e., I will sometimes do it. Sometimes, however, the affirmative is thus elegantly expressed: as in Milton,

> '*Nor* did they *not* perceive the evil plight
> In which they were, or the fierce pain *not* feel.'

OBS. 11. — Compound adverbs, embracing two or more words, are sometimes, but rarely, indispensable. They should always be parsed separately, when the sense will admit. *To wit* may be parsed as a verb infinitive: as, 'I make you *to wit*' — to know. But it is usually considered an adverb, as is *videlicet* — viz. '*Now then*' has a combined and expressive reference to what has been said in connection with what is about to be said. '*And now*' is of similar import, connecting and qualifying. '*By the by*' — '*by and by*,' &c., are compound adverbs, incapable of separation. '*The sooner* it is done, *the better* it will be,' presents two compound adverbs, qualifying the verbs of the clauses to which they respectively belong.

OBS. 12. — The adverb *enough* is placed after the adjective it qualifies, and it then requires the adjective to be placed after the noun: as, 'A house large *enough* for the family.'

OBS. 13. — Adverbs are often used for *connectives*, qualifying the sentences they connect: as, 'He governs his children strictly, *whil* he loves them tenderly.'

Obs. 14. — Any word may be an adverb when used to qualify in an adverbial sense. Phrases and sentences are also often adverbial.

Obs. 15. — Adverbs are convertible into other parts of speech when used for them. *So* is sometimes used for an adjective, for a noun, or for a sentence: as, 'He is *liberal*—his brother is not *so*;' 'He is *ruining his fortune*—all his friends think *so*;' 'He is a good citizen—his brother is *so* too.'

Obs. 16.—*What* is sometimes used as an adverb in the sense of *partly*: as, '*What* with the cloak, and *what* with the roquelaur, I was encumbered.' *Adjectives* are used as adverbs: as, 'The wind blew *fresh*;' 'He grows *old*.'

§ 272. Rule XVIII. A *preposition* governs a noun in the objective case, and shows its relation to other words.

Obs. 1.—See Rule XII., a noun in the objective case governed by a preposition.

Obs. 2.—Prepositions place the nouns that depend upon them in the objective case. Besides the original noun, the grammatical object may be constituted of

A *pronoun*—'He is with *us*;'
An *adjective*—'Honor to *the brave*;'
An *adverb*—'Since *then*, he has returned;'
A *participle*—'In the *beginning*;'
A *phrase*—'Come out *from* among them;'
A *sentence*—'*To* where the broad ocean beats against the land.'

Obs. 3.—The antecedent term of a relation shown by a preposition may be a *noun*, an *adjective*, a *verb*, a *participle*, an *adverb*.

A *verb* and a *noun*—'Live *in* charity *with* all men.' The *adjective*—'*Joyful* in tribulation.' The *participle*—'*Living* in hope.' The *adverb*—'He sailed *almost* round the world.'

Obs. 4. — Prepositions sometimes have a qualifying sense on verbs.

Obs. 5. — Independent phrases, introduced by prepositions, find the antecedent terms of relation by supplying the ellipsis: as, 'As *for* me, my resolution is fixed'—i. e., as it may be *for* me.

Obs. 6.—Prepositions often use other parts of speech to perform their office. They are always defined by the relations they indicate: as, 'All *but* one escaped;' 'He said nothing *concerning* me;' 'Send *via* Boston;' 'He is *worth* a million;' 'Satan, *than* whom none higher sat.' Here, *than* and *but*, conjunctions, *concerning*, a participle, *via*, a noun, and *worth*, an adjective, are used as prepositions.

Obs. 7.—A participle, used as a preposition, can have no relation to a noun, to qualify or predicate, but only to show its relation.

Obs. 8.—*Prepositions* are sometimes syncopated: as, 'Five o'clock'—for 'five of the clock.' 'Coffee is quoted at fourteen *a* sixteen cents.' 'Thomas *a* Becket' is put for Thomas of Becket; 'Thomas *a* Kempis' for Thomas of Kempis. 'Fourteen *a* sixteen cents' is a contraction for *at*, showing the minimum and maximum prices.

Obs. 9.—Prepositions are sometimes incorporated with the noun: as, 'I go *a*-fishing;' 'He fell *a*sleep;' 'Come *a*board,' &c., meaning *at* or *to* fishing, *at* or *to* sleep, *on* board, and should be so parsed. So, also, '*a*foot;' '*a*-coming;' '*a*-dying.'

Obs. 10.—Prepositions are sometimes used as component parts of verbs in predication: as, 'He was laughed at;' 'The child was cared *for*,' &c.

§ 273. Rule XIX. Conjunctions connect words and sentences.

Obs. 1.—Conjunctions connect words of the same case only: as, 'John and James study.'

Obs. 2.—Conjunctions connect verbs of the same modes and tenses: as, 'John *loves* and *obeys* his parents.'

Obs. 3.—But conjunctions may connect verbs belonging to different parts of a compound sentence, or to different sentences; and then those verbs may be of different modes and tenses, each having generally its own nominative: as, '*If* I go, you must stay; 'I will go, *but* you must stay.'

Obs. 4.—After verbs of *doubting*, *fearing*, and *denying*, the conjunction *that* should be used: as, 'I do not fear *that* he may deceive me'—not *lest*; 'I do not doubt *that* he will come'—not *but that*, nor *but*, nor *but what*.

Obs. 5.—*Than*, commonly a conjunction, has the force of a preposition in such positions as the following: 'Satan, *than* whom none higher sat;' 'Thou shalt have no other gods *than* me;' 'The present is a crisis, *than* which none more serious has arisen.'

Obs. 6.—*As* has sometimes the force of a preposition: as, 'I have spoken of his character *as* a statesman.'

Obs. 7.—*Than* and *as* require a similar construction *after* as *before* them: as, 'He does more *than* you do—not so much *as* I do.'

Obs. 8.—*Than* and *as* are sometimes used as *relative pronouns*, after *such*, *more*, and *as*.

Example 1. 'He selected *such* men *as* were suited to the work.'

Example 2. 'He selected *more* men *than* were necessary.'

Example 3. 'He selected *as* many *as* were ready.'

Obs. 9.—In compound sentences, conjunctions correspond sometimes with *other conjunctions*—with *adverbs*—with *pronouns*.

Corresponding conjunctions.—*Example* 1. *Though—yet, still, nevertheless:* as, '*Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him—*nevertheless*, I will trust in him.'

Example 2. *Whether—or:* as, '*Whether* right *or* wrong, he is sincere.' *Whether* should not be *repeated* in the second clause with *or*.

Example 3. *Either—or:* as, 'He is *either* right *or* wrong.'

Example 4. *Neither—nor:* as, 'He is *neither* learned *nor* eloquent.'

Example 5. *Or—or* and *nor—nor*. These are sometimes elegantly used by the poets for *either—or*, and for *neither—nor*.

Example 6. *No—or* and *not—or* are used, and sometimes with effect, but should not be frequent.

Example 7. *Both—and:* as, 'Gold is valuable, *both* for use *and* for ornament.'

Conjunctions correspond with *adverbs*.

Example 1. 'One is *as* good *as* the other.'

Example 2. 'Be *so* good *as* to dine with me.'

Example 3. 'He is *so* faithless *that* none trust him.'

Corresponding adverbs also perform the double office of connecting and qualifying.

Example 1. *As—so:* as, '*As* the tree falleth, *so* it lieth.'

Example 2. *So—as:* as, 'No other vice is *so* pernicious *as* selfishness.'

Example 3. *Not only — but also:* as, 'He is *not only* great, *but also* good.'

A *conjunction* may correspond with an *adjective pronoun.*

Example 1. *Such—that:* as, '*Such* is his integrity, *that* all confide in him.'

Example 2. *Both—and:* as, '*Both* he *and* his brother were present.'

OBS. 10.—Relative pronouns perform the office of connectives. So do adverbs and prepositions. The relative always connects the sentence which contains the *antecedent* with that which belongs to the *relative:* as, 'He aims too low, *who* aims beneath the stars.' The *adverb:* as, 'Live *while* you live.' The *preposition:* as, 'We live *in* our children *after* we are dead.'

OBS. 11.—The conjunction *and* is suited to a closer relation than pertains between complex sentences. Its use, therefore, to introduce new sentences, and, much more, *paragraphs*, should be avoided. It is commonly expletive, and weakens the force of language.

OBS. 12. — Double conjunctions are sometimes used from necessity—but these should always be parsed separately, when practicable: as, 'He is rich, *and yet* he talks *as if* he were a poor man.' In this example, *and yet* is a compound conjunction, required to connect and show diversity of meaning between the two simple sentences. *As if* is a compound conjunction, but capable of analysis—thus, '*As* he would talk *if* he were a poor man.' *As*, then, becomes a connective *adverb*, qualifying *would talk*, understood; and *if* is a *conjunction*, connecting *would talk* with *were.*

OBS. 13. — The double connectives, *and now*, and *now then*, are frequently found introducing sentences. They are often very expressive. Take the discourse of Peter at the beautiful gate of the Temple: '*And now*, brethren, I wot that through ignorance ye did it, as did also your rulers.' The recitation of facts had been made, and a new aspect of the subject was to be introduced. *And* closely connects it with what had gone before. *Now* qualifies *wot*, while it concentrates all that had been said upon the sentence immediately pending. The two words are full of force in this relation. In the other example — *now then, now* calls attention to what is about to be said, while *then* refers to what had preceded, as being now present.

Obs. 14. — 'I know not *but what* the report is true.' This is inadmissible, in whatever sense *but what* may be disposed of. 'I know not *that* the report is true,' will give a correct grammatical construction. 'I *cannot but* believe,' must also be reduced to, 'I can *but* believe—I can *only* believe:' there is no alternative, or, 'I cannot help believing.

§ 274. Rule XX. Interjections are often independent exclamations, but sometimes qualify, by giving emphasis to, words and sentences: as, 'Ah, me! O miserable man!'

Obs. 1. — Interjections are often mere exclamations, and are unconnected by any well-defined grammatical rule, with what precedes or follows them. Yet, in composition, they must have some grammatical relation, as called forth by the particular sentiments expressed.

Obs. 2.—The uses of the interjection are:

First, A call of attention to something about to be said: as, 'Ho! every one that thirsteth;' 'Lo! the poor Indian:' or it is a simple call to attention: as, 'Halloo!'

Secondly, To give emphasis to some word or expression of significance: as, 'O, times! O, manners!' 'O, Lord, forgive!'

Thirdly, To express some sudden passion or emotion of the mind: as, 'Virtue, alas! how little honored;' 'Ah, me!' 'Oh! how cruel;' 'Alack!'

Fourthly, To cheer or applaud a person, an action, or a principle: as, 'Hurrah!' 'hail!'

Fifthly, An expression of contempt: as, 'Pshaw!' 'humph!' 'away!'

Sixthly, To express by various words, used out of their common relations, various emotions of surprise, or approbation, or reproof: as, 'Strange!' 'hark!' &c. But usually these are parsed by a supply of ellipses: 'This is strange!' 'Hark ye!' &c. So, with the salutations and valedictories, 'Welcome; adieu; good-bye: farewell.'

§275. Position and Arrangement of Words in Sentences.

The *noun nominative* is the subject and leading word of the sentence.

The *nominative case* usually stands *before* the verb: as, 'John reads.'

The nominative comes *after* the verb in the imperative mode: as, 'Go thou.'

Also, *after*, in interrogative sentences: as, 'Comest thou with blessing?'

Also, *after* the *auxiliary*: as, 'Dost thou come with blessing?'

Also, *after* the verb when the adverb *there* introduces the sentence: as, 'There is a calm for those who weep.'

Also, *after*, when the verb is in the imperative mode.

But *interrogative pronouns* stand *before* the verb: as, '*Who* are you?' '*What* is your name?' '*Which* is the elder?'

The *objective case* usually stands *after* the verb of which it is the object: as, 'John reads his *book* in *school*.'

But the relative pronoun, in the objective case, precedes the verb that governs it: as, 'The man whom I saw has left.'

When the objective is a relative or interrogative pronoun, it precedes both the verb and its nominative.

The *possessive case* comes before the noun it possesses.

Relative pronouns should be so placed that their relation to their antecedents may be readily perceived: always next to their antecedents, if the construction will allow it.

Personal pronouns follow the construction of nouns.

Adjectives, in natural position, belong before their nouns. But they are more frequently found in other positions, especially when they form a part of the predicate or thing asserted of the subject: as, 'Salt is *good*;' 'Honey is sweet.' A direct question will always bring them to the word they qualify, and into their natural position: as, 'Good *what?* — good salt;' 'Sweet *what?*—sweet honey.'

The *article* is always placed before the noun it defines.

The *verb* must follow the Rules as prescribed for its nominative and objective.

Adverbs should be placed so as clearly to show what word in the sentence they are designed to qualify.

They are usually placed *before* adjectives, *after* the simple verb, *between* the auxiliary and the verb.

Not is usually placed after the verb, with the present participle before it.

Never, often, always, sometimes, are generally placed before the verb.

Enough follows the adjective that it qualifies.

There and *where,* emphatic, introduce the sentence.

Only should be carefully placed in connection with the word it qualifies. So with *merely, chiefly, first, at least.*

Prepositions are placed before their objects. Except for poetic measure, they should not be transposed.

The preposition and its object should be placed as near as possible to the word related.

The particular prepositions to be used must depend on the sense. We may fall *off* or *from, to* or *into, on* or *upon,* a place. We may rest *on* or *upon, in* or *within,* a place. We may accommodate, adapt, compare, concur, incorporate, prevail, reconcile, write, or tax, *with.* We may have an abhorrence, love, fear, hope, expectation, *of* — an aversion *to* — a correspondence *with.* We may be affectionate *to* — sick *of* — cotemporaneous *with,* &c.

The *conjunction* is placed between the words or sentences it connects.

When it introduces a sentence, it connects that sentence with some other.

Conjunctions are sometimes transposed for poetic effect. Sometimes in prose they may be thrown out of their natural order, but not at the expense of perspicuity of expression.

Interjections should be used sparingly, and placed appropriately to express some passion or emotion worth the utterance.

REVIEW.

CHAPTER I. — What is *Analysis?* — What is *Parsing?* — What is Government? Agreement? — What is a Simple Sentence? A Compound Sentence? — What is a Predicate? An Adjunct? A Phrase? — What is the first step in analysis and parsing? — What is the natural order of position of the different parts of speech in a

sentence? A noun? Pronoun? Adjective? Article? Verb? Adverb? Preposition? Conjunction? Interjection?—What are the General Rules for parsing? The *First? Second? Third? Fourth? Fifth?*—Which is first in order, *analysis* or *parsing?*

CHAPTER II.—*Rules.*—What is Rule I.?—1. What is required of the verb?—2. What is necessary to constitute a sentence?—3. What may constitute a nominative?—4. What verb is required for two or more nominatives connected by *and?* 5. For two or more nominatives of different *numbers?* What is said of the principal subject?—6. What verb is required for two or more nominatives connected by *or* or *nor?* What, when *and* connects two or more nominatives applying to one subject?—What verb is required for two or more nominatives of different numbers, connected by *or* or *nor?*—8. What general sense of the nominative determines the *number* of the verb? What, if two or more nominatives be of different *persons?*—9. What verbs do collective nouns require?—10. What verb does *it*, used indefinitely, require? *One?*—11. What verbs do distributives require?—12. What effect has the adverb *not* before a verb?—13. How do adjuncts affect the number of nouns?—14. How are the number and person of relatives known?—15. In what *cases* may a verbal noun be used?—16. How are phrases to be parsed?—17. What is the nominative of impersonal verbs?—18. Nominative case of the imperative verb?—19. Nominative case of *need* and *dare?*—20. If nominatives be of different persons, how does the verb agree?—21. In the naming of *persons*, what order is required?—22. How are captions, titles, signatures, &c., parsed?—23. What is the natural position of the nominative? In what four cases does it vary from this?

What is Rule II.?—1. What verbs have the same case after as before them?—2. Are *intransitive* verbs sometimes *transitive?*—3. When may intransitive verbs have the objective before and after?—4. Nouns in predication, how construed?—5. When the conjunction *that* is omitted after transitive verbs, what changes follow?

What is Rule III.?—1. What nouns belong to this class? Examples.—2. What constitutes the noun in apposition?—3. How are first names or titles parsed?—4. Nouns connected by *as*, dispose of them.—5. Titles belonging to two or more in common?

What is Rule IV.? — 1. What, when a subject named has no verb? Example.—2. May they be supplied with verbs? Example.

What is Rule V.? — 1. May it be resolved into a simple sentence?

What is Rule VI.? — 1. Why *relative?* — 2. How are pronouns affected by antecedents? — 3. Number of the relative referring to plural noun, or several connected? — 4. Does it agree in gender with antecedent?—5. How, when antecedents are of different persons? — 6. How is the pronoun *it* used? — 7. *This* and *these, that* and *those?*—8. State and explain the importance that the relation of relative to antecedent should be carefully traced. — 9. Possessives as antecedents. — Order of the verbs of relative and antecedent. — 11. Can a relative have any thing but a noun for its antecedent? — 12. Position of the relative? — 13. What is said of *his* used for *it?*

What is Rule VII.? — When is the relative governed by the verb? — 1. How is the compound pronoun *what* used? — 2. *Whoever, whatsoever,* &c.?

What is Rule VIII.? — 1. What may constitute an objective? — 2. May one verb govern two objectives?—3. Do intransitive verbs become transitive? — 4. Can participles govern the objective? — 5. Can the verbal noun in *ing* govern an objective? — 6. What is the position of the objective?

What is Rule IX.? — What is Rule X.?

What is Rule XI.? — 1. What is the object of the preposition? — 2. To what does the object of the preposition relate? — 3. Are other words often used for prepositions? — 4. Are *than* and *as* sometimes prepositions? — 5. Are double prepositions used? — 6. *As to, as for,* &c., what of this class of prepositions? — 7. *Despite of, devoid of,* &c., what of this class? — 8. *From among, from between,* &c., what of this class? — 9. *In lieu of, in regard to,* &c., what of this class? — 10. *Allowing, according,* &c., what of this class? — 11. Is *a* sometimes used as a preposition? — 12. What do prepositions generally follow? — 13. Have prepositions a required construction? Give examples.—14. Give examples, with verbs.—15. Give examples, with adjectives. — 16. Use of prepositions in regard to place, residence, &c. — 17. How decide the use of the

preposition? — 18. May it be transposed? — 19. Where should it and its object be placed?

What is Rule XII.? — What is Rule XIII.? — 1. What do possessive nouns indicate? What are the three kinds of ownership? — 2. When is the double possessive used? Explain it. — 3. How is the apostrophe used in the possessive case? — 4. How, when possession is common to several? — 5. How, in a complex definition?—6. How, when one noun is explanatory?—7. What analogy of English possessive with Latin? — 8. Possessive of plurals that end in *s*?—9. Other forms, in *s*, *ss*, and *ce*?—10. Is there danger of applying the possessive loosely? — 11. *Mine*, *thine*, &c., how are they used? — 12. Can the participial noun in *ing* be possessive?

What is Rule XIV.? — 1. What are adjective pronouns? — 2. When do nouns become adjectives? — 3. What are participial adjectives?—4. How are ordinals joined to nouns?—5. How are cardinal numbers joined to nouns?—6. May plural adjectives be used in the singular?—7. State some idiomatic collective phrases. — 8. Units of measure, weight, or capacity, how are they construed? Examples. — 9. What effect has *a* to affirm or negate? — 10. The use of the article *the*?—11. The uses of the comparative and superlative in comparisons? — 12. Are double comparatives used? Superlative superlatives? — 13. *Whichever*, *whichsoever*, &c.?

CHAPTER III.—*Of the Verb.*—What is Rule XV.?—1. Have the infinitive and participle variations for number or person?—2. How do verbs vary for number and person? How can the learner acquire a knowledge of these variations?

What is Rule XVI.?—1. Why called *infinitive* mode?—2. What is the effect of omitting the conjunction *that* in compound sentences? *Than* and *as*?—3. On what different parts of speech may the infinitive depend? Examples.—4. Is the infinitive used independently?—5. When used without the component *to*?—6. Has the infinitive a substantive meaning? — 7. How and when are the infinitive and accompanying words used indefinitely?

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thence, &c., how parsed? — 5. *Here*, *there*, &c., how parsed? — 6. *There*, how used to introduce a sentence? — 7. *Where*, *when*, *then*, *while*, how used? — 8. *So*, how used? — 9. *Only*, *chiefly*, &c., are they sometimes adjectives? — 10. Two negatives, what is their effect? — 11. Compound adverbs, are they admissible? — 12. The adverb *enough*, dispose of it.—13. Connective adverbs, define them. —14. What constitutes an adverb?—15. May adverbs be used for other parts of speech? — 16. *What*, as an adverb.

