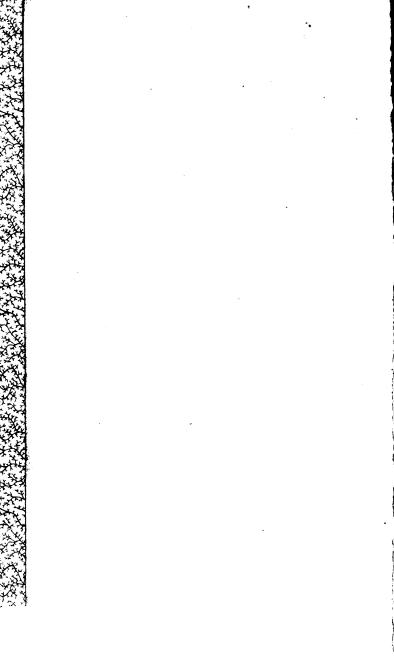


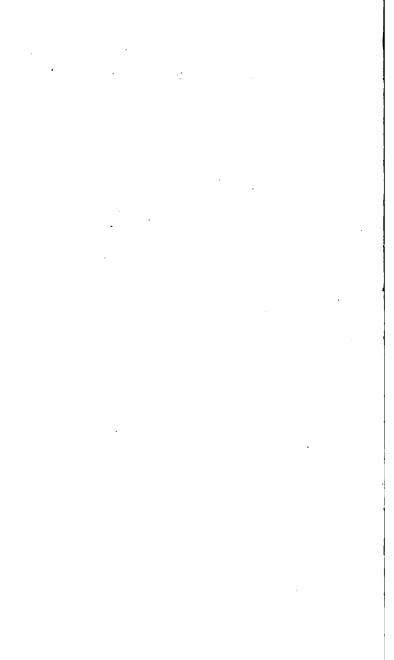
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FIRST LINES

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

BEING

A BRIEF ABSTRACT

OF

THE AUTHOR'S LARGER WORK.

DESIGNED FOR YOUNG LEARNERS.

BY GOOLD BROWN.

Ne quis igitur tanquam parva fastidiat Grammatices elementa.— Quintilian.

The rudiments of every language must be given as a task, not as an amusyment.—Goldsmith.

NEW YORK:

SAMUEL S & WILLIAM WOOD:

1854.



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PREFACE.

The following epitome contains a general outline of the principles of our language, as embodied and illustrated in "The Institutes of English Grammar." The definitions and explanations here given, are necessarily few and short. The writer has endeavoured to make them as clear as possible, and as copious as his limits would allow; but it is plainly impracticable to crowd into the compass of a work like this, all that is important in the grammar of our language. Those who desire a more complete elucidation of the subject, are invited to examine the larger work.

For the use of young learners, small treatises are generally preferred to large ones; because they are less expensive to parents, and better adapted to the taste and capacity of children. A small treatise on Grammar, like a small map of the world, may serve to give the learner a correct idea of the more prominent features of the subject; and to these his attention should at first be confined; for, without a pretty accurate knowledge of the general scheme, the particular details and nice distinctions of criticism can neither be understood nor remembered.

The only successful method of teaching grammar, is, to cause the principal definitions and rules to be committed thoroughly to memory, that they may ever afterwards be readily applied. And the pupil should be alternately exercised in learning small portions of his book, and then applying them in parsing, till the whole is rendered familiar.

The learner who shall thus go through this little work, will, it is imagined, acquire as good a knowledge of the subject as is to be derived from any of the abridgements used in elementary schools. And, if he is to pursue the study further, he will then be prepared to read with advantage the more copious illustrations and notes contained in the larger work, and to enter upon the various exercises adapted to its several parts.

This work is in no respect necessary to the other, as it contains the same definitions, and pursues the same plan. The use of it in the early stages of pupilage will preserve a more expensive book from being soiled and torn; and the scholar's advancement to the larger work may be expected to increase his pleasure and accelerate his progress in the study.

GOOLD BROWN

New-York, 1826.

FIRST LINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and riting the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthogra-

phy, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate

words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, and their classes and modifications.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separate words, and spelling.

OF LETTERS.

A Letter is a character used in printing or writing, to represent an articulate sound.

1.

An articulate sound is a sound of the human

voice, used in speaking.

The letters in the English alphabet are twenty-

CLASSES OF LETTERS.

The letters are divided into two general classes, vowels and consonants.

A vowel is a letter which forms a perfect sound, when uttered alone.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be per fectly uttered till joined to a vowel.

The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, and sometimes w,

and y. All the other letters are consonants.

W and y are consonants when they precede a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in wine, twine, whine, ye, yet, youth: in all other situations, they are vowels; as in newly, dewy, eyebrow.

Observation 1. The consonants are divided into mutes and semivowels.

Obs. 2. A mute is a consonant which cannot be sounded at all

without a vowel. The mutes are b, d, k, p, q, t, and c and g hard. Obs. 3. A semi-vowel is a consonant which can be imperfectly sounded without a vowel. The semi-vowels are f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z, and c and g soft. Of these, l, m, n, and r, are termed liquids, on account of the fluency of their sounds.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes the Italic; and occasionally the Old English.

The letters have severally two forms, by which they are distinguished as capitals and small letters.

Small letters constitute the body of every work; and capitals are used for the sake of eminence and distinction.

RULES FOR THE USE OF CAPITALS.

RULE I .- TITLES OF BOOKS.

The titles of books, and the heads of their principal divisions, should be printed in capitals. When books are merely mentioned, the principal words in their titles begin with capitals, and the other letters are small; as, "Pope's Essay on Man."

RULE II .- FIRST WORDS.

The first word of every distinct sentence should begin with a capital.

RULE III .- NAMES OF DEITY.

All names of the Deity should begin with capitals; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being.

RULE IV .-- PROPER NAMES.

Titles of office or honor, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, Chief Justice Hale, William, London, the Park, the Albion, the Thames.

RULE V .- OBJECTS PERSONIFIED.

The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual, should begin with a capital; as,

"Come, gentle Spring, ethereal mildness, come"

RULE VI .- WORDS DERIVED.

Words derived from proper names of persons or places, should begin with capitals; as, Newtonian, Grecian, Roman.

RULE VII .-- I AND O.

The words I and O should always be capitals.

RULE VIII .- POETRY.

Every line in poetry should begin with a capital.

RULE IX .- EXAMPLES.

The first word of an example, of a distinct speech, or of a direct quotation, should begin with a capital; as, "Remember this maxim: 'Know thyself?"—"Virgil says, 'Labour conquers all things.'"

RULE X .- CHIEF WORDS.

Other words of particular importance, and such as denote the principal subject of discourse, may be distinguished by capitals. Proper names frequently have capitals throughout.

OF SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

A Syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound, and is either a word or a part of a word; as, a, an, ant.

A Word is one or more syllables spoken or

written as the sign of some idea.

In every word there are as many syllables as there are distinct sounds; as, gram-ma-ri-an.

A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable; a word of two syllables, a dissyllable; a word of three syllables, a trissyllable; and a word of four or more syllables, a polysyllable.

DIPHTHONGS AND TRIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong is two vowels joined in one syllable; as, ea in beat, ou in sound.

A proper diphthong, is a diphthong in which

both the vowels are sounded; as, oi in voice.

An improper diphthong is a diphthong in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, oa in loaf.

A triphthong is three vowels joined in one syl-

lable; as, eau in beau, iew in view.

A proper triphthong, is a triphthong in which

all the vowels are sounded; as, uoy in buoy.

An improper triphthong, is a triphthong in which only one or two of the vowels are sounded: as, eau in beauty.

Obs. 1. The diphthongs in English are twenty-nine. Some of them, being variously sounded, may be either proper or improper.

Obs. 2. The proper diphthongs are thirteen; ay-ia, ie, io-oi,

ou, ow, oy-ua, ue, ui, uo, uy.

Obs. 3. The improper diphthongs are twenty-six; aa, ae, ai, ao, au, aw, ay-ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey-ie-oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, -ua, ue, ui, uo, uy.