What is Rule XVIII.?—1. Use of a preposition?—2. What may constitute the object of preposition?—3. What may the antecedent term be?—4. What do prepositions sometimes qualify?—5. Where antecedent terms in independent phrases? — 6. Are other words used for prepositions? Examples.—7. Participle used as a preposition? — 8. Prepositions syncopated?

What is Rule XIX.? — 1. What cases of words do conjunctions connect? — 2. What modes and tenses? — 3. May they connect different modes, cases, and tenses?—4. Where use the conjunction *that*? Examples.—5. *Than* a preposition?—6. *As* a preposition? — 7. *Whether*, corresponding to *or*? — 8. *Than* and *as*, construction? Used as relatives?—9. Corresponding conjunctions, adverbs, pronouns? — 10. Do relative pronouns connect? — 11. Use of *and*, as a connective? — 12. Are double conjunctives used? — 13. *And now*, *now then*? — 14. *But what*?

What is Rule XX.? — 1. What are interjections? — 2. What is their use? *First*? *Second*? *Third*? *Fourth*? *Fifth*? *Sixth*?

Position and Arrangement of Words in a Sentence. — 1. What is the leading word of a sentence?—2. What is the usual position of the nominative case? — 3. Usually before the verb. In what five cases does the nominative stand *after* the verb? — 4. What is the position of the interrogative pronoun? — 5. Position of the objective case?—6. But when the objective is a relative pronoun, what is its position in relation to the verb and its nominative?—7. What is the position of the possessive case?—8. How should the relative pronoun be placed with regard to its *antecedent*?—9. How are *personal pronouns* construed? — 10. Position of *adjectives*? — 11. *Natural* position before their nouns — are they often in other positions? — 12. Where is the *article* always found?—13. What is the

position of the *verb?* — 14. How should *adverbs* be placed? — 15. Where are they *usually* placed?—16. Where is *not* usually placed? —17. *Never, after, always, sometimes?* — 18. *Enough?*—19. *There* and *where?* — 20. *Only, merely, chiefly, first, at least?* — 21. Where are *prepositions* placed? — 22. Are prepositions ever transposed, and when? — 23. What position should the *preposition* and its object occupy?—24. What rule selects prepositions for use?—25. What is the position of the *conjunction?*—26. When it introduces a sentence? — 27. May conjunctions ever be transposed? — 28. What is said of *interjections?*

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§ 276. PARSING LESSONS,

Comprising all the Examples under the Rules, with a reference to each Rule and Observation where the Example is found.

Let these examples be parsed critically by the pupil. The Rules and principles involved will thereby become familiar, and fixed in the mind.

RULE I., *Obs.* 3. — To be good is to be happy. Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, which is the first commandment with promise. His dying without a will, left a legacy of contention. His being a son makes him an heir.

Obs. 4.—John and James *are* brothers. Why *is* dust and ashes proud?

Obs. 5. — His meat *was* locusts and wild honey. Thou *art* the man. The wages of sin *is* death. Who *art* thou? What *are* we?

Obs. 6.—John or James *is* in fault. The patriot and statesman of Marshfield *is* no more.

Obs. 7.—Neither honor nor riches *are* to be despised.

Obs. 8.—Either you *are* elected or I am.

Obs. 9. — Congress *is* in session. The House *are* discussing the Tariff.

Obs. 10.—It is I. It was they. It was the soldiers. One would think the world deranged. They say.

Obs. 11.—Each citizen *owes* allegiance. Every citizen *owes* allegiance. Either *is* a competent witness. Neither *is* a competent witness. Every mountain and island were moved out of their

places. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. One hundred head of cattle were driven to market. A few were sold. A twelvemonth was the term of service.

Obs. 12.—Honor, not riches, *is* his aim.

Obs. 13.—John, with James and Peter, *constitute* the committee.

Obs. 15.—His *being's* end and aim *are* one. He felt that *writing's* truth. In the *beginning*. *Dying* is but going home.

Obs. 17.—Methinks; methought; melists; melisted; meseems.

Obs. 18.—Do good. Be merciful. Let there be light. Let us make man.

Obs. 19.—There *needed* no prophet to tell us that. There *wanted* no advocates to secure the voice of the people. He *need* not fear. He *dare* not hurt you.

Obs. 20.—Neither I nor my brother *is* eligible. I *am* not eligible, nor *is* my brother.

Obs. 22.—Chapter I. Verse 8. Washington, March 4, 1853. Your obedient servant, Henry Clay.

RULE II., *Obs.* 1.—He was called John. He became a disciple. I thought it was he, but it was not he.

Obs. 2.—I dreamed a dream. He run a race. He lived a useful life. He died a triumphant death. He ascended a mountain. He looked death in the face. He stopped to breathe his horses. We talked the hours of night away. They laughed him to scorn.

Obs. 3.—I supposed it to be him.

Obs. 4.—I thought it was he, but it was not he. I thought it to be him, but it was not he.

Obs. 5.—I believe him to be an honest man. I believe that he is an honest man. He commanded the horse to be saddled. He commanded that the horse should be saddled. I confess myself to be in fault. I confess that I am in fault. Let him be punished. See that he is punished.

RULE III., *Obs.* 1.—Our fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever? I myself—he himself—they themselves, are all interested.

Obs. 2.—He aided me when I was poor, a kindness I shall always remember.

Obs. 3.—General Zachary Taylor.

Obs. 4.—I preserve my diploma as an evidence of my graduation

Obs. 5.—The Misses Smith were there. The Smiths were there. The Generals Benjamin and Franklin Pierce were father and son.

RULE IV., *Obs.* 1.—Welcome, illustrious stranger.

Obs. 2.—Friends, give me your attention. Friends, countrymen, lovers, hear me. Come, gentle spring.

Obs. 3.—The sermon being ended, the people dispersed. When the sermon was ended, the people dispersed.

RULE VI., *Obs.* 2.—Neither John nor James may neglect his book. Neither John may neglect his book, nor Mary hers.

Obs. 3.—John, James, and Mary, must study their books.

Obs. 4.—The boys and girls who belong to the class which has just been formed, must recite together. John may recite to his sister; Jane, to her brother.

Obs. 5.—You and he and I, must render our account. You and he must render your account.

Obs. 7.—Thieves and robbers are greatly multiplied. These infest the country—those, the city.

Obs. 8.—A gentleman saw a lady drop, in the mud, a pocket handkerchief, which he picked up and put in his pocket.

Obs. 9.—How admonitory is his end, who has died a drunkard. How various his employments, whom the world calls idle. Heaven be their resource, who have no other than the charity of the world.

Obs. 10.—He, who excels, is promoted.

Obs. 13.—If the salt have lost its savor, wherewith shall it be salted?

Objective Case.

RULE VII.—You are the parent whom I love, to whom I am deeply indebted, whose welfare I seek, for which I labor.

Obs. 1.—This is what I wanted.

Obs. 2.—Whatever is, is right.

RULE VIII., *Obs.* 1.—John loves his book. John loves me. I desire all to be present. Addison says—"Everything is beautiful in its season."

Obs. 3.—The wind blows the chaff. He returned the money. The wind blows a gale.

Obs. 4.—Believing the report, I acted accordingly. Having heard the evidence, the court adjourned.

Obs. 5.—In hearing many witnesses, much time was consumed. In the hearing of many witnesses, the prisoner confessed his guilt.

RULE IX.—He asked me a question. He taught me Grammar. He called me John. He paid me my price.

RULE X.—I was asked a question by him. I was taught Grammar by him. I was called John. I was paid my price.

RULE XI., *Obs.* 3.—All escaped but one. He is dead ere this.

Obs. 4.—Cæsar, than whom none was greater. I respect him more *as* a Christian than *as* a king. Christ died to redeem such rebels as I am.

Obs. 6.—As to this argument, it is a sophism. They came out of great tribulation.

Obs. 7.—He is devoid of fear. He used the time previous to office hours. He arrived previous to the time appointed.

Obs. 8.—One came out from among the tombs. There came forth a light from between the cherubim. There went up incense from off the altar.

Obs. 9.—I return love in lieu of hatred—forbearance, in spite of provocation. In regard to my motives, you mistake—in respect to yours, I venture no judgment.

Obs. 10.—I speak concerning charity.

Obs. 11.—The gale drove the vessel a-wreck. There is evil a-brewing. He set the people a-reading.

Obs. 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17.—I have an abhorrence of a man of duplicity. Though some may practise, all disapprove of deception. Not one is free from fault. All live in glass houses. The double-minded man may fall from his own self-complacency into the contempt of others.

—"O solitude, where are thy charms?"

RULE XII.—He lived a century. He went home. He walked a mile. He weighed ninety pounds. He measured six feet in height. He went his way. Heat the furnace one seven times more than it is wont to be heated.

RULE XIII., *Obs.* 1.—John's book is lost. Payson's works are stereotyped. Children's shoes are shoes for children.

Obs. 2.—Gould's Adams' Latin Grammar, is Adams' Grammar edited and revised by Gould.

Obs. 3, 4.—Smith and Brown's store is a store of dry-goods. Smith's, and Brown's, and Jones' stores are all for the sale of groceries.

Obs. 5.—John Baptist's head was given to a wicked woman for an act of folly. Webster, Clay, and Calhoun, the American Triumvirate's speeches.

Obs. 6.—Brown, the goldsmith's, store. I purchased at Brown's, the goldsmith. I purchased at Brown, the goldsmith's.

Obs. 7.—This is a Psalm of David, the priest and king.

Obs. 8.—The righteous shall soar as on eagles' wings.

Obs. 9.—The Mechanics' Fair was a grand affair. For goodness' sake and for conscience' sake, we will not hold our peace. His Grace's presence was a present grace.

Obs. 10.—This is a discovery of Newton's. This is a discovery of Newton. This is a portrait of mine. This is my portrait. This is a portrait of myself.

Obs. 11.—This hat is mine—that is yours—the slate is his—the pencil is hers—the paper is ours, yours or theirs.

Obs. 12.—That writing's truth set forth his being's end and aim.

RULE XIV., *Obs.* 1.—This man is wise. These men are wise. His name is honored. Her name is honored.

Obs. 2.—An iron cage, a brass ring, a gold pencil, each shows the noun used as an adjective.

Obs. 3.—He is a slandered man. This is a standing rule.

Obs. 4, 5, 6.—Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. Many a day have I mourned my folly.

Obs. 7.—One hundred head of cattle were slain for the occasion. One hundred sail of ships graced the imposing scene. A thousand foot and a thousand horse attended as a guard. A few men were there. A great many men were there. A hundred men were there.

Obs. 8.—What is the grammatical number of a "ten-foot pole, a ten-gallon keg, a fifty-six-pound weight, a four-quart measure?"

Obs. 9.—A few were present. Few were present.

Obs. 10.—He is the stronger of the two. The more I know him, the better I like him.

Obs. 11.—John is a better scholar than James, but Henry is the best of all. John and James are good scholars, but John is the best.

Obs. 12.—He belonged to the very straitest sect. They came from the extremest north. He is the chiefest among ten thousand. He is the veriest trifler among triflers.

Obs. 13.—The claims of duty are often resisted, how much soever their force may be felt. What interest soever may clash, duty is always the highest interest. Which lust soever may plead for indulgence, self-denial is the surest pleasure. If it be not positive happiness, it excludes positive misery.

RULE XV.—We receive what Providence gives.

RULE XVI.—I hope to see you. I expect you to come. It is pleasant to meet you.

Obs. 1, 2.—His argument was so abstruse as to be incomprehensible. It needed nothing more than to be comprehended. The object was so high as to be invisible. His argument was so abstruse that it was incomprehensible. It needed nothing more than that it should be comprehended. The object was so high that it was invisible. He commanded the boys to study their lessons. He commanded that the boys should study their lessons.

Obs. 3.—He was inclined to go. He was about to go. He was threatening to go. He knew how to go.

Obs. 4.—To be candid, you are in error.

Obs. 5.—He bid me follow. I dare follow. See him weep. He felt the spear pierce his side. Hear it thunder. Who need fear?

Obs. 6.—To do good is to obey God. Doing good is obeying God.

Obs. 7.—To be good is to be happy. Being good is being happy. Goodness is happiness. To be a good man is praiseworthy.

RULE XVII., *Obs.* 1.—Even infants recognize their friends. He has read almost through Virgil. I arrived just before nightfall. He was greatly in fault. Even in their ashes live their wonted fires.

Obs. 2.—If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign soldier remained in my country, I would never lay down my arms—no, never, never, never! Shall this resolution pass? Answer—yes, yes, yes!

Obs. 3. — He goes with trembling step. I will go before the house adjourns.

Obs. 4.—We soon go *hence.* From *whence* camest thou? From *thence,* we came to Rhegium.

Obs. 5. — I came *here,* from *where* the broad ocean leans against the land. *There* is the voice of many waters. From *there* I came. From *here* I go to *where,* I know not.

Obs. 6. — There is mercy in every place.

Obs. 7. — He wrote a treatise on theology, *where* he broached many new theories. Our country was settled by Europeans, in the seventeenth century: until *then,* it was inhabited by savages. From that time until *now,* it has rapidly advanced in population, in learning and the arts. At his majority, he inherits a large estate: until when, he must struggle with poverty. A *little while,* and ye shall see me no more. The *then* necessity was his justification. His often infirmities often times suspended his labors.

Obs. 8. — He never pays his debts — I told you *so.* And *so* he pays his debts, little is thought of how he gets the money.

Obs. 9. — *Not only* your boys, but mine *also,* study well. He *chiefly* was in fault; yet, not he *only* was guilty, but his cousin *also.* It was a mistake *merely,* that caused the difficulty — a mistake *solely.*

Obs. 10. — *Nor* did they *not* perceive the evil plight
In which they were, *or* the fierce pain *not* feel.

Obs. 11. — *Now then,* let us sum up the evidence, *to wit.*

Obs. 12. — He built a house large *enough* for the whole family.

Obs. 13. — He governs his children strictly, *while* he loves them tenderly.

Obs. 14, 15.—He is liberal—his brother is not *so.* He is ruining his fortune—all his friends say *so.* He is a good citizen — his brother is *so* too.

Obs. 16.—*What* with the cloak, and *what* with the roquelaur, I was greatly encumbered.

Rule XVIII., *Obs.* 2. — He is with *us.* Honor to *the brave.* Since *then,* he has returned. In the *beginning.* Come out from *among them.* To *where the broad ocean leans against the land.*

Obs. 3. — *Live* in *charity* with all men. We are *joyful* in tribulation, *living* in hope. He sailed *almost* round the world.

Obs. 4. — *As for* me, my resolution is fixed.

Obs. 5. — All *but* one escaped. He said nothing *concerning* me. Send *via* Boston. He is *worth* a million.

Obs. 7. — It is five o'clock. Coffee is quoted at 14 *a* 18 cents. Thomas *a* Becket and Thomas *a* Kempis were deeply devout.

RULE XIX., *Obs.* 1, 2, 3.—*John* and *James* study. John *loves* and *obeys* his parents. If I go, you must stay. I will go, but you must stay.

Obs. 4.—I do not doubt that he may deceive me. I do not doubt that he will come.

Obs. 5. — Then Satan, *than* whom none is more false. Thou shalt have no other gods *than* me. The present is a crisis, *than* which none more serious has arisen.

Obs. 6. — I have spoken of his character *as* a statesman.

Obs. 7. — He does more *than* you do — not so much *as* I do.

Obs. 8. — He selected such men *as* were suited to the work. He selected more men than were necessary. He selected *as* many *as* were ready.

Obs. 9. — *Though* he slay me, yet will I trust in him. *Whether* right *or* wrong, he is sincere. He is *either* right *or* wrong. He is *neither* learned *nor* eloquent. Gold is valuable, *both* for use *and* for ornament. One is *as* good *as* the other. Be *so* good *as* to dine with me. He is *so* faithless *that* none trust him. *As* the tree falleth, *so* it lieth. No other vice is *so* pernicious *as* selfishness. He is *not only* great, *but also* good. *Such* is his integrity *that* all men confide in him. *Both* he *and* his brother were present.

Obs. 10. — He aims too low, who aims beneath the stars. Live while you live. We live *in* our children *after* we are dead.

Obs. 12.—He is rich, *and yet* he talks *as if* he were a poor man.

Obs. 13.—*And now*, brethren, I wot that through ignorance ye did it, as did also your rulers.

Obs. 14.—I know not that the report is true. I can but believe that the report is true.

RULE XX., *Obs.* 1, 2, 3.—Ho, every one that thirsteth! Lo, the poor Indian! Halloo! O times! O manners! O Lord forgive! Virtue, alas, how little honored! Ah me! Oh, how cruel! Alack! Huzza! Hurra! Hail! Pshaw! Humph! Away! Strange! Hark! This is strange! Hark ye! Welcome! Adieu! Good-bye! Farewell!

PART III.

COMPRISING

IDIOM, DIFFICULT GRAMMATICAL CONSTRUCTIONS, OBSOLETE WORDS AND PHRASES, PARSING EXERCISES, AND PUNCTUATION.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

IDIOM.

IDIOM,

AND

FAULTY OR DIFFICULT EXPRESSIONS.

§ 277. By the *Idiom* of a language we mean *modes of expression* peculiar to it.

§ 278. These peculiar expressions, conformed in phrase to the genius of the language, have grown, partly out of necessity or convenience, partly suggested by the circumstances surrounding them, by the genius of the people or their modes of thinking or associating.

§ 279. Every language has its *Idiom*, or peculiar modes of expression, understood by long usage, and often of special force and power and beauty.

§ 280. The Idiom, in its formation, has practised a kind of poetic license, and yet it must be steadily held so far to grammatical rule as to avoid the solecism. The language becomes loose and unsettled just so far as we admit independent words, phrases, or sentences, and allow, under the name of Idioms, the introduction of strange expressions, which defy the rules of grammar, and spurn the authority of law.

This sort of disrespect to good government in letters should be rebuked, come from what source it may; and the authority of law should be asserted by all who seek the welfare of the republic of letters.

§ 281. Take, for instance, a very common expression, used by good writers, and therefore admitted by grammarians — I mean the use of the pluperfect auxiliary *had*, in such connections as this:

'I *had* rather go than stay'—instead of, 'I *would* rather go than stay.' The change is a slight one—of a single word, not affecting the euphony—hardly perceptible to the casual observer; but in violation of law, and incapable of harmonizing with the structure of the language. And, what is gained? what is the use? It can be made to express nothing more than the regular form expresses. It cannot even be made to express so much, nor express it so well. We must make a new grammar and a new dictionary before it can be admitted.

In regard to any sentence propounded for analysis, we are to inquire:—

1. Is it *English* in form?
2. If so, how is the sentence to be *analysed?*
3. What are the *government, agreement,* and *relations* of its words?

This solution is to be sought—

1. By tracing the *etymology* of the words from *other languages* or *our own.*
2. By their *import,* according to the philosophy of language, and their present use in signification.
3. By the *analogy* of the language *with itself* and with *other languages.*
4. A good English sentence requires not only English words, but a right collocation of them.

Solecisms should be rejected, though sustained by any limited amount of use called *good;* for no use can be *good* which is *bad.*

'I had rather go than stay'—is this *English?* If an extensive use affirms, we must call it English; yet the analysis is not easy. In this sentence, *go* is the principal verb, and *had* the auxiliary. *Had* is the preterite of *have,* and *had go* is a *solecism. Would go* is what is meant, and *had* must be considered as used for *would.* Why, then, not use *would?* 'I *would go* rather than stay' relieves the difficulty. *Rather* is an adverb of preference, and qualifies *go.* Nothing is gained by the substitution of *had* for *would,* while perspicuity is sacrificed. We submit, therefore, against *respectable use,* the plain English construction, 'I *would go,*' for 'I *had go.*' Other forms of expression, involving the same difficulty, must be disposed of in the same way: as, 'We had better go;' 'We had

best wait,' &c. — that is, 'We would better go,' or, 'It would be better to go;' 'It would be best to wait,' &c. § 344.

§ 282. The Idiom is intended to be epigrammatic, adverbial — to give vivacity, force, effect, to language. But this expression, attempted to be foisted in, is, in language, a *solecism* — in effect, an *impropriety*.

§ 283. It is very different with another innovation on the settled forms of speech, now attempted, in this age of progress and of building. We want to say, not only that 'a man *is building a house*,' but that *the house* is the *passive subject* of this active agency — is *in progress* — '*is building*,' or '*being built*.' There is a demand for such an idiom — hence, a *reason for it*. We need it; and when agreed upon and adopted, it will be of *real utility*. But in the other case, we *gain nothing*, and are the losers by the change. It ought, therefore, to be rejected. So of every form of expression which the fancy, or caprice, or carelessness, of even good writers, may introduce, but in violation of *grammatical form*, or which is established by the authority of a usage, *general*, *national*, and *present*. § 208, 321.