Obs. 4. The only proper triphthong is uoy, given in the example

Obs. 5. The improper triphthongs are eleven; awe, aye-eas, oou, ewe, eye—ieu, iew, iou—oeu, owe.

SPECIES AND FIGURE OF WORDS.

Words are distinguished as primitive or derivative, and as simple or compound. The former division is called their species; the latter, their figure.

A primitive word is one that is not formed from any simpler word in the language; as, harm, great,

connect.

A derivative word is one that is formed from some simpler word in the language; as, harmless, greatly, connected.

A simple word is one that is not compounded;

as, watch, man.

A compound word is one that is composed of two or more simple-words; as, watchman, nevertheless.

Obs. 1. Permanent compounds are consolidated; as bookseller, schoolmaster: others are formed by the hyphen; as, glass-house, negro-merchant.

Obs. 2. In dividing words into syllables, we are chiefly to be directed by the ear; it may however be proper to observe the follow-

ing rules.

I. The consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or

diphthongs which they modify; as, ap-os-tol-i-cal.

II. Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical word; as, harm-less, great-ly, connect-ea.

III. Compounds should be divided into the simple words which

ompose them tag anatch man menerathe less

compose them; as, watch-man, never-the-less.

IV. At the end of a line, a word may be divided, if necessary; but a syllable must never be broken.

OF SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

Obs. This important art is to be acquired rather by means of the spelling-book or dictionary, and by observation in reading, than by the study of written rules. The orthography of our language is attended with much uncertainty and perplexity: many words are variously spelled by the best scholars, and many others are not usually written according to the analogy of similar words. But so be ignorant of the orthography of such words as are uniformly spelled and frequently used, is justly considered disgraceful. The following rules may prevent some embarrassment, and thus be of service to the learner.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

RULE I .- FINAL F, L, OR S.

M mosyllables ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel double the final consonant: as staff, mill, pass; except if, of, as, gas, has, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus.

RULE II .- OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than f, L, or s, do not double the final letter; except add, odd, ebb, egg. inn, err, purr, butt, buzz, and some proper names.

RULE III .- DOUBLING.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, when they end with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, rob, robber; permit, permitting.

Exception. X final, being equivalent to ks, is never doubled

RULE IV .-- NO DOUBLING.

A final consonant, when it is not preceded by a single vowel, or when the accent is not on the last syllable, should remain single before an additional syllable: as, toil, toiling; visit, visited; general, generalize.

Exc. But l and s final are often doubled, (though perhaps improperly,) when the last syllable is not accented: as, travel, travetted; bias, biassed.

RULE V .- FINAL LL.

Primitive words ending in *ll*, generally reject one *l*, before ful, less, ly, and ness: as, skill, skilful, skilless; full, fully, fulness. Obs. Words ending in any other double letter, preserve it double: as, blissful, oddly, stiffness, carelessness.

RULE VI .-- FINAL E.

The final e of a primitive word is generally omitted before an additional termination beginning with a vowel: as, rate, ratable. force, forcible; rave, raving.

Exc. Words ending in ce or ge retain the e before able or ous, to preserve the soft sound of c and g: as, peace, peaceable; change,

changeable; outrage, outrageous.

RULE VIL -- FINAL E.

The final e of a primitive word is generally retained before an

additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, pale, pale-

ness; lodge, lodgement.

Exc. When the e is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omitted: as, true, truly; awe, awful: and sometimes retained; as, rue, rueful; shoe, shoeless.

RULE VIII .- FINAL Y.

The final y of a primitive word, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into i before an additional termination: as, merry, merrier, merriest, merrily, merriment; pity, pitied, pities, pitiest, pitiess, pitiful, pitiable.

Exc. Before ing, y is retained, to prevent the doubling of i; as, pity, pitying. Words ending in ie, dropping the e by RULE VI.

change i into y, for the same reason; as die, dying.

Obs. When a vowel precedes, y should not be changed; as, day, days, valley, valleys; money, moneys; monkey, monkeys.

RULE IX .- COMPOUNDS.

Compounds generally retain the orthography of the simple words which compose them; as, hereof, wherein, horseman, recall, uphill, shell fish.

Exc. In permanent compounds, the words full and all drop one l; as, handful, careful, always, withal: in others they retain both; as,

full-eyed, all-wise, save-all.