§ 284. Idiom, then, we define to be a peculiar mode of expression, adopted for convenience or effect by common consent — *not inconsistent with the genius of the language, and capable of being subjected to grammatical rule.*

§ 285. Such, for illustration, is the elegant construction, in the Latin, of the accusative and infinitive, substituted for the nominative and the finite verb, on the omission of *quod*, *ut*, or *ne*: as '*Nescire quid acciderit antequam natus es, est semper esse puerum*' — 'To be ignorant of what happened before you were born, *is to* be always a boy' — in effect, *declares*, *says*, or *acknowledges*, you are always a boy. In this sentence, the rule applies — 'When *quod*, *ut*, or *ne*, is omitted in Latin, the word which would otherwise be in the nominative is put in the accusative, and the verb in the infinitive mode. § 270, *Obs.* 2. § 255, *Obs.* 3–5. — Or, in the Greek, in the use of a participle for a substantive; and for both which we have analogies in the English: as,

ὁ πρασσων, the actor, masculine.
ἡ πρασσουσα, the actor, feminine.
το πρακτον, the active principle.

§ 286. Take another form of expression, sometimes quoted as an idiom, because found in a few good writers: — 'I thought it was *him*, but it was not *him*.' Here, contrary to all rule, the objective *him*, after the intransitive verb, is made to answer to the nominative, and is parsed as an anomaly, an indefinite term, an idiom. Why? Nothing is gained in perspicuity, in force, or even in euphony. It is just as easy to say in good, plain English, 'I thought it was *he*, but it was not *he*;' or, 'I thought it to be *him*, but it was not *he*.' § 255, *Obs.* 3—5.

§ 287. How different from this is another idiom, readily admitted, because convenient and even necessary, though a little awkward, where the object of an active verb with a preposition are incorporated in the predicate of the passive form, and the object of a qualifying phrase is made the passive subject: thus,

'They took possession of the city'—

'The city *was taken possession of* by them. § 327.

§ 288. Here something is gained. The copiousness of language is promoted; definite ideas are put in a new form, and in the use of words in their true, etymological sense; and a principle of construction is admitted, of wide and convenient application. It opens to us that whole range of expression in which not only the transitive, but some intransitive verbs are, with great practical utility, construed *passively*: such as, 'He *was laughed at*;' 'The decision *was appealed from*;' 'The business *is to be looked to, to be taken care of, to be seen after*, not *to be lost sight of, to be cared for*;' 'He is not *to be scoffed at, to be listened to, to be made use of*,' &c.

§ 289. Unless judicious distinctions are made—unless changes of real utility are adopted, and others, which violate good taste, rejected, good grammar and fair analogy are rejected. If we catch at every loose expression of every pretty writer, and adopt, because it is his, what perhaps he would himself repudiate on reflection, our good English — good enough as it is — will deteriorate, rather than improve, as it may and as it ought to improve in our use.

We therefore go as fully into an examination of the Idioms of the language as is consistent with a work of this sort, seeking to be just in criticism, and liberal in appreciating, and sometimes admitting, different forms of construction.

ENGLISH IDIOMS,

WITH A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES OF FALSE GRAMMAR IN COMMON USE, AND OF SENTENCES AND PHRASES OF DIFFICULT SOLUTION.

[The following collection of *Idioms* and difficult sentences should be *carefully studied*. A familiarity with them will furnish the student with a key to most of the difficulties of this sort in the language.]

As is conveniently appropriated to various, and sometimes to improper, uses.

§ 290. EXAMPLE 1.—'You excel in literature *as* in science' —i. e., '*as* you excel in science.' *As* is here a connective *adverb*, connecting and qualifying *excel*, with *excel* understood.

§ 291. EXAMPLE 2.—'He is *as* good *as* his word.' This is a sentence of some difficulty. The first *as* qualifies the adjective *good*, and therefore is an *adverb*. The second *as* must preserve a sense to answer the intention of the writer. It will not express the sense intended, to say, 'as good as his word *is*;' for that may be equivocal. His word may be reliable, or it may not. The sense intended is, that his conduct corresponds with his word, is like the import of his word, or according to his word. His word is the true exponent of his conduct. This makes the last *as* a *preposition* in the sense of *like*, or *according to*, and as such it governs *word*.

§ 292. EXAMPLE 3.—'He is *as* true *as* the sun.' This sentence may be interpreted like Ex. 2. But the true sense is evolved, perhaps with more precision, by making it a compound sentence: 'He is *as* true *as* the sun is.' Here, *sun* is made nominative to *is* understood, and the second *as* is a corresponding *adverb*, and qualifies *is* understood.

§ 293. EXAMPLE 4.—'My reasons for adopting him *as* my heir are *as* follow.' The last *as*, in this sentence, is a relative pronoun, and nominative case to *follow*, having for its antecedent '*such reasons*' understood — 'are *such reasons* as follow.' (See § 307.)

In sentences of this class the first *as* has been variously interpreted. *Heir* means the same thing as *him*, and with this view alone could be placed in *apposition*. But then what becomes of *as*? It is not expletive — it must have its meaning. Words and phrases are to be admitted as *indefinite* only from *necessity*. If parsed as a conjunction, connecting *heir* with *him*, it fails of giving the true expression — for they are identical in import: and this is the fact intended to be expressed. If *as* be taken instead of the preposition *for*, it will express the true meaning, "*for* my heir." *As* will then govern *heir* in the sense of a *preposition*. If the sentence should read, 'adopting him *to be* my heir,' then *heir* would be the objective after *to be*, as *him* would be the objective before it. Some would call *as* a conjunction, connecting *him* and *heir*. This may do. But there are sentences of similar construction, where it would be less admissible, and the views here given would be still more applicable. As, in the sentence, 'He stood *as* my security;' i. e., '*for* my security.' Expressions of this sort are common, and sometimes so varied, that some latitude must be allowed for the solution of each, according to the shades of difference in the sense. No iron rule can be prescribed for the solution of all grammatical difficulties — unless it be the general rule, that *the sense in which the word is employed shall determine its grammatical construction*. The *preposition*, *conjunction*, and *adverb* are used so interchangeably for one another, and even for other parts of speech, that this general rule becomes absolutely necessary to the correct analysis of sentences.

§ 294. EXAMPLE 5. — 'He is more eminent *as* a soldier than *as* a statesman' — *in the character* of a soldier. The force of a *preposition* is the obvious import of *as*. Some grammarians, not without reason, make *as* in such cases a conjunction, connecting the two nouns in apposition.

§ 295. EXAMPLE 6. — 'He was regarded *as* accountable for all the consequences.' There is but one way to dispose satisfactorily of the little word *as* in this example, which may introduce a frank inauguration of the *ellipsis* to its proper place in the analysis of sentences.

The *ellipsis* is a figure of Syntax, by which some word or words are *omitted*, which it is necessary to supply in order to complete

the construction of the sentence, but not essential to express the sense. The value of this figure is realized in almost every sentence, as scarcely a compound sentence is constructed without it. By the use of it style is less encumbered with words — more concise, more forcible. So accustomed are we to it, that these words are supplied in the mind almost unconsciously; and the construction is thus made perspicuous with a limited expenditure of language.

Let this be illustrated by the sentence before us: 'He was regarded *as* accountable for all the consequences.' This sentence is perspicuous: all attach the same meaning to *as*. It performs an important office. The sense would be developed if we should omit *as* — but then lamely. It must be where it is. Then, what is it? What is its name? What does it? It will not be sufficient to call it a *conjunction*, and dismiss it. What does it connect? As an *adverb* it cannot qualify the verb nor the adjective. The truth is, it implies an ellipsis, which gives it all its force and significancy; and this ellipsis must be supplied, before the mind is made to perceive that this ellipsis furnishes the true force and meaning accorded to the word. Thus, 'He was regarded *as he would be regarded, if he were* responsible for all the consequences.' *As* is, then, a *connective adverb*, connecting and qualifying *was regarded* with *would be regarded*, understood.

Every other attempt to dispose of *as* will be liable to objection, and be unsatisfactory. This example is selected, involving a large ellipsis, for illustration. It is always most satisfactory, when an ellipsis is to be supplied, to do it fully, with no stint of words, so far as the sense may require. The interpreter of language should never be afraid of the ellipsis, limiting it only to truth and fact.

§ 296. EXAMPLE 7. — 'I appreciate your recommendation *as* having contributed greatly to my success.' This example, somewhat varied, and involving a little more difficulty, must come under the same explanation with the preceding example. 'I appreciate your recommendation, *as* I appreciate a recommendation having contributed, or that has contributed greatly to my success.'

§ 297. EXAMPLE 8. — 'The recommendation, *as* a recommendation, said nothing; it was a mere introduction — or, merely an introduction.' *As* is here parsed most readily as a *preposition*: 'considered as, *in character of*, a recommendation.' An ellipsis

may be supplied, but less felicitously, and the *prepositional* sense is obvious. We dispute not, however, for a mere preference, where taste only is the ground of difference.

§ **298.** EXAMPLE 9.—*As if.* 'I treated him *as if* he were my son'—'*as* I *would have treated him*, if he were my son.' Take the example, 'It would often seem as though the preacher had no other object'—*as if*. *Though* is used in the sense of *if*, and interpreted as before.

§ **299.** EXAMPLE 10.—*As for.* '*As for* this argument, it is illogical'—*as it is* for this argument.

§ **300.** EXAMPLE 11.—*As to.* '*As to* this argument, it is illogical'—*as* it relates *to* this argument.

§ **301.** EXAMPLE 12.—*As to.* 'There can be no question *as to* which party has the right of the case'—*as* it relates *to* which party has the right in the case. *As* qualifies *relates*, and *to*, as a preposition, governs the clause of the sentence that follows it. Some would parse *as to* as a compound preposition; but the analysis is simple, on the principle involving a large class of compound words, and therefore to be preferred.

§ **302.** EXAMPLE 13.—*As well as.* 'You have rights *as well as* I'—'You have rights *as* I have rights.' *As*, in the last sentence, is manifestly a connective adverb, qualifying and connecting *have* and *have*. Introduce *as well*, expressed in the first sentence, and they will qualify *as*, which they precede. *As well*—*as* qualifies *well*, and *as well* qualifies *as*.

§ **303.** EXAMPLE 14.—*Inasmuch as.* '*Inasmuch as* this is admitted, let those rights be defined.' In this example, *inasmuch as* corresponds with the Latin phrase, so common in the orations of Cicero, '*Quæ cum ita sint*,' and implies a postulate, an admission, or a thing proved. 'Since matters are thus,' or 'since the case is so,' or simply 'since,' may be substituted in the example. But to avoid the adoption of irresponsible phrases, an analysis must be instituted. *Inasmuch*, then, is constituted of three distinct words—a preposition, *in;* an adverb, *as;* and an adjective pronoun, *much*. The adverb qualifies the adjective pronoun, which then performs the office of a noun, and is governed by the preposition. The second *as* qualifies the verb *admitted*. . . . But *inasmuch*

as has the import of a *conjunction*, equal to *since* or *because*, and may be parsed as such, connecting the two parts of the sentence—'*Since*, or *because*, this is admitted, let those rights be defined.'

§304. EXAMPLE 15.—*As regards*—*as appears.* These phrases are of very common use, and often introduce a sentence. In all such cases, and in all cases where the construction is not such as makes *as* a relative pronoun, the sentences may be regarded as elliptical, and be parsed accordingly.

'*As regards* myself, I am indifferent'—*as it regards* myself. *As* qualifies *regards*.

'*As appears* from the evidence, no action lies'—i. e., *as* it appears.

§305. EXAMPLE 16.—'The evidence may be stated *as follows*'—i. e., *as* it follows, or *as* the statement follows. Or, 'The argument may be summed up *as follows*'—*as it follows.*

§306. EXAMPLE 17.—'*As concerns* meum and tuum'—i. e., *as* it concerns, or *as* the right concerns meum and tuum.

§307. EXAMPLE 18.—'The arguments in the case may be summed up *as follows.*' *As follows* takes the singular form where it relates to a subject, although that subject may be expressed by plurality. If, however, *as* be a relative pronoun, referring to a *plural antecedent*, the verb it governs must have a *plural* form.

§308. EXAMPLE 19.—'Such friends *as* are made by adversity, are *as* gold that has been tried.' *As* are—*as* is a relative pronoun when it follows *such*, and is nominative case to *are*. *As* gold—*as* may govern *gold*, as a preposition in the sense of *like*, or may introduce a new sentence—*as gold is.*

§309. EXAMPLE 20.—'He hath died to redeem such a rebel *as* I am.' When a comparison of equality is instituted, as in this example, *as* introduces a new sentence, and cannot, as some writers use it, take the character of a preposition, unless *such* be omitted, and then *like* must be substituted for *as*.

Compound prepositions, *adverbs*, and *conjunctions*, should always, if possible, be resolved into their simple parts, and parsed accordingly.

§ 310. EXAMPLE 21.— *According to.* 'Proceed *according to* rule' — according your course to rule. *According* is a participle, agreeing with *thou* understood.

§ 311. EXAMPLE 22. — *In respect to.* 'In respect to him.' *Respect* is governed by *in* — *him*, by *to*.

In order that. '*In* order *that* justice may be done.' *Order* is governed by *in*, and *that* is a conjunction.

§ 312. EXAMPLE 23. — *In regard to.* 'In regard to him.' *Regard* is governed by *in*, and *him*, by *to*.

§ 313. EXAMPLE 24.—1. *From above.* 2. *From amidst.* 3. *From below.* 4. *From off.*

> 'To save himself and household *from amidst*
> A world devote to universal wreck.'

From governs the succeeding clause, and *amidst* governs world.

> 'He looked down *from above* the storm.'
> 'He looked *from below* the precipice.'
> 'He fell *from off* the crag.'

Each of these double prepositions performs a separate office, as in the first quotation. It is the analysis, made in the mind of the intelligent reader, if not stated in form.

§ 314. EXAMPLE 25. — 1. *Over against.* 2. *Out of.* 3. *Instead of.*—'Ida stands *over against* old Troy.' *Over* qualifies stands, and *against* governs Troy. 'He came *out of* much tribulation.' *Out* qualifies *came*, and *of* governs *tribulation*. 'They substituted gold *instead of* paper for currency.' *Instead* qualifies *substituted*, and *of* governs *paper*.

§ 315. EXAMPLE 26.—*What if. What though.* '*What* is the objection, *if* I did go?' '*What* wrong is done, *though* I stay away?' In these cases, *what*, in effect, asks a question, and is interrogative; *if* and *though* are conjunctions.

§ 316. EXAMPLE 27.—*And yet.* A few compound conjunctions are necessary to express a sense required, and which one cannot fully express. Take the following sentence for illustration: 'Many have accepted the invitation, *and yet* there is room.'

§ 317. EXAMPLE 28. — *But that.* 'I would myself define and defend your rights, *but that* it might conflict with your privilege.' *But* and *that* are both conjunctions, connecting the two sentences. It is not necessary to call them a compound conjunction, although they together express a sense different from either separately, and a sense which neither separately is adequate to express. Supply an ellipsis, and the meaning is plain: thus, 'I would myself define and defend your rights, *but for the reason* (or *only*) *that* it might conflict with your privilege.' *But* might be used without *that;* and for this, some would contend — but *that,* in this connection, is not without its force. In many cases, however, of this sort, simplicity and perspicuity allow the omission of *that.*

§ 318. EXAMPLE 29. — 'I cannot see *but what* it is so.' It should be — 'I cannot see *but that* it is so.' Then, *but* is an adverb in the sense of *only.* '*But what,*' in all forms of this sort, is inadmissible. *But that* may be substituted, omitting *that,* whenever the sense is clear without it. 'I cannot see, *but* (*only*) I can see *that* it is so.'

§ 319. EXAMPLE 30. — 1. '*To confess the truth.*' 2. '*To be plain.*' 3. '*To conclude.*'

Expressions of this class, used to introduce the sentence, are often disposed of as independent phrases. But they are ellipses, and can always be readily put in form, to show their true grammatical relations. The verb in the infinitive mode, here standing independent, will find a government in some expression — such as, 'If you will allow me *to confess* the truth — *to be plain* — *to conclude,* &c.

§ 320. EXAMPLE 31. — 'Thou shalt have no other gods *than me.*' This phrase is idiomatic in the use of *than* as a preposition; 'no gods other *than me.*' The *relation* held by *than* gives it, in this case, and in expressions of this class, all the characteristics of a preposition. This is not so clear, however, in other forms, where it is claimed for the same service. In comparison, the natural construction introduces a new sentence: as, 'Thou hast been wiser than I' — than *I have been.* Yet, some grammarians give *me* instead of *I* to be governed by *than,* and quote this very sentence from Southey to sustain it — 'Thou hast been wiser *than*

me.' And Wesley is made to support the same construction, in a sentence like the following: 'He died to redeem such a rebel *as me'*—not as *I am*. If any Rule of Grammar may be regarded as a *strong Rule*, claiming to *overrule* other Rules, it may be that which regulates the use of verbs, and demands a construction which shall give them their natural relations.

It is with no favoring notice we can refer to a tendency in this direction, among any who may be quoted as authority. It is probable that Milton has given a lead, by a violation as admissible as any that could occur. 'Then Satan — than whom none greater stood—' Here *whom* is substituted for *he*, by one of those poetic licenses that sometimes become licentious. None will doubt that, for euphony and poetic effect, this word is well chosen: and we admit it, and are then called on to admit a progeny of 'kith and kin,' down to cousins of the thirtieth degree. Such is, 'You thought it was *him*, but it was not *him*.' As an English scholar you thought no such thing. 'You thought it was *he*, but it was not *he*.'

§321. EXAMPLE 32. *'The house is building.' 'The house is being built.'* This is a form of expression of recent origin, though now very common. When improvements in arts or science, or changes in any department of human life and manners, demand a new word or form of expression, it must be invented. As 'Daguerreotype' is compounded of two words, applied to express an entirely new meaning, so, words already in use are made to bear new constructions, under the creation of new ideas, or modifications of old ones.

We want a form of the verb, present progressive, showing that a thing is in process of being accomplished, that a house is in process of erection, and for the expression of ideas of this class. "The house is building" is an active form, and hence objectionable. It cannot be used without reversing the active to a passive signification. Yet this is not anomalous; active verbs are sometimes used *passively:* 'The discourse reads well;' 'The cloth *tears* easily;' 'The goods sell rapidly;' 'The rosewood polishes finely.' And, in accordance with the examples given, we say of the sun, 'He is setting;' 'he is rising.' 'The house is *being built.*' This form uses the past time completed, though the form is passive. The passive form of the participle meets our necessities, perhaps, with

a less change from its natural import than the other. We have to choose between an active participle of the present time, '*building*,' and a passive participle, commonly used to signify completion — '*being built*.' Both are now in use, and are likely to continue in use. § 208, 283.

§ 322. EXAMPLE 33.—'The author's being unknown limited the sale of the book.' Idiomatic forms of this sort are very various The noun in the possessive has a participle, simple or compound, as the object possessed. Sometimes the whole phrase is made the nominative case to the verb, as in the example. The substantive phrase, 'The author's being unknown,' is nominative case to *limited*, and '*being unknown*' is used in an indefinite or general sense, having no definite grammatical construction, except as a part of the *substantive phrase*.

§ 323. EXAMPLE 34.—'There was a chance of *his recovering* his influence.' Here the present participle governs *influence* in the objective case, and then, as a noun, is governed in the objective by the preposition *of*, and governs *his* in the *possessive case*.

§ 324. EXAMPLE 35.—'The chain's *being composed* of many links made it rope-like.' Here, as in example 33, a substantive phrase is nominative to the verb, and a compound participle, *being composed*, is used indefinitely. *Chains* possesses the remaining part of the substantive phrase as its subject.

§ 325. EXAMPLE 36.—1. 'He felt that *writing's* power.' 2. 'His *being's* end and aim.'

In these examples the participle in *ing*, used as a noun, is in the *possessive* case. In other examples it is found in the *nominative* and in the *objective*, governing an objective, and itself governed by a preposition.

§ 326. EXAMPLE 37.—'He spoke of the author's *being responsible*,' or, 'He spoke of the author *as being responsible*.' This is sometimes improperly expressed thus, 'He spoke of the author being responsible.' *Author* must be in the possessive case.

'The Author of nature's *acting* upon us every moment produces the result.' In this example, the entire clause preceding the verb *produces* is the nominative case. *Acting* is the principal word, around which the others form '*The author of nature*' has, in its

entireness, a substantive character, and therefore the last word in the phrase takes the possessive form. § 267, *Obs.* 5.

The participle in *ing*, taking the character of a noun, may still, as a participle, govern the objective case after it. But if the article *the* precedes the participle, the objective after it is governed by the preposition *of:* as, 'The *supplying of* our wants takes more time than *enjoying* our superfluities.'

'This did not prevent John's being acknowledged and solemnly inaugurated Duke of Normandy.' Here, *prevent* is a transitive verb, and the following part of the sentence is its *object*. *John's* is possessive, with all the sentence that follows it. The passive participles *being acknowledged* and *inaugurated*, agree with *John's*. *Duke* is governed by a preposition understood — *for*, or *as*, Duke, or *in the office of* Duke of Normandy. This effects a perfect analysis of the sentence, developes the true sense, and avoids anomalies.

§ 327. EXAMPLE 38. — 1. '*Was appealed from.*' 2. '*Was laughed at.*' 3. 'The decision *was appealed from* by the executors' — 'They appealed from the decision.' 4. 'He *was laughed at* by them' — 'They laughed at him.'

This idiom is in frequent use. It becomes necessary sometimes to use the object of a qualifying phrase as the subject of the verb, rendered in the passive form; and then, the use of the preposition becomes necessary, in predication, fully to express the idea. The preposition becomes properly a part of the verb, as a compound word. The following are examples of this class: — 'Lessons *to be practised on;*' 'Things *to be thought of, to be looked to, to be cared for, to be seen after, to be scoffed at, to be guarded against, to be listened to.*'

Another form is still more complicated and anomalous in the passive form: as, 'They took possession of the city' — 'The city *was taken possession of* by them.' Here, the object-noun of the verb in the active form, with the preposition of a qualifying phrase or adjunct, are used indefinitely in predication, and the object of the preposition is made the nominative. This idiom is of reputable and frequent use. The following are examples of the same sort: — 'The money *was made use of* by the agent;' 'It *was taken care of* by him;' 'Duty *was lost sight of.*'

Sometimes also this construction in the passive form retains the

latter of two objectives (Rule X.): as, 'Is this insipid sameness to be envied them as an excellence.' § 287.

§ 328. EXAMPLE 39. — 1. 'The discourse *reads* well.' 2. 'The cloth *tears* easily.' 3. 'The goods *sell* rapidly.' 4. 'The rosewood *polishes* finely.'

This idiom is not uncommon, where the active form of the transitive verb involves a passive signification. Though peculiar, the expression is perspicuous, convenient, and definite.

§ 329. EXAMPLE 40. — 'I wish *that you would come*' — 'I wish *you to come.*' This form is in analogy with the Latin, when, in compound sentences, the conjunction *that* is omitted, the nominative becomes the objective, and the finite verb is put in the infinitive. This form is worthy of notice, in relation to collateral constructions which are sometimes connected with it. If the verb thus changed be *intransitive*, the change, which makes its nominative the object of the preceding verb, makes the noun after the verb to conform in case with that preceding it: as, 'I thought that it was *he*, but it was not he;' 'I thought it to be *him*, but it was not he;' 'Nescire quod acciderit antequam natus es, semper (te) esse puerum' — 'To be ignorant of what happened before you were born, is to be always a boy' — '*that* you should be always a boy.' *Ut* tu semper es puer — *quod* or *ut* omitted in Latin changes the nominative *tu* to the accusative *te*, and the verb to the infinitive mode. § 255, *Obs.* 4.

§ 330. EXAMPLE 41.—'*Lay—lie.*' '*Set—sit.*' These verbs are introduced here, because the manner in which their use is frequently confounded, shows that there is a *difficulty* in making the proper distinction between them, which is the source of *impropriety* of expression.

Lay signifies *to place — lie, to recline.*
Set signifies *to place — sit, to rest.*

'I will *lay* my weary limbs on the sofa.'
'I will *lie* down to rest on the sofa.'

Lay is a *transitive* verb — *lie* is *intransitive.*

'Set *your house* in order' — 'Sit thou here.'

Set may be used *transitively — sit*, always *intransitively.*

§331. EXAMPLE 42. — '*Save.*'

'All the conspirators, *save only he*,
Did that they did in envy of Great Cæsar.'

This word, in its present use, is introduced here, because it may be regarded as a '*poetic idiom.*'

The term '*poetic idiom*' is not without its *significancy*. The poets are often *hard driven* to complete their syllabic measure, and claim a *license* to use the 'King's English' — now, and here, the 'People's English'—in constructions to suit their purpose. Hence, we find in *poetry*, a *license*, a latitude of construction, not admitted in *prose* — sometimes transferred too freely to compositions less imaginative, and needing less the harmony of numbers. Poetry occupies an important place in *letters*, and the poets cannot well be spared; but it will not do to harness their Pegasus to the plough, the cart, or even the family carriage. His hoof spurns the sod — he moves on wings.

We allow, then, the poets a *license* — to take, for instance, a word out of its natural form, or natural order, or natural signification even, for their use. But they must return it to us, as good as they received it. *Such* is the word *save*, at the head of this article. It is the word *saved*, used in the sense of *excepted*, and changed in its form to complete the poetic measure. *He* is placed absolute, or independent, with the participle *saved*. And, when we come to parse it, we claim it in its original, proper character and sense — *saved*. Of similar import are the following: —

From Milton — 'To save himself and household from amidst
A world *devote* to universal ruin.'

From Coleridge — ''Tis *dedicate* to ruin.'

From Wordsworth — 'Regions *consecrate* to olden time.'

The use of the *poetic license* is found — 1. *In the transposition of words*, as in the following examples: —

'From peak to peak, the rattling crags *among*,
Leaps the *live thunder*.'

'*Him* from my childhood I have known.'
'He wanders earth *around*.'

'Heaven *trembles*, *roar* the mountains, *thunders* all the ground.'

'*No hive* hast thou, of hoarded sweets.'
A *transient calm* the happy scenes bestow.'

2. In a free use of *ellipses* and *antiquated* expressions: as,

'*Long were* to tell what I have seen.'
'Let each *as likes him best* his hours employ.'
'The brink of haunted stream'—i. e., *a* hunted stream.
'He knew *to sing* and *build* the lofty rhyme.'
'To whom thus Adam'—i. e., *spoke*.

3. In the use of *nor—nor* and *or—or* for *neither*—nor and *either*—or: as,

He riches gave, he intellectual strength,
To few, and therefore none commands to be
Or rich, *or* learned.'

4. Intransitive verbs are used transitively: as,

'He *mourned* no recreant friend.'

5. Adjectives are used for adverbs: as,

'*Gradual* sinks the breeze.'

6. The aphœresis is often used for completing the measure: as, *'gan*, for *began*—*e'er*, for *ever*.

§ 332. EXAMPLE 43.—*'It,'* indefinite.

It, the neuter pronoun, is used in an indefinite or general sense.

1. It is very conveniently and properly used in reference to a noun, in the *first*, *second*, or *third* person—in the *masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter* gender—and in the *singular* or *plural* number: as, 'It is I;' 'It is you;' 'It is he, she, or it;' 'It is the King—the Queen;' 'It is a tree;' 'It was the soldiers;' 'It was the commander.'

2. It is used in a still more indefinite sense in such expressions as these: 'It rains;' 'It snows;' 'It is cold;' 'Thou shalt not lord *it* over God's heritage.'

3. It is used to represent a sentence or phrase: as, 'It is true *that all men are mortal*."

4. A still more indefinite form is the following: 'It repents me.' Here *repents* is used in a transitive sense, and governs *me* as a reciprocal pronoun.

They is also used in an indefinite sense: as, 'They say.'

§ 333. EXAMPLE 44.—'*One*,' is used in an indefinite or general sense.

1. '*One* would think that infidelity had practised sufficiently to prove its value.'

2. 'Its advocates presume largely on *one's* credulity, in asking for the faith of mankind.'

3. 'To die for *one's* country is poetically called sweet.'

This word is used in an indefinite and general sense, to include classes and communities: as, in the first example, 'One would think'—*we* would think, or *people* would think that infidelity had practised,' &c. Or, in the second example: 'Its advocates presume largely on *one's* credulity'—on *our* credulity, or on *people's* credulity. In the third example: 'To die for one's country'—for *our* country.

§ 334. EXAMPLE 45.—'*We*,' in limitation to the singular.

We is used by the *monarch*, by the *editor*, by the *preacher*, sometimes by the general *writer* or *author*. This custom, well established and authorized, is probably not without a reason. The *monarch* represents the nation of which he is the ruler, and speaks for them. The *editor* speaks for the party he represents, or in consultation with friends or a co-partnership. The *preacher* represents a school, a doctrine, or opinions, held in common by his sect, and maintained by the fraternity, in the arguments he advances. The *writer* or *author* represents a class, a party, or a school.

That the term *we*, as thus used, embraces the idea of a *unity* and *plurality* combined, or a *plural unity*, is apparent from the forms of speech adopted. The editor says, '*We* admit the writer to our columns, but do not hold *ourself* responsible for all his opinions and reasonings.' And the monarch says, '*We* charge you on allegiance to *ourself*,' &c. There is a general sense, too, in which the term *we* is sometimes used in a wider circle. The very common term, '*We* think,' is equivalent to the term, '*It is thought*.' Both forms are intended to express a common or general sentiment.

'*We think* the policy of the government injudicious.' '*It is thought* the policy is injudicious.'

You, plural, is used for *thou*, and it employs also a singular verb. If *we* is used in deference to others, dividing responsibility, and diminishing the authority of self, *you* may be regarded as used in courtesy to another, giving him the consequence of plurality.

§ 335. EXAMPLE 46. — UNIT IN PLURALITY.

1. '*Full many a flower.*' 2. '*Many a day.*' 3. '*Many a time.*'

The adjective *many* is here used in a distributive sense, reducing it to a sense of *unity* with the singular noun. § 268, *Obs.* 6.

§ 336. EXAMPLE 47. — PLURALITY IN UNITY.

1. 'One hundred *head* of cattle.' 2. 'A hundred *sail* of the line.' 3. 'A thousand *foot*, and a thousand *horse*.' 4. 'A *few*;' 'a *great many*;' 'a *hundred people*.'

The noun is one in the sense of multitude, and takes a singular adjective: *plural*, in sense of numbers, and takes a plural verb. § 268, *Obs.* 7.

§ 337. EXAMPLE 48. — UNITS OF MEASURE, CAPACITY, WEIGHT, VALUE, TIME.

1. 'A *ten-foot* pole.'
2. 'A *ten-gallon* keg.'
3. 'A *fifty-six-pound* weight.'
4. 'A *four-quart* measure.'
5. 'A *thousand-dollar* salary.'
6. 'A *ten-dollar* note.'
7. 'A *thousand-pound* note.'
8. 'A *twelvemonth*.'

These are units of *measure*, *capacity*, *weight*, *value*, or *time*. A *pole*, containing the foot measure, ten times repeated. A *keg*, containing the capacity of a gallon, ten times repeated. A *weight*, containing a pound fifty-six times repeated. A *measure*, containing the capacity of a quart four times repeated. A *salary*, valued at *one* dollar, repeated a thousand times. A *note*, valued at a dollar, ten times repeated. A *note*, value of a pound, a thousand times repeated. A *period of time*, measured by a month twelve times repeated. § 268, *Obs.* 8.

§ 338. EXAMPLE 49.—'From the *extremest* north.'

"From every part of the United Kingdom — from France, from Switzerland and Germany, and from the *extremest* north of Europe, a march of emigration has been taken up such as the world never saw before."- *E. Everett, Trip. Treaty.*

This form of expression has high authority; yet it should be employed with caution. There is an appositeness and force, sometimes, in giving the superlative form to this word, which, in itself, expresses the superlative. Its proper force appears in the above example, where reference is made to a country in the extreme north, and yet of irregular limits, and where projections still farther north than that which is regarded as *extreme north*, present a jagged and undefined line of boundary. There is an indefiniteness in the term *north* which makes way for the propriety of this expression; and to cases of this class it must be limited.

'The *chiefest* among ten thousands.' — *Solomon's Song.* 'The *first* among equals,' is a true idea, and admits of the distinction here presented, between *chief* and *chiefest.*

The '*very chiefest* Apostle,' is still an advance on the superlative of the superlative — and 'the *most straitest* sect' — are all agreeable to the idiom of the Greek, in which the Apostle wrote, but are against the Rules of English Syntax.

Veriest is also used as a superlative of *very*, and not without propriety: as, 'He is the *veriest* fool, who bites himself to spite his neighbor.' A man may be a *very* fool, but another may be more of a fool than he. § 168; § 268, *Obs.* 12.

§ 339. EXAMPLE 50.—1. '*The rather.*' 2. '*The more — the better.*' 3. '*The which.*'

'*As little* will Spain draw any unfavorable inference from this refusal — *the rather* as the disclaimer affords assurance of a concurrence with France and England.' — *E. Everett,* (*Trip. Treaty.*)

'*As little*' — *as* qualifies *little*, and *little* qualifies the verb *draw.* '*The rather*' — this introduces a new sentence, and qualifies *draw* understood. Analysed, *the* has a qualifying influence on *rather*, as an adverb.

§ 340. — Of a similar character are expressions like the following: — '*The more* I know him, *the better* I like him.' In this sentence, *the* has a qualifying effect on the adverbs *more* and *better*, while each, as a compound adverb, qualifies the verb of the sentence.

'*The which*' is a form that changes the relative pronoun into a noun: as (Col. iii. 15), 'To *the which* ye are called.' But this is now obsolete.

§341. EXAMPLE 51. — 1. '*The first five lines.*' 2. '*The five first lines.*'

A poem has first *lines* as well as first *line*. There may be the two *tallest men* as well as the tallest *man*. 'The *first* years of a lawyer's practice were said to be very unprofitable, and these were the *two first years*.' 'The *last two years*,' or 'the *two last years*, raised him to the first eminence.' 'The *first four stanzas*,' or, 'the *four first stanzas*, of a hymn, may be sung now,' leaves no doubt of the meaning or propriety of the language by which the announcement is made.

§342. EXAMPLE 52. — 1. '*The Messrs. Baring.*' 2. '*The Misses Day.*' 3. '*The two Miss Days.*' 4. '*Mr. and Mrs. Day.*'

When a *firm*, or *family-name*, includes a *number*, it has the singular form, as a noun of *multitude:* as, we should say, '*A hundred foot*' — meaning soldiers; 'The Messrs. *Baring*' — meaning all the partners in the firm; 'The *Misses* Day' — meaning the two sisters. But, if a *numeral* is used, the name must be plural: as, 'The two *Days;*' 'The two Miss *Days.*' *Mr. and Mrs. Day* would follow the analogy of the first example — a family-name of multitude. After a practice of some variety, these rules are now generally admitted and generally practised. §256, *Obs.* 5. §164, *Obs.* 11.

§343. EXAMPLE 53. — 1. 'I know not *but what* the report is true.' 2. 'I *cannot but* believe it.'

'*But what*' is inadmissible. It is one of the things that are only fit to be thrown away. It may read, 'I know not *that* the report is true;' or, 'I know not *whether* the report be true;' or, 'I know not *but* the report be true' — and then *but* is used in the sense of *whether*.

'I *cannot but* believe it.' This sentence must be *remodelled*, before it can be parsed. 'I cannot do any other way but believe it;' 'I cannot do otherwise than believe it' — this is the sense. It is fairly expressed then by omitting *not* — 'I can *but* (*only*) believe it.' There is no alternative — I must believe it.

The force of this expression implies a negation of ability to disbelieve. If a more liberal interpretation is required, it may be admitted that *can not* implies a *negative assertion:* thus, '*I can not do* any thing but *this* — I believe it;' 'I cannot help believing.'

§ 344. EXAMPLE 54.—1. *'I had as lief stay.'* 2. *'He had better return.'* 3. *'I had rather remain.'* 4. *'I had ought to go.'* 5. *'It had like to have been worse.'*

These are very common forms of expression, but *not English*. *Had stay* is no form of any English verb, nor can it be made so, without a reconstruction of the tenses, and, in fact, a new system of lexicography. If this kind of discrepancy be admitted to the language, *nothing can be excluded*. When under *necessity* for a form to express a new or important idea, we must *make* the language to answer the *necessity*. But here is no *necessity*, no *need*, no *room*, to *allow* the *solecism*. The regular form is obvious, and as euphonic and as easily spoken as its absurd substitute. Thus, 'I *would* as lief stay;' 'He *would do* better to return;' 'I *would* rather remain;' 'I ought to go;' 'It *liked* to have been worse.'

'I go, I go rather than stay, I do go rather than stay, I did go rather than stay, I will go rather than stay, I would go rather than stay'—these sentences are all easily analysed and parsed. But, 'I *had go* rather than stay'—what will you do with that? Is *rather* a verb? If so, can *had* be used in any sense implying the present or the present prospective? Absurd. *Had rather*, as a *verb*, has no paternity. It cannot be deduced from any fair etymological authority, nor justified by any analogy. If respectable use be claimed for it—granted. But we propose the disuse of a phraseology which has no grammatical consistency, which is at war with good grammar, and withal entirely unnecessary to express what is intended by it. We claim this with the more confidence, since also *appropriate* words are at hand to answer our purpose.

If due attention is not paid to sentences of irregular construction, and great care used to veto and exclude them, our language will in process of time become, what even grammarians and teachers are too ready now to brand it, loose and unsettled in its grammatical structure. § 281, 282.

§ 345. EXAMPLE 55.—

1. 'I ought to have *went*,'	for 'I ought to have *gone*.'
2. 'He has *broke* his promise,'	" 'He has *broken* his promise.'
3. 'The sun has *rose*,'	" 'The sun has *risen*.'
4. 'I have *wrote* my letter,'	" 'I have *written* my letter.'
5. 'I *done* it in haste,'	" 'I *did* it in haste.'

6. 'The storm *begun* to subside,' for 'The storm *began* to subside.'
7. 'Having *began*, he persevered,' " 'Having *begun*, he persevered.'
8. 'I *sat* out on my journey,' " 'I *set* out on my journey.'
9. 'He still *plead* guilty,' " 'He still *pleaded* guilty.'

The use of the *perfect* and *imperfect* tenses interchangeably, is a material injury to the harmony of the language, as well as to its precision. This will be obvious to every reader of the examples, quoted above, of false grammar, with the corrections, arranged in parallel columns. These grammatical errors are more common in conversation than in written language, and quite common to young learners. Special care should be taken to make the right distinctions, and acquire a correct habit in the use of language in this particular.

§ 346. EXAMPLE 56.—

1. 'It was not *him*,' for 'It was not *he*.'
2. '*Him* and *me* are brothers,' " '*He* and *I* are brothers.'
3. '*Me* and *you* think alike,' " '*You* and *I* think alike.'
4. '*Them* are useless,' " '*These* are useless.'
5. '*Them there* are his,' " '*Those* are his.'
6. 'That *there* is yours,' " 'That is yours.'
7. 'This *here* is mine,' " 'This is mine.'

The use of the objective, either as the subject of the verb, or in predication, is unnecessary, subversive of the rules of grammatical construction, and to be resisted. It is enough to say that the subject is nominative case to the verb; the objective is governed by the verb that passes the action to the object, and the intransitive verb admits the same case after as before it. The examples of false grammar, therefore, stand corrected in the parallel column (Ex. 73). *There* and *here* — as in 'Them *there*,' 'That *there*,' and 'This *here*,' are pleonasms, and to be expunged. § 286.

§ 347. EXAMPLE 57. — '*He shows much temper.*' This expression is equivocal. In England, *temper* is used to mean *moderation, coolness*, while in America it is used for *warmth* of temper. The remedy, in all such cases, is to use a phraseology that cannot be *misinterpreted* — 'He shows much *warmth of temper*.'

§ 348. EXAMPLE 58. — '*The public are notified.*' *To notify* is *to make known*. It is not *the public* that we wish to make known,

but to make *something else* known *to* the public. '*Public notice is given*' will express, therefore, what the other form fails to do.

§ 349. EXAMPLE 59.—1. 'We *be* true men.' 2. 'There *be* many that say.' 3. 'Many there *be*, *which* say.' 4. 'Our Father, *which art* in Heaven.'

Be was formerly used in the *indicative* as well as *subjunctive* present, and in the plural as in the singular. We find this idiom still preserved in the unaltered translation of the Scriptures, and in other writings of that age. But the form is now *obsolete*. The same remarks may apply to *which*, in the third example, and in the *Lord's Prayer*, where it is made to refer to *persons*—a form of expression then allowed, but now obsolete. § 373.

§ 350. EXAMPLE 60.—'If the salt have lost *his* savor.'—*Bible*. 'I, the Lord, will hasten it in *his* time.'—*Bible*.

In the Anglo-Saxon, *he* and *his* were used to designate both the *masculine* and *feminine*. It is still found, in some instances, in our translation of the Scriptures, and writings of that date. The same is often noticed in foreigners, using our language, who are unaccustomed to the distinction of gender in their own language. § 373.

§ 351. EXAMPLE 61.—'Receiving commandment *for* to come.' 'Made men *for* to go.'

These examples, which use the preposition *for* before the *infinitive mode*, are found in our translation of the Scriptures, and scarcely at a date since that. The form is now *obsolete*. The substantive character of the infinitive verb is implied in this use, and, therefore, it is not without reason that its use once prevailed: but there is a better reason for its disuse. § 373.

§ 352. EXAMPLE 62.—'*He learned me Grammar.*'

This should be, 'He *taught* me Grammar.' To *learn* is to *acquire* knowledge—*to teach* is to *impart* knowledge. The preceptor *teaches*—the pupil *learns*.