Obs. Other words ending in *ll* sometimes improperly drop one *l*, when taken into composition, as *miscal*, *downhil*. This excision is reprehensible, because it is contrary to general analogy, and because both letters are necessary to preserve the sound, and show the derivation of the compound. Where is the consistency of writing recall, miscal—inthrall, bethral—windfall, downfal—laystall, thumbstal—waterfall, overfal—molehill, dunghil—windmill, twibil—clodyoll. enrol?—! See Johnson's Dictionary, first American ed. 4to.]

QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION.

LESSON I .- GENERAL DIVISION

What is English Grammar? How is it divided? Of what does Orthography treat? Of what does Etymology treat? Of what does Syntax treat? Of what does Prosody treat?

QUESTIONS ON ORTHOGRAPHY

LESSON II .- LETTERS.

Of what does Orthography treat?
What is a Letter?
What is an articulate sound?

How many letters are there in English? and what are their names? How are the letters divided? What is a vowel? What is a consonant? What letters are vowels? and what consonants?

LESSON III .- CAPITALS.

When are w and y consonants? and when, vowels?

What characters are employed in English?
Has each letter more than one form?
Where are small letters employed? and why are capitals used?
How many rules for capitals are there? and what are their heads?
What says Rule 1st of titles of books?—Rule 2d of first words?
Rule 3d of names of Deity? Rule 4th of proper names? Rule
5th of objects personified? Rule 6th of words derived? Rule 7th
of Jand O? Rule 8th of poetry? Rule 9th of examples? Ruie
10th of chief words?

LESSON IV .-- SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

What is a Syllable? What is a Word? Can the syllables of a word be perceived by the ear? What is a word of one syllable called? What is a word of two syllables called? What is a word of three syllables called? What is a word of four or more syllables called? What is a diphthong? What is a proper diphthong? What is an improper diphthong? What is a triphthong? What is a proper triphthong? What is an improper triphthong? How are words distinguished as to species and figure? What is a primitive word? What is a derivative word? What is a simple word? What is a compound word?

LESSON V .- SPELLING.

What is spelling?
How is this art to be acquired?
How many and what are the rules for spelling?
What says Rule 1st of final f, l, or s? Rule 2d of other finals?
Rule 3d of the doubling of consonants? Rule 4th of not doubling?
Rule 5th of final ll? Rule 6th of final e? Rule 7th of final e?
Rule 5th of final y? Rule 9th of compounds?

PART II.

ETYMŐLÖGY.

Etymology treats of the different parts of speech, and their classes and modifications.

OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

X

The Parts of speech, or sorts of words, in Engish, are ten; namely, the Article, the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb, the Participle, he Adverb, the Conjunction, the Preposition, and the Interjection.

1. THE ARTICLE.

An Article is a word placed before nouns, to limit their signification: the articles are the, and an or a.

2. THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned: as, George, York, man, apple, truth.

3. THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, A wise man; a new book.—You two are diligent.

4. THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well.

5. THE VERB.

A Verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled; I love, thou lovest, he loves.

6. THE PARTICIPLE.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb and an adjective; and is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed*, to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule* are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *ruling*, 2. *ruled*, 3. *having ruled*.

7. THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are now here, studying very diligently.

8. THE CONJUNCTION.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected: as, Thou and he are happy, because you are good.

9. THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun: as, The paper lies before me on the desk.

10. THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, Oh! alas!

PARSING.

Parsing is the resolving or explaining of a sentence according to the definitions and rules of grammar.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

Chapter I.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

tis here required if the pupil merely to distinguish and define the different parts of speech. Thus:

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"Bring a long lad ler, and set it up against the tree."

Bring is a verb.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

A is an article.

An article is a word placed before nouns, to limit their signification.

Long is an adjective.

An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality.

Ladder is a noun.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

And is a conjunction.

A conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected.

Set is a verb.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

It is a pronoun.

A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

Up is an adverb.

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

Against is a preposition.

A preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or a pronoun.

The is an article.

An article is a word placed before nouns, to limit their signification.