§ 353. EXAMPLE 63.—'*He taught obnoxious doctrines.*

We may suppose they were *offensive* doctrines—and this laid the *teacher liable* to censure. *Obnoxious* means '*liable to censure.*'

§ 354. EXAMPLE 64.—'*Over the signature of Junius.*'

It should be *under* the signature. The term is, in law expres

tive of sanction, authority or endorsement. '*Under* my hand and seal,' is under the authority of—although, in *place*, all the writing is over the signature. The best writers in England and America adhere to this form—'Under my name;' 'Under my signature.'

§355. EXAMPLE 65.—'*From whence, hence, thence.*'

Whence, hence, and *thence, include* the preposition, and mean *from which place—from this place—from that place.* But good usage has prefixed the preposition to such an extent, that remonstrance has almost ceased. This is an innocent innovation, a simple pleonasm, where the sense is not obscured, nor the euphony injured. Such innovations may be tolerated: although useless, they are harmless. § 271, *Obs.* 4.

§356. EXAMPLE 66.—'He *preached the funeral* of his friend.'

This singular form of expression is very common, in some parts of the country, among educated men, and occasionally it appears in print. As a *contraction*, it is not justified by any analogy—is abrupt, harsh, and certainly unnecessary. What would be thought of the announcement that Mr. Choate would, on the next Fourth of July, deliver the *anniversary*—or pronounce the *anniversary?* It would mean, of course, *anniversary oration;* and so it would be *said*, or the expression would be *laughed at.* Why not say, *funeral sermon?* for *that* is what is *meant.*

§357. EXAMPLE 67.—'The *alone* God.'

This is intended for the *only* God. *Alone* means *solitary, separate from other society*, or with *exclusive attributes. Only* designates God as *one*, with no other to be classed with Him. *Only* is the proper qualifying word, and not *alone.*

§358. EXAMPLE 68.—'*Whether* I go, *or whether* I stay.'

This is a very common violation of grammatical propriety, in the language of public speakers. By use in public discourse, errors become familiar to the ear, wear off the revolting effect of their first announcement, and are admitted finally to written discourse. *Whether* is the corresponding conjunction to *or*, and cannot be repeated in the second clause of the sentence without disturbing the just balance of expression and harmony of parts. It

is as much as to say, 'Whether of the two I go, or whether of the two I stay.' It is first a *tautology* and then an *absurdity*—for the second clause of the sentence belongs to the first before the comparison is completed; and neither in the first nor second clause has the *whether*, if repeated, a corresponding part, to complete the sense implied in the use of that word. Its correspondent *or*, with the contingency it involves, is necessary to the full expression of a complete sense.

§ 359. EXAMPLE 69.—1. '*He died for such a sinner as me.* 2. '*We can spare such men as him.*' 3. '*You think* like *I do.* 4. '*I would sooner have this* as *that.*'

The various words of a sentence must be made to harmonize, and the different parts of every sentence or clause must be so constructed, that every word may have and maintain its just relations, according to the established usages of the language. In the *first* example, it is intended that *as* shall govern the objective *me*, as a preposition, in the sense of *like*. But then *such* must be omitted—'for a sinner *like me.*' The use of *as* makes it necessary that the sentence should be differently constructed: thus, 'for such a sinner as *I am.*' The second example is also faulty. It might read, 'We can spare men *like him*;' or, 'We can spare *such* men.' But, if *as* is introduced, the sentence must be constructed in harmony of parts—'such men as he is.' Even this can consist with numerical harmony only by considering *such men*, the proper *antecedent* of *as*, in the character of a *class*. In the *third* example, again, there is a fault in the construction. *As* should then be put in the place of *like*, and read, 'You think *as* I do.' And, in the fourth example, *as* is used where *than* should be—'I would sooner have this *than* that;' or, it might read, 'I would *as soon* have this *as* that.' Defective and faulty arrangements of these sorts are too common, and cannot receive too close attention from those who would attain to perfection in the use of their own language. § 286.

§ 360. EXAMPLE 70.—The following are examples in which there is a violation of Syntactic Rules. The *pleonasm* is absurd—not only the use of more words than are *necessary*, but of more than can be permitted. The correction is given in the parallel column.

1. 'Forgive all *of* our sins,' for 'Forgive all our sins.'
2. 'He is *done* gone,' " 'He is gone.'
3. 'Equally *as* well,' " 'Equally well.'
4. 'Any *manner of* means, " 'Any means.'

§ 361. EXAMPLE 71.—The following present examples of *impropriety* in the use of words out of their ordinary or accepted meaning.

1. 'I did not *go* to do it,' for 'I did not *intend* to do it.'
2. 'I *expect* it is so,' " 'I *believe* it is so.'
3. 'I *admired* at you,' " 'I *wondered* at you.'
4. 'I should *admire* to go,' " 'I should *like* to go.'
5. 'He is *some* better,' " 'He is *somewhat* better.'

§ 362. EXAMPLE 72.—'*But what.*' '*That.*' These words, separately, or in combination, are often used improperly.

1. 'I cannot believe *but what* he is guilty,' for 'I cannot believe *but that* he is guilty.'
2. 'I did not doubt *but what* he would come,' " 'I did not doubt *that* he would come.'
3. 'We speak *that* we know,' " 'We speak *what* we know.'

§ 363. EXAMPLE 73.—Various usages which are incorrect, are here corrected in a parallel column.

1. 'I expected *to have seen* you,' for 'I expected *to see* you.
2. 'Whether he will or *no*,' " 'Whether he will or *not*.'
3. '*Whether* of the two will you choose?' " '*Which* of the two will you choose?'
4. 'Seldom or *ever*,' " 'Seldom or *never*.'
5. 'Be that as it *will*,' " 'Be that as it *may*.'
6. '*Mighty* little—*mighty* good,' " '*Very* little—*very* good.'
7. 'It was neither good *or* bad,' " 'It was neither good *nor* bad.'
8. 'It would *illy* accord,' " 'It would *ill* accord.'
9. '*Firstly*, secondly,' &c. " '*First*, secondly,' &c.
10. 'He *belittled* or *demeaned* himself,' " 'He *degraded* himself.'
11. 'He walked *back* and *forth*,' " 'He w. *backward* and *forward*.'
12. 'They differ *among* one another,' " 'They differ *with* one another.'

13. 'He said *how* he would do it,' for 'He said *that* he would do it.'
14. 'The place *where* I found him,' " 'The place *in which* I found him.'
15. 'Since *when* I have not seen him,' " 'Since *which time* I have not seen him.'
16. 'I *cannot* by *no means* do it,' " 'I *can* by *no means* do it.'
17. 'I *cannot but* think so,' " 'I *can but* think so.'
18. '*He* that hath ears, let him hear,' " '*Him* that hath ears, let him hear.'
19. 'I thought it was *him*,' " 'I thought it was *he*.'

§ 364. EXAMPLE 74. — The use of the comparative for two objects is common, but it is a matter of taste and euphony: as, of gold and iron,

1. 'Gold is the *most* valuable — iron, the *most* useful.'
2. 'Gold is *heavier* than iron — but iron is the *hardest*.'

The comparative is *exclusive* of the subject — the superlative *inclusive* of the subject: as,

1. 'Gold is more valuable than *all other metals*.'
2. 'Gold is the most valuable of *all the metals*.'

§ 365. EXAMPLE 75.—

1. 'I can proceed no *further*,' for 'I can proceed no *farther*.'
2. 'I have nothing *farther* to say,' " 'I have nothing *further* to say.'

Farther relates to *place* — from *far* — *farther, farthest.*
Further relates to *addition* — from *forth* — *further, furthest.*

§ 366. EXAMPLE 76.—

1. 'I am *a*-cold,' for 'I am cold.'
2. 'I am *a*-weary,' " 'I am weary.'
3. 'I am *a*-going,' " 'I am going.'

§ 367. EXAMPLE 77. — '*How do you do?*' This is a very common form of salutation, sometimes written *how-d'y* or *how-d'ye*, contracted for *how do you?* The use of *do* as an *auxiliary* and as a *principal* verb in the same sentence is awkward and harsh, though not strictly ungrammatical. The phrase, '*How do you?*' — equivalent to '*How are you?*' and which answers to a common form of expression in all languages — is the proper form. It is a general

inquiry for the health and prosperity of the person addressed. But use has decided and endorsed the common form.

§ 368. EXAMPLE 78. — '*Good morning.*' '*Good evening.*' '*Good day.*' '*Good night.*' '*Good-bye.*' These are customary salutations, either at meeting or parting, and are expressions of good wishes: as, 'I wish you a *good morning, good evening, good day,* or *good night.*' Of the same general import are other common expressions: as, '*Welcome*' — i. e., you are welcome; '*Adieu*' — I commend you to God; '*Farewell*' — may you fare well. When the learner asks, What grammatical construction shall be given to them? the answer is, In all cases, you must make the words take their places in sentences regularly constructed by the supply of ellipses, and then *parse* them. *Welcome* becomes an adjective, agreeing with *you.* *Adieu* and *farewell* are in the sense of *blessing,* and express the invocation of a *blessing:* '*Adieu* be to you' — a *blessing.* *Adieu* is nominative to *may be.* '*Farewell* be to you,' or, 'I wish a *blessing* may be to you.' *Farewell* is nominative to *may be.* *Good-bye* means, 'May *good* be *by you*' or 'near you' — that is, *a blessing* — 'May a *good-bye,*' a blessing, 'be to you.'

§ 369. EXAMPLE 79. — '*She extolled the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding.*' All the parts of a sentence should be made to correspond grammatically. This is a fundamental law of construction, and no golden-shod courser, nor poetic Pegasus, can be permitted to trample on it: — 'She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him.'

So, we correct *Shakspeare* —

> 'And earthly power doth then seem *likest* God's,
> When mercy seasons justice' —

Thus,

> 'And earthly power doth then seem *most like* God's' —

And *Addison* — 'Says I' — *said* I.

Spectator — 'They differ among one another' — *with* one another.

Paley — 'There was a chance of him recovering his senses' — of *his* recovering his senses.

Macaulay — 'He speaks of the author being unknown' — of the *author's* being unknown.

Gay — 'Ere you rebuke another's sin,
Bid thy own conscience look within' —
Bid *your* own conscience.

Goldsmith — 'I sit me down a pensive hour to spend' —
I *set* me down.

Johnson — 'There are certain miseries in idleness which the idle can only conceive' — which the idle *only* can conceive.

§ 370. EXAMPLE 80. — '*In vain.*' '*In short.*' '*In fine.*' '*In fact.*' '*At once.*' '*For ever.*' Expressions of this sort are usually parsed as adverbs; and properly enough, for the sense is truly adverbial. But they are all capable of an analysis, and, either by themselves or by ellipsis, they may be made to furnish the object to the preposition. This is sometimes to be preferred; and without insisting on this in all cases, a regard to critical analyses leads us to prefer it, except in the first and last examples, in which the *adverbial* sense is more uniform and definite.

§ 371. EXAMPLE 81. — '*In the midst of us.*' This phrase is often incorrectly spoken and written thus — '*In our midst.*' *Our* is always *possessive* in its signification. It is used correctly when we say, *our* country, *our* army, *our* people; because the country is ours, the army is ours, &c. But when we say, *our midst*, the idea is confused, indefinite, inelegant. *Midst* signifies *involved in*, or *surrounded by*, and implies place within the circumference, extremes, or outer limits; but it is indefinite as to the precise point of location. In this, it differs from *mid* or *middle*, from which it is derived, and which designates a point equidistant from all parts of the circumference, or extremes, or designated limits. 'In the midst of the ocean,' 'in the midst of afflictions,' 'in the midst of battle,' are expressions which present a similar variation, to be preferred, as will readily be seen, to the expression '*in the ocean's midst*,' &c. When we say, 'a large foreign population are settled in the midst of us,' their *intermixture* is properly expressed; but when we say, 'they are settled *in our midst*,' the question almost spontaneously springs, Where is *that possession* of ours? *Where* did you say they are?

REVIEW

Of the Idioms, and Sentences of Difficult Solution.

What is said of *as?* *Example* 1. Let the Teacher state the example. What is said of the grammatical office of *as* in this example?—2. What is said of *as* in this example?—3. What is said of *as* in this example?—4. What is said of *as* in this example? Let the Teacher state the different views here given, and require the pupil to reason on them.—5. What is said of *as* in this example?—6. What is said of *as* in this example? What, of the *Ellipse*, and of its use?—7. What is said of *as* in this example?—8. What is said of *as* in this example?—9. What is said of *as if*, in this example?—10. What is said of *as for*, in this example?—11. What is said of *as to*, in this example?—12. What is said of *as to*, in this example?—13. What is said of *as well as?*—14. Explain *inasmuch as*.—15. Explain *as regards; as appears*.—16. Explain *as follows*.—17. Explain *as concerns*.—18. What is said of *as*, succeeded by *follows* and by *follow?*—19. Explain *as* in the two uses here employed.—20. How is *as* used in sentences of comparison?—21. How is *according to* explained in this example?—22. *In respect to;* how analyzed? *In order that;* how analyzed?—23. *In regard to;* how analyzed?—24. *From above, from amidst, from below, from off.* Explain these forms.—25. *Over against, out of, instead of* Give the interpretation of these forms.—26. *What if, what though* How are these forms explained?—27. *And yet.* Is this a compound conjunction? and why?—28. *But that.* Explain this form.—29. *But what.* Is this form admissible? Correct it.—30. *To confess the truth; to be plain; to conclude.* What is a mistaken explanation, and what the true explanation of these forms?—31. Define the use of *than*, as a preposition, and its limitations.—32. What are the present uses of '*is building,*' and '*is being built?*'—33. Give an explanation of the *possessive* construed with the *participle*.—34. The *possessive*, with the *participle*, used as an *objective noun*.—35. What is a *substantive phrase?* What is meant by words being used indefinitely? (*Ans.* A *substantive phrase* is a combination of several words, used as a subject, in the nominative case: and words in the phrase are said to be used *indefinitely*, when they

are used to complete the subject, but incapable of analysis separate from the phrase itself; as *being composed* requires the qualifying adjunct, *of many links*, to constitute the subject.)—36. Are participles in *ing*, when used as nouns, ever put in the possessive? Give examples.—37. What is the peculiar form in this example? Explain it.—38. Is this example common? Repeat different forms of the *passive*. These forms are very convenient.—39. Does the *active* form of the *transitive verb* sometimes take a *passive* signification? Give examples.—40. How is the *finite verb*, with its *nominative*, sometimes changed into the *infinitive* and *objective*, in analogy with the Latin?—41. Explain the difference in the verbs *lay* and *lie*, and of *set* and *sit*.—42. What is 'Poetic Idiom?' What is *save*, in the example? What does it denote? dedicate? consecrate? In what different forms is the poetic license found?—43. *It* is used indefinitely; state the forms of its use, 1, 2, 3, 4.—44. *One* is used indefinitely; state the form of use.—45. *We* is sometimes used in limitation to the singular. State this form of its use. Does it imply *unity* and *plurality*? *You* used for *thou*; what is said of it?—46. What are the forms of *unit* in *plurality*?—47. *Plurality* in *unity*? Repeat the examples and explanation.—48. *Units* of *measure*, of *capacity*, of *weight*, of *value*, of *time*? Give examples and explain them.—49. Is the superlative form ever superadded to the superlative? State, and explain it. *Extremest, chiefest, very chiefest.*—50. *The rather; as little.* Explain this form of speech. *The more; the better.* Explain these corresponding words.—51. 'The first five lines:' 'the five first lines.' Which of these forms is right?—52. How do you express a *firm* or a *family* name? A unit of *measure, number*, &c.? If a *numeral* is used, what is the form of the *family name*? Give examples.—53. Explain the use of *but what*; of 'I cannot but believe.'—54. Explain the terms, 'I had as lief stay,' &c.—55. Criticise the use frequently made of the *perfect* and *imperfect tenses* interchangeably. Let the pupil correct the examples announced by the Teacher.—56. Is the *objective* in *predication* admissible? Correct the examples and explain the principles. *There*, used as a part of the subject; is it admissible: as, 'That *there* is the book?'—57. What is the proper use of the word *ever*? How *misused*?—58. 'The public are notified.' Is this a proper expression?—59. 'We be true men.' What is said of this form of expression?—60. Can *his* be used for *its*? Why not?

—61. 'For to come.' Why was this form of expression allowed? Is it obsolete?—62. How is *learned* sometimes improperly used for *taught?*—63. What is the meaning of *obnoxious?*—64. Would you say *over* the signature, or *under* the signature? Why?—65. *Whence, hence, thence.* Do these admit a preposition before them?—66. Can a *funeral* be *preached?*—67. *Alone* and *only;* their use?—68. *Whether—or,* reciprocal. Is it proper to repeat *whether* with *or?*—69. Let the Teacher repeat the four examples in this section, and let the pupil criticise them.—70. Correct the examples announced.—71. Correct the examples announced.—72. *But what—that.* Correct the improper use of these words, as the examples are announced.—73. Correct the examples as they are announced by the Teacher.—74. Let the Teacher question the Pupil under this head, in the use of the *comparative* and the *superlative.*—75. What are the uses of *further* and *farther?*—76. Correct the examples.—77. What is said of the phrase, 'How do you do?—78. The expressions, 'Good morning; good-bye,' &c. Explain them.—79. What is the rule for arrangement of the different parts of a sentence? Examine the examples here given.—80. *In vain, in short, in fine.* Analyze and parse these forms.—81. *In the midst of us.* Explain and defend this form of expression.

PARSING LESSONS.

§ 372. *A Collection of the Examples, cited in the preceding List of Idioms, for careful Review and Analysis by the Pupil.*

EXAMPLE 1. You excel in literature *as* in science.

2. He is *as* good *as* his word.

3. He is *as* true *as* the sun.

4. My reasons for adopting him *as* my heir are *as* follow.

5. He is more eminent *as* a soldier than *as* a statesman.

6. He was regarded *as* accountable for all the consequences.

7. I appreciate your recommendation *as* having contributed greatly to my success.

8. The recommendation, *as* a recommendation, said nothing.

9. I treated him *as if* he were my son.

10. *As for* this argument, it is illogical.

11. *As to* this argument, it is illogical.

12. There can be no question *as to* which party has the right of the case.

13. You have rights *as well as* I.

14. *Inasmuch as* this is admitted, let those rights be defined.

15. *As regards* myself, I am indifferent. *As appears* from the evidence, no action lies.

16. The evidence may be stated *as follows*.

17. *As concerns* meum and tuum, right is right.

18. The argument in the case may be summed up *as follows*.

19. Such friends *as* are made in adversity are *as* gold that has been tried.

20. He hath died to redeem *such* a rebel *as* I am.

21. Proceed *according to* rule.

22. *In respect to* him, let justice be done.

23. *In order that* justice may be done, summon a jury.

24. 'To save himself and house *from amidst*
A world *devote* to universal wreck.'

He looked down *from above* the storm. He looked up *from below* the precipice. He fell *from off* the crag.

25. Ida stands *over against* old Troy. He came *out of* much tribulation. They substituted gold *instead of* paper for currency.

26. What is the objection if I did go? *What if* I did go? *What though* I stay away?

27. Many have accepted the invitation, *and yet* there is room.

28. I would myself define and defend your rights, *but that* it might conflict with your privilege.

29. I cannot see *but what* it is so. I cannot see *but that* it is so.

30. *To confess the truth*, I am delinquent. *To be plain*, you are delinquent too. *To conclude*, let us confess and reform.

31. Thou shalt have no other gods *than* me.

32. The house *is building*. The house *is being built*.

33. The author's being unknown limited the sale of the book.

34. There was a chance of his recovering his influence.

35. The chain's being composed of many links made it rope-like.

36. He felt that writing's power. His being's end and aim is a glorious immortality.

37. He spoke of the author's being unknown. The Author of nature's acting upon us every moment produces the result. The supplying of our wants takes more time than enjoying our super-

fruities. This did not prevent *John's* being acknowledged and solemnly inaugurated *Duke* of Normandy.

38. The decision *was appealed from* by the executors. He *was laughed at* by them. The lessons *must be practised on.* These things are *to be thought of.* The city *was taken possession of* by them. The money *was made use of* by the agent. Duty *was lost sight of.* He seemed to envy them their wealth. Their wealth is not to be envied them. He was remonstrated with by his friends. On being remonstrated with by his friends, he relented.

39. The discourse *reads* well. The cloth *tears* easily. The goods *sell* rapidly. The rosewood *polishes* finely.

40. I wish that you would come. I wish you to come. I thought that it was he, but it was not he. I thought it to be him, but it was not he.

41. I will *lay* my weary limbs on the sofa. I will *lie* down to rest on the sofa. Set *your house* in order. Sit thou here.

42. 'All the conspirators, *save only he,*
Did that they did in envy of great Cæsar.'

'To save himself and household from amidst
A world *devote* to universal ruin.'

''Tis *dedicate* to ruin.'

'Regions *consecrate* to oldest time.'