Tree is a noun.

A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

LESSON I.

The carpenter has a saw, and a chisel, and a plane, and an adze, and a gimlet, and a hatchet, and a hammer, and nails, and a mallet, Come, let us go into the fields, and see the sheep, and the lambs and the cows, and the trees.

LESSON IL

In the spring of the year, the weather becomes warm; the trees bud, and put forth their leaves; the young grass springs up out of the ground; and the plants and shrubs appear in bloom; the gardens and orchards are perfumed with fragrance, and the birds sing in the groves.

LESSON III.

In summer the fervid sun, darting his direct rays, oppresses us with heat. Then the waving fields of grain ripen for harvest, and the earlier kinds of fruit get ripe. (O how nice ripe fruit is!) Then the grass is mown, to provide food for the cattle against winter. Men cut it down with a sharp scythe; and when it is dried, it becomes hay. Quite small boys can help to make hay. They can spread the grass when it is cut.

LESSON IV.

In autumn, all the late fruits ripen; and they fall to the ground if people do not pluck them. The nights are chilled with frost. The leaves wither, and the forests lose their verdure. The thick foliage of the trees now lies scattered on the ground, or, caught by the hedges, hangs quivering in the wind. No song of birds is heard in the leafless grove.

LESSON V.

In winter, the stormy winds blow keen and cold; and there are snow and ice. The snow covers the ground like a white robe. Men wrap themselves in warm clothes, and live upon the food which they laid up in the time of harvest. Ah! what will now become of those who were idle in summer, and thoughtless of the change which the rolling year produces?

LESSON VI.

Ye summer's heat, and winter's cold!
By turns in long succession roll'd,
The drooping world to cheer:
Praise him who gave the sun and moon,
To lead the various seasons on,
And guide the circling year.—Merrick.

OF THE ARTICLE.

An Article is a word placed before nouns, to limit their signification: the articles are the, and an or a.

An and a are one and the same article. An is used whenever the following word begins with a vowel sound; as, An art, an end, an heir, an inch, an ounce, an hour, an urn. A is used whenever the following word begins with a consonant sound; as, A man, a house, a wonder, a one, a yew, a use, a ewer. Thus the sounds of w and y, even when expressed by other letters, require a and not anbefore them.

The articles are distinguished as the definite and the indefinite.

The definite article is the, which denotes some particular thing or things; as, The boy, the oranges.

The indefinite article is an or a, which denotes one thing of a kind, but not any particular one; as, A boy, an orange.

Obs. A noun without an article or other word to limit its signification, is generally taken in its widest sense; as, Man is endowed with reason.

OF THE NOUN.

A Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned; as, George, York, man, apple, truth.

CLASSES.

Nouns are divided into two general classes;

proper and common.

A proper noun is the name of some particular individual or people; as, Adam, Boston, the Hudson, the Romans.

A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class of things; as, Beast, bird, fisu, insect.

The particular classes, collective, abstract, and verbal, are usually included among common nouns.

A collective noun, or noun of multitude, is the name of many individuals together; as, Council, meeting, committee, flock.

An abstract noun is the name of some particular quality consider ed apart from its substance; as, Goodness, hardness, pride, frailty.

A verbal or participial noun is the name of some action or state of being; and is formed from a verb, like a participle, but employed as a noun; as, "The triumphing of the wicked is short." Job, xx. 5.

MODIFICATIONS.

Nouns have modifications of four kinds; namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

PERSONS.

Persons, in grammar, are modifications that distinguish the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing merely spoken of.

There are three persons; the first, the second.

and the third.

The first person is that which denotes the speaker; as, "I Paul have written it."

The second person is that which denotes the

hearer; as, "Robert, who did this?"

The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of; as, "James loves his book."

Obs. 1. The distinction of persons belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form or construction, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects, in person.

Obs. 2. The speaker seldom refers to himself by name, as the speaker; consequently, nouns are rarely used in the first person.

Obs. 3. When inanimate things are spoken to, it is by a figure of speech, called personification.

NUMBERS.

Numbers are modifications that distinguish unity and plurality.

There are two numbers; the singular and the plural.

The singular number is that which denotes but

one; as, the boy learns.

The plural number is that which denotes more

than one; as, The boys learn.

The plural number of *nouns* is regularly formed by adding s or es to the singular: as, book, books; box, boxes.

Obs. 1. The distinction of numbers belongs to nouns, pronouns, and finite verbs; and to these it is always applied, either by peculiarity of form, or by inference from the principles of concord. Pronouns are like their antecedents, and verbs are like their subjects, in number.

Obs. 2. When a singular noun ends in a sound which will unite with that of s, the plural is generally formed by adding s only, and the number of syllables is not increased: as, pen, pens; grape, grapes.

Obs. 3. But when the sound of s cannot be united with that of the primitive word, the plural adds s to final e, and es to other terminations, and forms a separate syllable: as, page, pages; fox, foxes.

Obs. 4. Nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant, add es, but do not increase their syllables: as, wo, woes; hero, heroes. Other

nouns in o add s only: as, folio, folios.

Obs. 5. Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant, change y into i, and add es, without increase of syllables: as, fly, flies; duty, duties.

Other nouns in y add s only: as, day, days; valley, valleys.

Obs. 6. The following names in f, change f into v, and add es, for the plural; sheaf, leaf, loaf, veef, thief, calf, half, elf, shelf, self, wolf, wharf; as, sheaves, leaves, &c. Life, lives; knife, knives; wife, wives; are similar.

Obs. 7. The greater number of nouns in f and fe are regular; as,

fifes, strifes, chiefs, griefs, &c.

Obs. 8. The following are still more irregular: mun, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren [or brothers]; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice; die, dice; penny, pence. Dies, stamps, and pennies, coins, are regular.

Obs. 9. Many foreign nouns retain their original plural; as, arcanum, arcana; radius, radii; vortex, vortices; axis, axes; phenome-

non, phenomena; seraph, seraphim.

Obs. 10. Some nouns have no plural: as, gold, pride, meekness. Obs. 11. Some nouns have no singular: as, embers, ides, oats,

scissors, tongs, vespers, literati, minutiæ.

Obs. 12. Some are alike in both numbers: as, sheep, deer, swine,

hose, means, odds, news, species, series, apparatus.

Obe. 13. Compounds in which the principal word is put first, vary the principal word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case: as, father-in-law, father-in-law, father-in-laws.

Obs. 14. Compounds ending in ful, and all those in which the principal word is put last, form the plural in the same manner as other nouns: as, handfuls, spoonfuls, mouthfuls, fellow-servants, man-

Obs. 15. Nouns of multitude, when taken collectively, admit the plural form: as, meeting, meetings. But when taken distributively. they have a plural signification, without the form: as, "The jury were divided."

GENDERS.

Genders are modifications that distinguish objects in regard to sex.

There are three genders; the masculine, the

feminine, and the neuter.

The masculine gender is that which denotes animals of the male kind; as, man, father, king. The feminine gender is that which denotes ani-

mals of the female kind; as, woman, mother, queen.

The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female; as, pen, ink, paper.

Obs. 1. The different genders belong only to nouns and pronouns; and to these they are usually applied agreeably to the order of nature. Pronouns are of the same gender as the nouns for which they stand.

Obs. 2. Some nouns are equally applicable to both sexes; as, cousin, friend, neighbour, parent, person, servant. The gender of these is usually determined by the context.

Obs. 3. Those terms which are equally applicable to both sexes, (if they are not expressly applied to females,) and those plurals which are known to include both sexes, should be called masculine in parsing; for, in all languages, the masculine gender is considered the most worthy, and is generally employed when both sexes are included under one common term.

Obs. 4. The sexes are distinguished in three ways:

I. By the use of different names: as, bachelor, maid-boy, girlbrother, sister-buck, doe-bull, cow-cock, hen.

II. By the use of different terminations: as, abbot, abbess-hero,

roine-administrator, administratrix.

III. By prefixing an attribute of distinction: as, cock-sparrow, hensparrow-man-servant, maid-servant-he-goat, she-goat-male relations, female relations.