'From peak to peak, the rattling crags *among,*
Leaps the *live thunder.*'

'*Him* from my childhood I have known —
He wanders earth *around.*'

'Heaven *trembles, roar* the mountains, *thunders* all the ground.'

'*No hive* hast thou, of hoarded sweets.'

'A *transient calm* the happy scenes bestow.'

'*Long were* to tell what I have seen.'

'Let each *as likes him best* his hours employ.'

'The brink of haunted stream I see.'

'He knew *to sing* and *build* the lofty rhyme.'

'To whom thus Adam.'

'He riches gave, he intellectual strength,
To few, and therefore none commands to be
Or rich, *or* learned.'

'He *mourned* no recreant friend.'

'*Gradual* sinks the breeze.'

43. It is I. It is you. It is he. It is she. It is it. It is the king. It is the queen. It is a tree. It was the soldiers. It was the commander. It rains. It snows. It is cold. Thou shalt not lord it over God's heritage. It is true that all men are mortal. It repents me.

44. *One* would think that infidelity had practised sufficiently to prove its value. Its advocates presume largely on *one's* credulity, in asking for the faith of mankind. To die for *one's* country is, poetically, called sweet.

45. *We* admit the writer to our columns, but do not hold *ourself* responsible for all his opinions and reasonings. *We* charge you on allegiance to *ourself*. *You* are my friend.

46. 'Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.'

Many a day have I dreamed awake. Many a time hast thou served me.

47. I saw one hundred head of cattle — a hundred sail of the line — a thousand foot and a thousand horse, and a great many people.

48. I have a *ten-foot* pole, a *ten-gallon* keg, a *fifty-six-pound* weight, a *four-quart* measure, a *thousand-dollar* salary, a *ten-dollar* note, a *thousand-pound* note.

49. 'From every part of the United Kingdom — from France, from Switzerland and Germany, and from the *extremest* north of Europe, a march of emigration has been taken up, such as the world never saw before.' 'Thou art the *chiefest* among ten thousands'—thou art 'the first among equals.' 'Though I be the *very chiefest* Apostle, yet, after the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee.'

50. '*As little* will Spain draw any unfavourable inference from this refusal — *the rather*, as the disclaimer affords assurance of a concurrence with France and England.' *The more* I know him, *the better* I like him.'

51. The *first five* lines of any poem are just equal to the *five first* lines. If you sing the *four first* stanzas of a hymn, you will sing the *first four* stanzas.

52. The *Messrs.* Baring were there — the *Misses* Day — the two *Miss* Smiths, and *Mr.* and *Mrs.* Day.

53. I know not *but what* the report is true. I know not *but that* the report is true. I *cannot but* believe it. I *can but* believe it.

54. I (*had*) would as lief stay. He (*had*) would better return. I (*had*) would rather remain. I (*had*) ought to go. It (*had*) liked to have been worse.

55. I ought to have (*went*) gone. He has (*broke*) broken his promise. The sun has (*rose*) risen. I have (*wrote*) written my letter. I (*done*) did it in haste. The storm (*begun*) began to subside. Having (*began*) begun, he persevered. I (*sat*) set out on my journey. He still (*plead*) pleaded guilty.

56. It was not (*him*) he. (*Him* and *me*) he and I are brothers. (*Me* and *you*) you and I think alike. (*Them*) those are useless. (*Them there*) those are his. That (*there*) is yours. This (*here*) is mine.

57. He shows much temper—he shows much *warmth of temper*.

58. The public are notified. Public notice is given.

59. We (*be*) are true men. There (*be*) are many that say. Many there (*be*) are (*which*) who say. Our Father (*which*) who art in Heaven.

60. 'If the salt have lost (*his*) its savour.' 'I, the Lord, will hasten it in (*his*) its time.'

61. 'Receiving commandment (*for*) to come, he departed.' 'He made men (*for*) to go.'

62. He *learned* me Grammar—he *taught* me Grammar.

63. He taught (*obnoxious*) offensive doctrines.

64. (*Over*) under the signature of Junius.

65. *From hence* he departed. *Whence* camest thou? He departed *thence*.

66. He preached the funeral (*sermon*) of his friend.

67. The (*alone*) only God.

68. Whether I go or (*whether I*) stay.

69. He died for such a sinner (*as me*) as I am. We can spare such men (*as him*) as he is. You think (*like*) *as* I do I would sooner have this (*as*) *than* that.

70. Forgive all (*of*) our sins. He is (*done*) gone. Equally (*as*) well. Any (*manner*) kind of means.

71. I did not (*go*) intend to do it. I (*expect*) believe it is so. I (*admired*) wondered at you. I should (*admire*) like to go. He is (*some*) somewhat better.

72. I cannot believe (*but what*) but that he is guilty. I did not doubt (*but what*) that he would come. We speak (*that*) what we know.

73. I expected (*to have seen*) to see him. Whether he will or (*no*) not. (*Whether*) which of the two will you choose? Seldom or (*ever*) never. Be that as it (*will*) may. (*Mighty*) very little. (*Mighty*) very good. It was a (*lengthy*) long sermon. It would (*illy*) ill accord. (*Firstly*) first, secondly, &c. He (*belittled*) degraded himself. He walked (*back* and *forth*) backward and forward. They differ (*among*) with one another.

74. Gold is more valuable than all other metals. Gold is the most valuable of all the metals. Of gold and iron, gold is the most valuable, iron the most useful. Gold is *heavier* than iron, but iron is the *hardest*.

75. I can proceed no (*further*) farther. I have nothing (*farther*) further to say.

76. I am (*a-cold*) cold. I am (*a-weary*) weary. I am (*a-going*) going.

77. How do you (*do*)? How-d'y? How-d' ye? How are you?

78. Good morning; good evening; good day; good night; welcome; adieu; farewell.

79. She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him. ¶368.

'And earthly power doth then seem (*likest*) most like God's,
When mercy seasons justice.'

Shakspeare, corrected.

'Truly, said I,' for 'Marry, says I.'—*Addison, corrected.*

Marry is now *obsolete*, as '*says I*' ought to be. *Marry* is said to be derived from the practice of swearing by the Virgin Mary.

'They differ (*among*) with one another.'—*Spectator, corrected.*

'There was a chance of (*him recovering*) his recovering his senses.'—*Paley, corrected.*

'He speaks of the (*author*) author's being unknown.'—*Macaulay, corrected.*

'Ere you rebuke another's sin,
Bid (*thy*) your own conscience look within.'
Gay, corrected.

'I (*sit*) set me down a pensive hour to spend.'
Goldsmith, corrected.

'There are certain miseries in idleness, which the idle only can (*only*) conceive.'—*Johnson, corrected.*

80. In vain; in short; in fine; in fact; at once; for ever.

81. A large foreign population are settled *in the midst of us.*

THE GRAMMATICAL LANGUAGE OF THE BIBLE.

§ 373. Our English translation of the Scriptures was made with great care, by the most learned men of England, under the authority of King James I., more than two hundred years ago. Besides its *remarkable accuracy* as a translation of the Hebrew and Greek text, in which it was originally written, it is almost without fault in *grammatical construction*, as the language was *then written.* The young scholar is, however, sometimes surprised to find in that Sacred Book a violation of grammatical rules, as those rules are here defined. This is not to be attributed, however, to any fault in the translation, but to the changes that the language has undergone *since that time.* Some words, *then in use*, have become *obsolete;* a few have changed their *signification*, by general consent; and others need explanation, as susceptible still of a *double meaning*, or of *various meanings.* There are also idiomatic expressions of the original languages translated literally, and differing from the construction of our language; and these retain, sometimes, the etymological peculiarities of their originals.

The following, collated from the Bible, belong to this class. Various references are made under each class, without attempting a complete list of *each class.*

1. *Be* is used for *are*:—

'There be the princes of the north.' Ez. 32. 30.
'There be many that say.' Ps. 4. 6.
'Many things there be.' Mark 7. 4.
'For they be persuaded.' Luke 20. 6.
'Things which be not.' Rom. 4. 17.

2. '*For* to see.' Matt. 11. 8.
'*For* to come.' Matt. 11. 14.
'*For* to show.' Matt. 24. 1.

See, also, Mark 3. 10—13. 6; Acts 5. 31—8. 27—15. 6—16. 4 & 10—17. 15 & 26—21. 1—22. 5; Rev. 9. 15—&c.

This form of expression was very common, and accords with the substantive character generally assigned to the infinitive verb. It makes the verb a substantive, governed by the preposition *for*, in the sense of '*for seeing*.' The reader of the Bible will find this form frequently recurring there, but now never used in English composition.

3. The relative *which*, for *who*, in reference to *persons*: as in Matt. 25. 1 & 24, and in the Lord's prayer, and *frequently* in other places—'Our Father, *which* art in heaven.' This use of *which*, referring to persons, is now entirely *obsolete*.

4. *It*, neuter, is used for masculine and feminine and neuter. Lev. 13. 50—'Shall shut up *it* that hath the plague'—for *him* or *her*. *His* is used for *it*: as, 1 Sam. 6. 2—'We shall send it to *his* place;' Is. 60. 22—'I, the Lord, will hasten *it* in *his* (its) time.'

5. '*Began to show*.' This expression, as used in Scripture, would be regarded as a pleonasm, meaning simply *showed* or *taught*. It is a Hebrew idiom, not unfrequently used by the Greek writers of the New Testament, and literally translated in our English.

6. *Bare*, for *bore*. Luke 23. 29; John 1. 15 & 32; 1 Pet. 2. 24.
Spake, for *spoke*. Luke 24. 6; Acts 20. 38; Gal. 4. 15; Heb. 1. 1 & 44.
Sware, for *swore*. Heb. 3. 11 & 18; Rev. 10. 6.

These forms of the imperfect tense are now obsolete; but they were authorized by English writers when the Bible was translated.

7. *Readeth*, for *reade*. Rev. 1. 3.
Cometh, for *comes*. Rev. 1. 7.
Seest, for *see*. Rev. 1. 11.
Saith, for *says*. Rev. 2. 1; Gal. 4. 28.
Walketh, for *walks*. Rev. 2. 1.
Hath, for *has*. Gal. 4. 27.
Strake, for *struck*. Acts 27. 17.

Most of these forms are still preserved in solemn style.

8. '*He* that hath ears, let *him* hear.' Rev. 1. 7. This is simply ungrammatical, and is sometimes found in other writers. *He* should be written *him*, and then *him*, as an emphatic repetition, is placed in apposition with *him*, at the close of the sentence.

9. '*Such like.*' *Like* is a pleonasm, and should be excluded — present usage disallows it.

10. '*The which.*' Col. 3. 15; Gal. 5. 21; Heb. 10. 10. *The* is a pleonasm, and now obsolete. The use of *the* makes *which*, grammatically, a noun, and is within the rule; but it is unnecessary, and *which* should not be diverted from its true character as a relative.

11. *Afore*, for *before*. Eph. 3. 3. Obsolete.

12. 'Like *as*.' Matt. 12. 13. *As* is a pleonasm.
'Like *unto*.' Matt. 11. 16. *Unto* is a pleonasm.
'*How* that.' Matt. 16. 21. *How*, a pleonasm.
'After *that*.' Matt. 27. 31. *That*, a pleonasm.
'For *that*.' Jas. 4. 15. *That*, pleonasm.
'Because *that*.' Acts 14. 11. *Because*, a pleonasm.

13. '*Was minded.*' Matt. 1. 19. For *was disposed*.

14. '*Was an hungered.*' Matt. 11. 14. *An*, a pleonasm.

15. '*Like as of fire.*' Acts 2. 3. *As of* is pleonastic, unless an ellipsis is introduced.

16. '*Most straitest.*' A Greek idiom, literally translated.

17. '*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?' Matt. 21. 31. Here, *whether* is used for *which* — a form once allowed, but now obsolete.

18. '*Whoso* findeth me, findeth life.' Prov. 8. 35. *Whoso* is used for *whosoever*, and is now obsolete.

19. '*Be* thou *ware* also.' 2 Tim. 4. 15. *Beware* is a defective verb, used only in the imperative; or, *ware* may be considered an *adjective*, in the sense of *cautious*, agreeing with *thou*.

20. 'The king was *astonied*.' Dan. 3. 24. This imperfect of the verb *astonish*, found repeatedly in the Scriptures, was formerly allowed — now obsolete.

21. '*Wist not*.' Mark 9. 6. For *knew not*. This word is now obsolete.

PARSING EXERCISE.

§ 374. The following letter of Daniel Webster is selected, as one of the finest specimens of a finished composition in the English language. 1. As a model in epistolary style. 2. For simplicity. 3. For grammatical accuracy. 4. For beauty of thought and expression. 5. For Saxon words and forms of expression, always predominant in this standard writer of the English language. 6. For a religious sentiment, pervading a frank expression on common subjects.

"RICHMOND, *Oct.* 15, 1840,
5 o'clock, A. M.

"MY DEAR FRIEND:—Whether it be a favor or an annoyance, you owe this letter to my habit of early rising. From the hour marked at the top of the page, you will naturally conclude that my companions are not now engaging my attention, as we have not calculated on being early travellers to-day.

"This city has a 'pleasant seat.' It is high: the James river runs below it; and when I went out an hour ago, nothing was heard but the roar of the falls. The air is tranquil, and its temperature mild. It is morning, and a morning sweet and refreshing and delightful.

"Everybody knows the morning in its metaphorical sense, applied to so many occasions. The health, strength, and beauty of early years, lead us to call that period the 'morning of life.' Of a lovely young woman, we say, 'she is bright as the morning;' and no one doubts why Lucifer is called 'son of the morning.'

"But the morning itself, few people, inhabitants of cities, know anything about. Among all our good people, not one in a thou-

sand sees the sun rise once in a year. They know nothing of the morning. Their idea of it is, that it is that part of the day which comes along after a cup of coffee or a piece of toast. With them, morning is not a new issuing of light, a new bursting forth of the sun, a new waking up of all that has life from a sort of temporary death, to behold again the works of God, the heavens and the earth. It is only a part of the domestic day, belonging to reading the newspapers, answering notes, sending the children to school, and giving orders for dinner. The first streak of light, the earliest purpling of the East, which the lark springs up to greet, and the deeper and deeper coloring into orange and red, till at length the glorious sun is seen, 'regent of day'—this, they never enjoy, for they never see it.

"Beautiful descriptions of morning abound in all languages, but they are strongest perhaps in the East, where the sun is frequently the object of worship. King David speaks of taking to himself 'the wings of the morning.' This is highly poetical and beautiful. The wings of the morning are the beams of the rising sun. It is thus said that 'the Sun of Righteousness shall arise with healing in his wings'—a morning that shall scatter life and health and joy throughout the Universe. Milton has fine descriptions of the morning, but not so many as Shakspeare; from whose writings pages of the most beautiful imagery, all founded on the glory of morning, might be filled.

"I never thought that Adam had much the advantage of us for having seen the world when it was new. The manifestations of the power of God, like his mercies, are 'new every morning, and fresh every moment.' *We* see as fine risings of the sun as Adam ever saw; and its risings are as much a miracle now as they were in his day, and I think a great deal more so; because it is now a part of the miracle, that for thousands and thousands of years he has come to his appointed time without the variation of the millionth part of a second. Adam could not tell how this might be.

"I know the morning: I am acquainted with it, and I love it. I love it, fresh and sweet as it is—a daily new creation breaking forth, and calling all that have life and breath and being to new adoration, new enjoyments, and new gratitude.

"As ever, your friend,

"DANIEL WEBSTER."

ANALYSIS.

1. Parse the words and figures used in the date of the foregoing letter, by Rule XII., § 266 and 272, obs. 8.

2. Parse the address, '*My dear Friend*,' by Rule IV., § 257 and 268.

3. Analyse the first sentence—'Whether it be a favor or an annoyance, you owe this letter to my habit of early rising.' § 251.

Analysis.—This is a compound sentence, containing three simple sentences. § 245. The first two sentences are separated by the conjunction *or*, and the third by the comma. The words all stand in their natural order. § 250. *It* is the *subject-noun*, and *be* is the verb of the first simple sentence. The conjunction *or* connects the second sentence, with similar construction, the *subject* and *verb* being understood. *You* is the *subject-noun*, and *owe* is the *verb* of the third simple sentence, having its *object*, '*letter*,' after the *verb*. § 250, obs. 2. *Whether* is a *corresponding adverb* with *or*, connecting the two first sentences. Obs. 3. *Favor* and *annoyance* are in apposition with the nominatives of their respective sentences, or nominatives *after* the verb. Rule II. 'To my habit of early rising' is an adjunct of the verb *owe*, and 'of early rising' is an adjunct of the preceding adjunct. § 246. The third simple sentence is the *principal* sentence, and the clause introduced by *whether* is an *adjunct* sentence. § 247.

4. Analyse the second sentence. This sentence is *compound*, and has *four simple* sentences. § 245. The *first clause* of the sentence is out of its natural order. The natural order would read thus: 'You will naturally conclude, from the hour marked at the top of the page, that my companions,' &c. § 149. Thus arranged, the *first* sentence has the nominative *you*, and the verb *will conclude*. The *second* sentence has *which*, understood, for the *nominative*, and it has *is marked* for the *verb*. The *third* sentence has *companions* for the *nominative*, and *are engaging* for the *verb*. The *fourth* sentence has *we* for the *nominative*, and *have calculated* for the *verb*. The *object* of *conclude* is the clause that follows it. § 251, obs. 2, 3.

'From the hour marked at the top of the page,' is an adjunct of *conclude*. *From* governs *hour*, and shows its relation to *conclude*.

Marked is a *participle*, agreeing with *hour*, and may form another sentence by the introduction of the *relative*, *which*—thus, 'which is marked.' *At* governs *top*, and connects it with *marked*, of which it is an *adjunct*; and *of* governs *page*, showing its relation to *top*: 'of the page' is an *adjunct* to *top*. *Naturally* qualifies *conclude*—*that* connects the *simple sentences* which precede and follow it. *Not* and *now* qualify the *verb*, *are engaging*—*my* agrees with *attention*, which is the *object* of the *active participle*, *engaging*—*not* qualifies *calculated*—*on* shows the relation between *calculated* and the clause that follows—*being*, as a participle, and *early*, as an adjective, agree with *travellers*—*to-day* qualifies the sentence.

This *model* specimen of analysis may be sufficient to enable the student to proceed without difficulty in the entire analysis of the whole letter.

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§375. A LIST OF BOOKS

Recommended for reference, to the student of this Grammar.

FOWLER'S *Elements and Forms of English Language.*

TRENCH'S *Study of Words.*

ROGET'S THESAURUS *of English synonymes, by Dr. Sears.*

SCHOLAR'S COMPANION—*latest edition.*

CAMPBELL'S *Philosophy of Rhetoric, on Grammatical Constructions.*

WEBSTER'S *English Dictionary*—*Quarto, unabridged.*

§ 376. The idea of *reading a dictionary* has been regarded as ridiculous. But we seriously and earnestly recommend to English scholars to *read* Webster's Dictionary, and to *study* it well—not the Abridgment, but the Quarto. About four pages a day will pass the student through the whole of it in a year, Sundays excepted. It is not a book of mere definition, but of etymology and analysis. We doubt whether as much of language, of philosophy, of history, and of general learning, useful to the scholar and to the professional or business man, can be learned in the same time in any other way. It is earnestly recommended to parents to supply their children early with this standard work, at the small cost of $6, at which it is now furnished. The youth who reperuses it

attentively once a year, will find it the more at his command as a book of reference, and will find himself in company with some eminent scholars who have adopted the habit: at any rate, he will prove the value of this advice.

The same may be said of Trench's Study of Words, and, in a qualified sense, of all the books recommended in the foregoing list.

The language of a nation indicates, with wonderful accuracy, its character, its civilization, its religion, its progress in science and the arts, its manners and habits, and, at different periods, its rise, its progress, and decline. Thus we may read a nation's history in its words, even although it have no historian, and have no other written history than its classics, or even its lexicon. With their language, if we had it, and no other memorial of them — all else lost — we could, with almost unerring accuracy, decipher their character, intellectual, moral, political, judicial, domestic — their manners, pursuits, progress. Having their language at different periods of their existence, we could trace their beginning, their progress, their summit elevation, their decline, their refinement or degradation. Have they no name for a Supreme Being? — they are atheists. Names are things. What they have a name for, has been — love, affection, hatred, crime, law, justice, honor, morals, religion, science.

So the dictionary of a nation reveals their character. We may, therefore, read a nation's history in their dictionary. Their words are correlatives of realities. The *study of words*, therefore, is the study of history, and every scholar who produces anything in literature that may live after him, becomes a part of that history, and will instruct posterity. He is, therefore, a contributor to general learning, and to the language itself, whether he uses it only, or moulds and modifies its forms. Hence, he should be studious to understand and use properly the language he employs.

§ 377. *Language* is not only to be *learned*, to be *spoken*, to be *read* — it is, also, to be *written*. The application of principles to practice, and the necessity of practice, to make a good writer of the language, must enter into, and form a part of, the education of the English scholar.

§ 378. In anticipation of the study of Rhetoric, into which the English student passes out of his grammar, we here collate a

brief enumeration of what is essential to correct writing — that the young beginner, in composing, may be aided and encouraged. The writing of letters and essays should early form a part of school-exercises, and bring into practice the early acquirements of the English scholar.

In the selection of *words*, regard must be had to *Purity*, *Propriety*, and *Precision*.

In the *construction of sentences*, the writer must study *Clearness*, *Unity*, *Strength*, and *Harmony*, with a proper application of the *Figures of Speech*.

Of Words.

§ 379. 1. *Purity* requires the rejection of such words as are not English, and not authorized by good writers.

This exclusion, however, does not apply to foreign words that have been adopted by respectable use, or others, of domestic manufacture, that have been duly authorized.

§ 380. 2. *Propriety* implies the use of words in their accustomed and authorized meaning.

1. Avoid low or provincial words.
2. Avoid words that are merely poetical or artificial.
3. Avoid, or use with discretion, all terms that are technical.
4. Avoid the use of the same word too frequently, or in different senses.
5. Avoid ellipses that may obscure the sense.
6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions.
7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions.

§ 381. 3. *Precision* is defined by itself. It means to pare or cut off.

1. Avoid all superfluous words.
2. Avoid tautology in words.
3. Avoid the employment of synonyms.

Of Sentences.

§ 382. 1. *Clearness* requires a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be so placed that their relations may be unequivocal.
2. Poetic license and transpositions must be avoided in prose.

3. Pronouns must be so used as to indicate clearly their antecedents.

§ 383. 2. *Unity* requires that one leading idea shall be preserved throughout the sentence.

1. Separate into distinct sentences such clauses as have no immediate connection.

2. The leading nominative should be so arranged as to govern any clause to which it belongs, and the leading words prominently placed.

3. Avoid parentheses, or introduce them with a strict preservation of clearness.

§ 384. 3. *Strength*, in a sentence, requires that due importance be given in the arrangement to every word and every member.

1. Avoid all superfluous words and members.

2. Place the most important words where they will make the strongest impression.

3. The stronger assertion should succeed the weaker, and the longer member, the shorter.

4. Where either resemblance or opposition is expressed in comparison or contrast, some resemblance in the construction of language should be preserved.

5. Avoid concluding a sentence with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word, unless emphatic.

§ 385. 4. *Harmony* regards the just proportion of sound, and, in this aspect, refers to the proper selection of words and their arrangement.

§ 386. 5. *A proper application of the Figures of Speech.*

1. Figurative language must be used for illustration. Its frequency is a matter of taste, and must depend on its effect to illustrate or enforce the subject.

2. Figures, when introduced, should be natural, not far-fetched, not obscure or technical, and not pursued too far.

3. Avoid blending literal and figurative language together.

4. Avoid jumbling different figures together; but when a figure is introduced, carry it through.

§ 387. The following *Subjects* or *Themes* are subjoined, to aid the young writer.

1. Affectation.
2. Ambition.
3. Attention.
4. Avarice.
5. Benevolence.
6. Biography.
7. Beauty.
8. Charity.
9. Compassion.
10. Conscience.
11. Curiosity.
12. Cheerfulness.
13. Contentment.
14. Diligence.
15. Duplicity.
16. Duty.
17. Delay.
18. Envy.
19. Energy.
20. Friendship.
21. The Future.
22. Gratitude.
23. Genius.
24. Generosity.
25. Habit.
26. Happiness.
27. Humility.
28. Hypocrisy.
29. Hope.
30. Innocence.
31. Indolence.
32. Industry.
33. Imagination.
34. Ignorance.
35. Justice.
36. Literature.
37. Liberty.
38. Music.
39. Novelty.
40. Pride.
41. Prudence.
42. Punctuality.
43. Piety.
44. Poverty.
45. Perseverance.
46. Politeness.
47. Providence.
48. Patience.
49. Reading.
50. Religion.
51. Reflection.
52. Sunset.
53. Sunrise.
54. Morning.
55. Evening.
56. Self-love.
57. Selfishness
58. Self-denial
59. Self-gov't.
60. Self-resp't.
61. Summer.
62. Spring.
63. Seasons.
64. Sincerity.
65. Time.
66. Truth.
67. Vanity.
68. Virtue.
69. Variety.
70. Winter.
71. Wisdom.
72. War.

73. Follow nature.
74. Know thyself.
75. Passing away.
76. It is well.
77. Deny thyself.
78. Thou, God, seest me.
79. Hope on, hope ever.
80. Who is my neighbor?
81. Never despair.
82. Try again.
83. Be courteous.
84. Immortality of life.
85. I still live.
86. Individual responsibility.
87. My friends.
88. My enemies.
89. Memories of the past.
90. Let me think.
91. Mutual forbearance.
92. Public opinion.
93. Economy is wealth.
94. My Bible.
95. My native place.
96. My childhood.
97. Each must answer for himself.
98. I would rather be right than be President.
99. Prove your own selves.
100. The voices of nature.
101. Nature's God.
102. Seed-time and harvest.
103. The flower and fruit.
104. Walks of usefulness.
105. The house I live in.
106. The world as it is.
107. Our Country.
108. Society of nations.
109. The last year.
110. Time flies.
111. Attend to your own business.
112. Let us live while we live.
113. We must die as we live.
114. Meditations among the tombs.

115. Knowledge is power.
116. Be wise to-day.
117. Old age.
118. I must die.
119. What is my duty?
120. Precept and example.
121. Meditations in a ball-room.
122. Meditations of Heaven.
123. This is a noble life to live.
124. The dignity of labor.
125. The closet.

§ 388. The student has now passed through what are commonly regarded as the most important parts of grammar — Etymology and Syntax. He can analyse a sentence, and parse it, and apply to it the rules of grammar. But this is not all which is necessary to make an English scholar.

The study of language, when limited to its structure, its origin, its adaptations, uses, and principles, is *a department of philosophy*. The study of its classics, and of the language as there defined and matured, is *a department of polite literature and general learning*.

§ 389. In its relation to other languages — its copious range of words, its idioms and accidents — it is a study of *details*, of *analysis*, of *exceptions*, of *usages*, and of *authority*.

§ 390. The whole scheme of language is philosophical — the natural development of established principles. The entire structure of language is analogical: *to nature*, in its formation; *to other languages*, and *to itself*, in its processes. These are subjects of study in the department of grammar.

The English student has a mine of treasured literature to explore in the received classics — the permanent records of the nation. Our language is not now a football, to be the sport of boys: it is the gymnasium of mind — the great arena of vigorous thought. Men wrestle and contend there. Giants enter the combats. The classics of England and the classics of America preside and give judgment.

§ 391. The student, therefore, should have these classics before him, and study them. He must have his English dictionary, not so much to learn the *parts of speech*, which must be rather decided by the uses of the words; but to aid him in tracing the origin of words, and the general uses to which the best authorities have applied them.

§ 392. A careful regard to the etymology of words, in their derivation as well as their grammatical structure, is necessary to a due perception of the true force, and to a practical command, of language. This involves a study of the philosophy of language, and of the languages cognate to our own — the derivation and composition of words from other languages or from our own; the changes and varieties in their signification; the formation of new words, constantly occurring in a living language.

§ 393. Words have been *adopted* — 1. From other languages. A class of this kind is found in the Second Part of Etymology in this work, which form their plurals regularly, according to the language from which they are taken. § 164, *Obs.* 12—17.

§ 394. 2. Words are *derived* from other words. In order to understand the power and proper force of language, the attention of the student should be carefully directed to trace the derivation of words from other words in other languages, and in the English itself.

§ 395. 3. Words are *compounded* — 1. By the amalgamation of two or more principal words. 2. By prefixes and suffixes. 3. By *interchange* of the several parts of speech: thus,

1. Nouns are used for adjectives: as, *Iron* rule, *gold* pen.
2. Nouns are used for verbs: as, *Rule* — he *rules* his house.
3. Adjectives are used for nouns: as, *Wicked*—the *wicked* perish.
4. Verbs are used for nouns: as, *Concert'* — *con'cert.*
5. Participles are used — 1. For nouns: as, *Beginning* — in the *beginning.* 2. For adjectives: as, A *standing* pool. 3. For adverbs: as, *Passing* strange. 4. For prepositions: as, *Concerning* these things. 5. For conjunctions: as, *Admitting* you are in the wrong, the quarrel is settled.
6. Adverbs are used — 1. For phrases: as, He will *doubtless* — *without doubt.* 2. For relative pronouns: as, He has more money *than* is required. 3. For prepositions: as, He, than whom none greater sat. 4. For ellipses: as, Are you happy? *Perfectly.*
7. Prepositions are used — 1. For adverbs: as, He went *about* doing good. 2. For conjunctions: as, He will go, *for* he said so.

This list might be indefinitely extended. The inquiring mind will readily be led by these hints to comprehend the copious range given to language by these interchanges of words.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 396. The Analysis and Syntactical relation of sentences and their several parts involves *Punctuation*, or the division of sentences and parts of sentences by *points*, indicating stops or pauses in reading or speaking.

The principal signs used to indicate these pauses are four. The Comma (,) —the Semicolon (;) — the Colon (:) — and the Period (.). There are also four others — the Interrogation (?)—the Exclamation (!)—the Parenthesis ( ) — and the Dash (—).

The use of these signs depends on the sense of the text.

§ 397. The *comma* separates parts of the sentence which are most clearly connected: as,

1. Simple members of a compound sentence are separated by commas.

2. Words of the same part of speech, when not connected by conjunctions, whether nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs: as, 'Faith, hope, charity, these three, but the greatest of these is charity.'

3. The nominative case independent — the infinitive used elliptically — a phrase quoted—require separation by commas: as, 'Sir, give me your hand;' 'To confess the truth, I am in the wrong;' 'The phrase, *Punic faith*, is a Roman slander.'

4. A name in apposition, accompanied by an adjunct, is separated by the comma: as, 'Paul, the Apostle.' But a single name in apposition is not separated: as, 'The Apostle Paul.'

5. All adjuncts and explanatory phrases are separated by commas. Also portions of a sentence placed out of their natural order.

6. The relative must be separated from its antecedent by the comma, except where the connection is so close that it can suffer no transposition.

7. When a verb is followed by the infinitive, which can be made the nominative, they are separated by the comma.

8. A comma supplies the place of a verb understood.

9. Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, used to introduce new members of a sentence, are separated by commas.

10. *Therefore, wherefore, however, besides, indeed, nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly*, and all words of this sort, when emphatic, should be separated by commas.

§ 398. *The Semicolon.*—When the divisions of a sentence are not close enough for the comma, and yet related, the semicolon is used.

§ 399. *The Colon.*—The colon is used to separate those parts of a sentence, or those sentences, that are very near a final period.

§ 400. *The Period.*—When the sentence is finished, in construction and sense, a period is used.

The period should always be placed after a date, a signature, an abbreviation, and between the capitals of abbreviations.

§ 401. Much latitude is given to the exercise of taste in the punctuation of sentences, and in this license are used the other signs of pauses.

The *Dash* is used to designate indefinitely any length of pause—especially an abrupt or unexpected stop—a significant pause, or significant passage, clause, or words, about to follow.

The *Interrogation* is used to ask a question;

The *Exclamation* to designate surprise, or any sudden emotion.

The *Parenthesis* is equal to two commas, or dashes, enclosing a remark in the body of a sentence.

The *Apostrophe* designates the omission of a letter; as, 'lov'd,' for 'loved.'

The *Caret* shows that something is wanting: as, this ∧ —

The *Hyphen* connects compound words: as, 'father-in-law;' or words divided: as, 'fath-er.'

The *Section*, thus, §, designates portions of a discourse.

The *Paragraph*, thus, ¶, denotes the beginning of new subjects.

Crotchets [ ] enclose portions assigned to any special or specified purpose.

A *Quotation* " " shows a portion taken from another author.

An *Index* points out something remarkable: thus, ☞.

The *Brace* } connects what is to be considered together.

Ellipsis designates an omission: as, 'K—g' for 'King.'

Accent—acute (′), denotes a short or accented syllable—*grave* (`) a long syllable—*breve* (˘) marks a short vowel or syllable—*dash* (¯) a long one—*diæresis* (¨) divides two vowels: as, 'aërial.'

Asterisk (*), *obelisk* (†), *double dagger* (‡), and *parallels* (‖)—*small letters*: as, '*a*, *b*, *c*,' and *figures*, refer to notes in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Several asterisks (* * *) denote passages or paragraphs omitted.

§ 402. Sentences should be short. They are then most easily read and understood.

A subject should be divided into paragraphs. Short paragraphs, formed by the natural subdivisions of the subject, render it more readable, and more easily understood.

In writing, *Capital letters* should be used—1. To commence every chapter, letter, sentence, or address. 2. Proper names of persons, places, &c., and adjectives derived from proper names. 3. The personal pronoun, *I*, and interjections. 4. The first word of any line in poetry. 5. The appellations of Deity. 6. The first word of a quotation. 7. Common nouns, when personified. 8. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books—and any word which is remarkably emphatical.

Italics are used for emphasis, or a call to special attention: and words of double emphasis are printed in small capitals. In *writing*, *italics* are designated by an *underscore*: *capitals*, by a double *underscore*.

§ 403. ABBREVIATIONS.

A. C.	Before Christ	Ante Christum.
A. B.	Bachelor of Arts	Artium Baccalaureus.
A. D.	In the year of our Lord	Anno Domini.
A. M.	Master of Arts	Artium Magister.
A. M.	In the year of the World	Anno Mundi.
A. M.	In the forenoon	Ante Meridiem.
A. U. C.	From the founding of the city of Rome	Ab Urbe Condita.
B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity	Baccalaureus Divinitatis.
C. P. S.	Keeper of the Privy Seal	Custos Privati Sigilli.
C. S.	Keeper of the Seal	Custos Sigilli.
D. D.	Doctor of Divinity	Doctor Divinitatis.
e. g.	For example	Exempli gratia.
F. R. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society	Regiæ Societatis Socius.
R. S. A. S.	Fellow of the Royal Society of Antiquarians	Regiæ Societatis Antiquariorum Socius.
G. R.	George the King	Georgius Rex.
i. e.	That is	Id est.
I. H. S.	Jesus, Saviour of men	Jesus Hominium Salvator.
LL. D.	Doctor of Laws	Legum Doctor.
L. S.	Place of the Seal	Locus Sigilli.
Messrs.	Gentlemen	Messieurs.
M. D.	Doctor of Medicine	Medicinæ Doctor.
M. S.	Sacred to the Memory	Memoriæ Sacrum.
N. B.	Note well	Nota Bene.
P. M.	In the Afternoon	Post Meridiem.
P. M.	Postmaster.	
P. S.	Postscript	Post Scriptum.
Ult.	Last (month)	Ultimo.
&c.	And the rest	Et cætera.

A.—Answer.	*Gen.*—General.	*Bbl.*—Barrel.
Acct.—Account.	*L. C. J.*—Lord Chief Justice.	*Bp.*—Bishop.
Bart.—Baronet.		*Per Cent.*—By the hundred.
Bp.—Bishop.	*Knt.*—Knight.	*Co.*—Company.
Capt.—Captain.	*Maj.*—Major.	*Cwt.*—Hundredweight.
Col.—Colonel.	*MS.*—Manuscript.	*Dea.*—Deacon.
Chap.—Chapter.	*Apb.*—Archbishop.	*Dec.*—December.
Cr.—Creditor.	*Admr.*—Administrator.	*U. S.*—United States.
Dr.—Debtor.	*Apr.*—April.	*Me.*—Maine.
Do.—Ditto, the same.	*Aug.*—August.	*N. H.*—New Hampshire.

Vt.—Vermont.
Mass.—Massachusetts.
R. I.—Rhode Island.
Conn.—Connecticut.
N. Y.—New York.
Pa.—Pennsylvania.
N. J.—New Jersey.
Del.—Delaware.
Ma.—Maryland.
D. C.—Dist. Columbia.
Va.—Virginia.
N. C.—North Carolina.
S. C.—South Carolina.
Ga.—Georgia.
Fla.—Florida.
Ala.—Alabama.
Miss.—Mississippi.
La.—Louisiana.
Tex.—Texas.
Ark.—Arkansas.
Tenn.—Tennessee.
Ky.—Kentucky.
Mo.—Missouri.
O.—Ohio.
Ia.—Indiana.
Ill.—Illinois.
Io.—Iowa.
Wis.—Wisconsin.
Nom.—Nominative.
Poss.—Possessive.
Obj.—Objective.
Num.—Number.
Pers.—Person.
Gend.—Gender.
Indc.—Indicative.
Imp.—Imperative.
Inf.—Infinitive.
Poten.—Potential.
Subj.—Subjunctive.
Part.—Participle.
Pres.—Present.
Impf.—Imperfect.
Perf.—Perfect.
Pluperf.—Pluperfect.
Fut.—Future.
Sec. Fut.—Second Fut.
Indef.—Indefinite.
Inter.—Interrogation.
Deg.—Degree.
Dolls. or $.—Dollars.
Doz.—Dozen.
Dwt.—Pennyweight.
E.—East.
W.—West.
N.—North.
S.—South.
Eng.—England.
Esq.—Esquire.
Exr.—Executor.
Fol.—Folio.
Fr.—French.
Gall.—Gallon.
Gen.—General.
Gent.—Gentleman.
Gov.—Governor.
Gr.—Grain.
Hhd.—Hogshead.
Hon.—Honorable.
Hund.—Hundred.
Ib.—Ibidem; in the same place.
Id.—Idem; the same.
Inst.—Instant; present, or this month.
Incog.—Unknown.
Jr.—Junior.
Lieut.—Lieutenant.
Lon.—Longitude.
Mr.—Mister.
Mrs.—Mistress.
Nem. Con.—No one opposing.
No.—Number.
Obt.—Obedient.
Oz.—Ounce.
Pl.—Plural.
Pp.—Pages.
Pres.—President.
Prob.—Problem.
Prof.—Professor.
Prop.—Proposition.
Ps.—Psalm.
Qr.—Quarter.
Qt.—Quart.
Rev.—Reverend.
Sec.—Secretary.
Sen.—Senior.
Sq.—Square.
Viz.—Namely.
Vol.—Volume.
4to.—Quarto.
8vo.—Octavo.
12mo.—Duodecimo.
18mo.—Octodecimo.

PART IV.

COMPRISING

I. PROSODY. II. ORTHOGRAPHY.

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PROSODY.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

PROSODY AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

ACCENT, QUANTITY, PAUSE, PROSE, AND VERSE.

CHAPTER I.

§ 404. PROSODY treats of *Utterance*, including *Pauses*, *Accent*, and *Versification*.

The division of Grammar into *four Parts* — *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*, or the treatment of *Letters*, of *Words*, of *Sentences*, and of *Utterance*, is not only an arrangement for convenience, but conformable to the nature of Language. Prosody treads on *Rhetoric*, as Syntax on Prosody, and each of the preceding divisions on the next in order.

§ 405. *Rhetoric* is the use of language in its highest perfection and most efficient utterance, for the expression and illumination of thought. It is the consummation of the Science of Grammar, in its philosophy and application to language, the great medium of thought. We trench upon it in treating of Prosody, as we began to invade the province of Prosody in Syntax. *Punctuation* belongs so, as a connective, with Syntax and Prosody, that grammarians have differed in assigning the Rules of Punctuation, sometimes to Syntax, sometimes to Prosody.

§ 406. Rhetoric must be left to a separate treatise. *Prosody*, in its most important rules and principles, we treat briefly, and commend what we say to the careful attention of the English student. "A short horse is soon curried," and this done, you are placed decently *on horseback*, instead of being obliged to prose your way in the footpaths and by-paths.

CHAPTER II.

ACCENT, QUANTITY, PAUSES, PROSE.

§ 407. ACCENT is the stress which is laid on one or more syllables, in the pronunciation of a word: as, *Con'*cert, con*cert'*.

§ 408. *Accent*, in poetry, is the *stress* laid on monosyllabic words: as,

But, ah! those fairy *scenes* at once are *fled*.

§ 409. Modern versification depends principally on accent — ancient Greek and Roman versification depended principally on quantity.

§ 410. *Quantity* relates to syllables as *long* or *short:* as, Fate, *long;* fat, *short.*

§ 411. *Pause* is a suspension of the voice in reading or speaking. *Pauses* are Rhetorical or Grammatical.

§ 412. *Rhetorical Pauses* are employed chiefly for arresting attention, immediately before or after emphatic words or sentences.

§ 413. *Grammatical Pauses* are used to determine the sense, and are determined by the sense. They have been treated in the Rules of Punctuation.

§ 414. There are two *pauses* which are peculiar to poetry — the *Cæsural* and the *Final* pause. The *cæsural pause* occurs after the *fourth, fifth,* or *sixth* syllable of the line, rarely after the *third* or *seventh.*

§ 415. The *cæsura* after the *fourth* syllable gives the lively and spirited verse.

The *cæsura* after the *fifth* syllable forms the smooth, gentle, and flowing verse.

The *cæsura* after the *sixth* syllable forms a measured, stately, and solemn verse.

The *final pause* occurs at the end of the line.

The tasteful and effective enunciation of poetry depends much on the due observance of these pauses and of the accents.

§ 416. Language is employed in two kinds of composition — *Prose* and *Verse.*

§ 417. In *Prose,* words and phrases are arranged with primary reference to the sense.

§ 418. In *Verse,* the arrangement of words and phrases is made with primary reference to sound and measure.

§ 419. *Prose* compositions are, *Narrative, History, Biography, Memoirs, Philosophy, Letters, Essays, Sermons, Orations, Novels.*

Narrative is a simple statement of facts.
History, a record of the past.
Biography, a history of an individual.
Memoirs, irregular posthumous records.
Philosophy, treatises on the arts and sciences.
Letters, private personal interwriting.
Essays, familiar treatises.
Sermons, religious discourses.
Orations, addresses at the bar or forum.
Novels, fictitious writings.

§ 420. *Poetic* compositions are, *Lyric, Dramatic, Epic, Elegy, Descriptive, Didactic, Pastoral, Satires, Sonnet, Epitaph, Epigram.*

Lyric; that which may be sung or set to music.
Dramatic; fitted to representation on the stage, as a play, and is either *Tragic* or *Comic.*
Epic; a historical poem.
Elegy; lamentation for the dead.
Descriptive, of Nature, or manners and morals.
Didactic; in which duty is inculcated.
Pastoral; relating to rural life.
Satires; the ridicule of follies and vices.
Sonnet; a little song.
Epitaph; a commemoration of the dead.
Epigram; a short esprit of wit and humour.

CHAPTER III.

VERSIFICATION.

§ 421. VERSIFICATION is a measured arrangement of words, in English, depending on the regular recurrence of accent.

§ 422. It is of two kinds — *Rhyme* and *Blank Verse.*

Rhyme depends on a correspondence of sound in the last syllables or words of the verses. *Blank verse* is verse without *rhyme.*

Rhyme is most ornamental — *Blank verse,* more free, varied, and dignified. *Blank verse* is always written in measures of *ten feet*— *Rhyme,* of any number of feet.

§ 423. A *foot* is a certain number of syllables classed together in a rhythmical division of the verse.

§ 424. A *Couplet* or *Distich* consists of two verses. A *Triplet,* of three verses. A *Stanza,* of several lines, constituting one division. *Scanning,* is resolving the verses into *feet.*

§ **425.** The principal *feet* used in English are, the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, and the *Anapest*.

1. The *Iambus* has two syllables; the first unaccented, the second accented: as, 'concért.'
2. The *Trochee* has two syllables; the first accented, the second unaccented: as, 'cóncert.'
3. The *Anapest* has three syllables; the first two unaccented, the last accented: as, 'countermánd.'

§ **426.** Five other feet are occasionally employed — 1. The *Spondee*—two accented syllables. 2. The *Pyrrhic*—two unaccented syllables. 3. *Dactyl*—three syllables, with the first only accented 4. *Amphibrach* — three syllables, with the second only accented. 5. *Tribrach* — three unaccented syllables.

§ **427.** *Iambic verse* is composed of *iambic feet*, and has the accent on the alternate syllables. The most common are —

1. Four iambuses, or eight syllables, in a verse: as,

And máy – at lást – my wéa – ry agé
Find oút – the peáce – ful hér – mitáge.

An additional syllable sometimes gives a lighter air to it: as,

Or íf – it bé – thy wíll – and pleás – ure,
Diréct – my plóugh – to fínd – a tréas – ure.

In some cases, the foot consists of a single syllable: as,

"Praise – to God – immor – tal praise,
For – the love – that crowns – our days."

§ **428.** 2. Five iambuses, or ten syllables, in a verse: as,

How lóv'd – how vál – u'd on'ce – avaíls – thee nót.

This is called the *Heroic* measure. It takes many varieties by the use of additional feet.

§ **429.** The *Alexandrine Iambic* consists of six feet: as,

For thóu – art bút of dúst – be húm – ble ánd – be wíse.

§ **430.** The verses of *Psalmody*, consisting of alternate lines of *four* and *three iambic feet*, were formerly written in *one verse of seven feet:* as,

"The Lórd – descénd–ed from – abóve – and bów'd – the heáv–ens hígh."

A single syllable, added at the end of the line, sometimes gives variety to this measure: as,

"Waft, waft – ye wínds – his stó – *ry*,
And you, ye thunders, roll."

§ **431.** *Three* other forms of iambic verse are sometimes employed — 1. *One* iambus, with an additional syllable: as,

Consent – ing,
Repent – ing.

2. *Two* iambuses, with or without an additional syllable: as,

With thee – we rise,
With thee – we reign.

Upon – a mount – ain,
Beside – a fount – ain.

3. *Three* iambuses, with or without an additional syllable: as,

A charge – to keep – I have,
A God – to glo – rify.

Our hearts – no long – er lan – guish.

§ **432.** *Trochaic verse* is composed of trochaic feet, and has the accent on the first and every alternate syllable.

§ **433.** 1. *Three* trochees in a verse, with sometimes an additional syllable: as

"Whén our – hearts áre – mórning."
or, "Bliss from – eárth in – váin is – sóught."

§ **434.** 2. *Four* trochees: as,

Roúnd us – roárs the – témpest – lóuder.

§ **435.** 3. *Six* trochees: as,

"O'n a – móuntain – strétch'd be – néath a – hóary – wíllow."

§ **436.** We sometimes find three other forms — 1. *One* trochee, with an additional syllable: as,

"Túmult – cease,
Sin'k to – peace."

2. *Two* trochees, sometimes with an additional syllable: as,

"Wíshes – rísing,
Thoúghts sur – prísing."
or, Gíve the – véngeance – due
Tó the – váliant – crew.

3. *Five* trochees: as,

"Vírtue's – bríght'ning – ray shall – beam for – ever."

§ **437.** *Anapestic verse* has the accent on every third syllable. There are three principal forms —

§ 438. 1. *Two* anapestic feet, or two anapests and an unaccented syllable: as

"But his cóu – rage 'gan fáil."
"Then his cou – rage 'gan fail – him."

§ 439. 2. *Three* anapestic feet: as,

"I would híde – with the beásts – of the cháse."

§ 440. 3. *Four* anapestic feet: as,

"On the cóld – cheek of déath – smiles and rosés – are blending."

§ 441. Our *Blank Verse* may be reckoned a noble and bold and disencumbered species of versification, and in several cases it possesses many advantages over rhyme. It allows the lines to run into one another with perfect freedom. Hence, it is adapted to subjects of dignity and force, which demand more free and full numbers than can be obtained in rhyme. Blank verse is written in heroic measure, consisting of ten syllables. But this measure may be written either with or without rhyme. Milton's Paradise Lost, Thomson's Seasons, Cowper's Task, and Pope's translation of Homer, are examples of heroic verse.

CHAPTER IV.

§ 442. FIGURES OF SPEECH — of *Etymology*, of *Syntax*, of *Rhetoric* — are departures from the ordinary *form* of words — from their *regular construction*, or from their *literal signification*.

§ 443. I. *Figures of* ETYMOLOGY are —

§ 444. 1. *Aphæresis* — cuts off the first letter or syllable of a word: as, *'Neath*, for *beneath*.

§ 445. 2. *Syncope* — elision of one or more letters from the middle of a word: as, *Ling'ring*.

§ 446. 3. *Elision* of one or more letters from the end of a word: as, *Thro'*, for *through*.

§ 447. 4. *Prothesis* — the addition of one or more letters to the beginning of a word: as, *Enchain*, for *chain*.

§ 448. 5. *Paragoge* is the addition of one or more letters to the end of a word: as, *Bounden*, for *bound*.

§ 449. 6. *Synœresis* — the contraction of two syllables into one: as, *Alienate*, for *aliënate*.

§ 450. 7. *Diæresis* — the separation of two vowels standing together, so as to connect them with different syllables: as, *Aërial.*

§ 451. 8. *Tmesis* — the separation of a compound word, by introducing another word between its parts: as, *How* high *soever.*

§ 452. II. The *Figures of* SYNTAX are—1. *Ellipsis*—the omission of one or more words, which must be supplied to complete the sense: as, 'Reading makes a learned man; conversation (makes) a ready man; writing (makes) an exact man.'

§ 453. 2. *Pleonasm* — the use of more words than are necessary to express an idea: as, 'This *here* is the book.'

§ 454. 3. *Ennalage* — the use of one part of speech for another: as, '*Slow* rises merit by poverty depressed.'

§ 455. 4. *Hyperbaton* — the transposition of words: as, '*Ill* fares the land to threat'ning ills *a prey.*'

§ 456. III. *Figures of* RHETORIC. The principal figures of rhetoric are — 1. *Simile* — a direct comparison: as, 'He shall be *like* a tree planted by the rivers of water.'

§ 457. 2. *Metaphor* — an implied comparison: as, 'Thy word is a lamp to my feet.'

§ 458. 3. *Allegory* — a continued metaphor. 'Pilgrim's Progress' is a lengthened allegory.

§ 459. 4. *Antithesis* denotes opposition or contrast: as, 'Virtue ennobles its possessor — vice degrades.'

§ 460. 5. *Hyperbole* — exaggeration of facts or truth.

§ 461. 6. *Irony* — adds force to expression, by representing vividly a palpable improbability: as, Elijah's challenge to the priests of Baal, 1 Kings 18. 27.

§ 462. 7. *Metonymy* — changes the name, 1. The *cause* for the *effect*, or the *effect* for the *cause:* as, the debauchee says of his disease, 'This is my life.' 2. The *container* for the *thing contained:* as, 'The kettle boils.' 3. The *sign* for the *thing signified:* as, 'The sceptre shall not depart from Judah.'

§ 463. 8. *Synecdoche* — by which the whole is put for a part or a part for the whole, a definite number for an indefinite, &c. as, 'Man is mortal' — *his body.*

§ 464. 9. *Personification*, or *Prosopopeia* — attributes life and

action to inanimate objects: as, 'The clouds frowned, and the ocean was angry.'

§ **465.** 10. *Apostrophe* — is an address to the dead or absent as if they were present: as, 'England, with all thy faults, I love thee.'

§ **466.** 11. *Interrogation* — is a question put in such a shape that it answers itself affirmatively, with an increased power of affirmation: as, 'What God affirms, who will deny?'

§ **467.** 12. *Exclamation* — a passionate expression of feeling: as, 'O, the wonders of redeeming love!'

§ **468.** 13. *Vision* — employs the present tense in describing things past or future.

§ **469.** 14. *Climax* — rises, in description, with each successive fact, more important than the preceding, so that a rhetorical effect is produced by the whole description.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

§ **470.** ORTHOGRAPHY treats of *Letters* — their *forms*, their *offices*, and their *combinations into words*.

Orthography belongs properly to the Spelling-book, and should have been studied there. We here repeat its principles briefly.

§ **471.** The English language is not an original formation, but a reconstruction out of fragments of several languages.

This renders the history of the language important to philology and to its critical interpretation.

§ **472.** The introduction of letters early relieved written language from the limited range of expression which a burdensome system of hieroglyphics could give to thought. The invention answered a demand existing in the social relations of the race.

When records of thought and events were made by hieroglyphics, the poverty of language must have been deeply felt. Where entire words are represented by signs, the embarrassment is but partially relieved.

§ **473.** Twenty-six letters of the English Alphabet readily

combine to form the 75,000 words of our language, and are capable, in this use, of indefinite extension. These words not only are readily formed to represent the name of every object of sense, but every subject of thought, or reality, or imagination — not only to express of those objects or subjects any quality or relation, but every shade of thought or emotion existing in the mind, and to transfer, with precision, the thoughts of one mind to other minds.

§474. Language! it is worthy of our most diligent study — in its letters, its words, its sentences, its various combinations, to express thought, to influence the mind, to unite man to man in sympathy, knowledge, union, fraternity.

CHAPTER II.

LETTERS — THEIR NATURE, FORM, NAMES.

§475. The Letters of the English Alphabet are *twenty-six* — represented each by a particular form in printing and writing, and by a particular sound of the human voice in utterance.

§476. The following are the different forms of English letters:

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

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

OLD ENGLISH, *Capitals:* 𝔄 𝔅 ℭ 𝔇 𝔈 𝔉 𝔊 ℌ ℑ 𝔍 𝔎 𝔏 𝔐 ℕ ⊙, &c.
Small: 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.

CHAPTER III.

§477. The letters of the Alphabet are divided into *Vowels* and *Consonants*.

A *vowel* makes a perfect sound of itself.

The *consonants* require the aid of the vowels to sound them, and hence are called *consonants*.

There are five vowels, *a, e, i, o, u;* and *w* and *y* are vowels, when they begin a word or syllable.

§478. A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound.

Diphthongs are called *proper* when both the vowels are sounded: as, *ou*, in *loud*. *Improper*, when only one of the vowels is sounded: as, *oa*, in *boat*.

The *proper diphthongs* are two: *oi* and *ou*.

The *improper diphthongs* are numerous, and are merely the juxtaposition of two vowels, with but one of them sounded.

§479. The *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one

sound: as, *ieu* in *lieu*. There are three of them—*ieu*, *eau*, and *iew*. They have but one vowel-sound.

§ 480. The *consonants* are divided into *Mutes* and *Semivowels*.

The *mutes* are *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, *k*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The *semivowels* are *f*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *x*, *y*, *z*, and *c* and *g* soft.

Four of the semivowels are *liquids*—*l*, *m*, *n*, *r*.

The *mutes* are known by the stop of the voice in an attempt to sound them, as in *hop*. The sound of a *semivowel* may be prolonged, as in *hall*.

§ 481. The *consonants* are divided according to the part of the organs of speech they employ.

Labials, pronounced by the lips: as, *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*; *Dentals*, by the teeth: as, *t*, *d*, *c*, *s*; *Palatals*, by the palate: as, *g* soft, and *j*; *Gutturals*, by the throat: as, *k*, *g*, *c* and *g* hard; *Nasals*, by the nose: as, *m* and *n*; *Linguals*, by the tongue: as, *c* and *r*.

§ 482. The same letter has often different sounds, which can be learned by the ear only. These sounds are *long*, or *short*, *broad*, *flat*, *hard*, *soft*, *rough*, *smooth*, &c.

§ 483. *A* has four sounds: as, *fate*, *fat*, *far*, *fall*.

E has two sounds: as, *mete*, *met*.

I has two sounds: as, *pine*, *pin*.

O has three sounds: as, *note*, *not*, *move*.

B has but one sound, as in *but*. It is sometimes silent.

C sounds hard, like *k*, before *a*, *o*, *u*; soft, like *s*, before *e*, *i*, *y*. Before *e*, *i*, and *y*, followed by another vowel, it has the sound of *sh*: as, *ocean*. Before a consonant, or at the end of a syllable, it is always hard: as, *crawl*, *rubric*.

Ch has the sound of *tsh*, in words purely English, as in *chin*; of *sh*, in words derived from the French, as in *chaise*; and of *k*, in words derived from the Hebrew, Greek, or other ancient languages, as in *chorus*, *Chaldee*.

Ch, in *arch*, before a consonant, is always sounded like *tsh*, as in *Archbishop*. But before a vowel, it is sometimes sounded like *tsh*, as in *arch-enemy*; and sometimes like *k*, as in *archangel*.

D has its own sound, as in *drum*, and the sound of *j*, as in *soldier*. Sometimes it has the sound of *t*, at the end of words, as in *tripped*.

F has its own sound, as in *from*; except in *of*, where it has the sound of *v*.

G has the hard sound, as in *give*; soft, as in *genius*; silent, as in *gnaw*; hard, before *a*, *o*, *u*; sometimes soft or hard before *e*, *i*, and *y*. Before a consonant, or at the end of a syllable, it is always hard.

Ng has a sound peculiar to itself, as in *ring*.

Gh has the sound of *f*, as in *tough*; of *g* hard, as in *burgh*; or is silent, as in *plough*.

H has but one sound, as in *holy*, and is often silent.

J has one sound, as in *joy*; except in *Hallelujah* where it has the sound of *y*.

K has one sound, as in *keep*—never sounded before *n*, as in *knife*—doubled only in *Habakkuk*.
L has one sound, as in *liquid*, and is sometimes silent, as in *talk*.
M has only one sound, as in *map*.
N has one sound, as in *man*; and *nk*, as in *bank*.
P has one sound, as in *pill*—except the sound of *b*, in *cup-board*.
Ph has the sound of *f*, in *philosophy*—and *v*, in *Stephen*.
Q has the sound of *k*, and is always followed by *u*.
R is rough, as in *rock*—soft, as in *bark*.
S has its own sound in *sister*—*z*, in *rosy*—*sh*, in *sugar*—*zh*, in *pleasure*—and is silent in *island*.
Se is sounded hard before *a*, *o*, *u*—soft before *e*, *i*, and *y*—and as *sh*, in *conscious*.
T has its own sound in *take*—*sh*, in *patient*—*tsh*, in *fustian*—silent in *bustle*.
Th has two sounds, in *thin* and *thie*; *t*, as in *Thomas*.
V has one sound, as in *vain*.
W has the sound of *oo*, as in *water*—often silent, as in *answer*.
Wh has the sound of *hw*, as in *whale*.
X has the sound of *s*, in *Xenophon*—*ks*, in *exercise*—*gz*, in *exist*.
Y, consonant, has one sound, as in *yes*.
Z has its own sound, as in *zeal*—*zh*, as in *azure*—silent, in *rendezvous*.

CHAPTER IV.

§ 484. A *Syllable* is a distinct sound, forming as much of a word as can be sounded at once. Sometimes it constitutes a whole word.

A *monosyllable* is a word of one syllable; a *dissyllable*, of two syllables; a *trisyllable*, of three syllables; a *polysyllable*, of many syllables.

General Rules for Spelling.

§ 485. RULE I.—Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel: as, *rob, robber; admit, admittance:* except *s* and *k*, which are never doubled.

But when a diphthong precedes, or the accent is not on the last syllable, a consonant is not doubled: as, *boil, boiling, boiler; visit, visiter.*

§ 486. RULE II.—Words ending with *ll*, generally drop one *l* before the termination *ness, less, ly* and *ful:* as, *fulness, skilless, fully, skilful.*

§ 487. RULE III.—Words ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable: as, *spy, spies; happy, happier, happiest; carry, carrier, carried; fancy, fanciful.*

But *y* is not changed before *ing:* as, *deny, denying.*

Words ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged: as, *boy, boys, boyish, boyhood. Lay, pay, say*, make *laid, paid, said.*

INDEX.

BAILEY'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

FROM WM. H. McGUFFEY, LL.D.,

The Author of McGuffey's Series of School Books.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, MAY, 1853.

MESSRS. LIPPINCOTT, GRAMBO & CO.,

Gentlemen:

I have had the privilege of examining the manuscript of an English Grammar by Rev. R. W. Bailey, and think it superior in some respects to any Grammar of our language now before the public.

Mr. Bailey, I understand, will offer it to you for publication. Should you conclude to give it to the American Public, it would, I believe, greatly aid in diffusing a more correct knowledge of our language, and thus subserve the cause of general education in a most important department.

Respectfully yours,
W. H. McGUFFEY,
Prof. of Moral Phil., University of Va.

The following testimonial is from REV. JAS. GREEN, for some years a successful teacher of a Classical School in Fredericksburg, Va., subsequently Principal of the Charlottesville Female Seminary, and now Principal of the Presbyterian High School, Rockbridge Co., Va.

TO REV. RUFUS W. BAILEY,

Sir:—I have examined with some care the manuscript copy of the English Grammar prepared by you, which you have submitted to my inspection. As a text-book for Schools and Academies, I think it in many respects superior to any English Grammar that I have hitherto seen—I have no doubt it will be gladly received by teachers who desire to give their pupils a thorough knowledge of the English language. We shall desire a supply for the High School at the opening of the session in September.

The following points of excellence in it have my especial approval:

1. The *tripartite division* of the parts of speech is philosophical and perspicuous.

2. The *aggregated principles of language*, with the rules appended, in a concise form, in Part I., is well conceived. The definitions are generally simple, full, and lucid.

3. The *repetition of the Rules*, with elaborate observations, critical and illustrative, in Part II., complete the *Syntax* in a luminous form.

4. The *disquisition on the modes and tenses*, in Part II., illustrates this difficult part of our language.

5. The *collection of idioms* and *sentences* of difficult solution, in Part III., accompanied with explanations and criticisms, is of invaluable service.

6. The Grammar is at once *simple* as an *elementary work*, and *full*—embracing a solution of the most important difficulties of the language, and suited to complete the education of the English scholar.

Yours, &c.,
JAMES GREEN.