Obs. 5. The names of things without life, used literally, are al ways of the neuter gender. But inanimate objects are often represented figuratively, as having sex. Things remarkable for power, greatness. or sublimity, are spoken of as masculine: as, the sun, time, death, sleep, fear, anger, winter, war. Things beautiful, amiable, or prolific, are spoken of as feminine: as, the moon, earth, nature, fortune, knowledge, hope, spring, peace.

Obs. 6. Nouns of multitude when they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are of the neuter gender; but when they convey the idea of plurality without the form, they follow the gen-

der of the individuals that compose the assemblage.

Obs. 7. Creatures whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be regarded, are generally spoken of as neuter: as, "He fired at the deer, and wounded it."—"If a man shall steal an ox or a sheep and kill it or sell it," &c. Exod. xxii. 1.

CASES.

Cases are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words.

There are three cases; the nominative, the

possessive, and the objective.

The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the subject of a verb: as, The boy runs; I run.

The possessive case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the relation of

property: as, The boy's hat; my hat.

The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition: as, I know the boy; he knows me.

Obs. 1. The cases belong only to nouns and pronouns. Pronouns

are not necessarily like their antecedents, in case.

Obs. 2. The nominative and the objective of nouns are always alike, being distinguishable from each other only by their place in a sentence, or their simple dependence according to the sense.

Obs. 3. The subject of a verb is that which answers to who or what before it; as, "The boy runs."—Who runs? The boy. Boy is

therefore here in the nominative case.

Obs. 4. The object of a verb, participle, or preposition, is that which answers to whom or what after it; as, "I know the boy."—I know whom? The boy. Boy is therefore here in the objective case.

Obs. 5. The possessive case of nouns is formed, in the singular number, by adding to the nominative s preceded by an apostrophe; and, in the plural, when the nominative ends in s, by adding an apostrophe only: as, boy, boy's, boys'.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

The declension of a noun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases. Thus:

	EXAMPLE I				
Singi	ılar.	Pl	Plural.		
Nom.	friend,	Nom.	friends.		
Poss.	frienďs,	Poss.	friends		
Obj.	friend ;	Obj.	friends		
EXAMPLE II.—MAN.					
Nom.	man,	Nom.	men,		
Poss.	man's,	Poss.	men's,		
Obj.	man ;	Obj.	men.		
EXAMPLE III.—FOX.					
Nom.	fox,	Nom.	foxes,		
Poss.	fox's,	Poss.	foxes,		
Obj.	fox;	Obj.	foxes.		
EXAMPLE IVFLY.					
Nom.	fly,	Nom.	flies,		
Poss.	fly's,	Poss.	flies',		
Obj.	fly ;	Obj.	flies.		

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER IL-ETYMOLOGICAL.

It is here required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles and nouns. Thus:

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"The horse runs swiftly."

The is the definite article.

1. An article is a word placed before nouns, to limit their signification.

2. The definite article is the, which denotes some particular

thing or things.

Horse, is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case.

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class of things.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one. 5. The masculine gender is that which denotes animals of

the male kind.

 The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the subject of a verb.

Runs is a verb.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

Swiftly is an adverb

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

LESSON I.

The contented mind spreads ease and cheerfulness around .t. The school of experience teaches many useful lessons. In the path of life, no one is constantly regaled with flowers. Food, clothing, and credit, are the rewards of industry.

LESSON II.

He that lies abed all a summer's morning, loses the chief pleasures of the day: he that gives up his youth to indolence, undergoes a loss of a like kind.

We should not destroy an insect, or quarrel with a dog, without a reason sufficient to vindicate us through all the courts of morality.

LESSON III.

A man of integrity will never listen to any reason against conscience.

It is an empty joy, to appear better than you are; but a great

blessing, to be what you ought to be.

Take counsel of the oracle in thine own heart, for there is not a more faithful monitor, than that which speaks in secret there.

LESSON IV.

Pleasure's call attention wins,
Hear it often as we may;
New as ever seem our sins,
Though committed every day.
Oh! then, ere the turf or tomb
Cover us from every eye,
Spirit of instruction! come,
Make us learn that we must die.—Couper.

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

An Adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and generally expresses quality: as, A wise man; a new book.—You two are diligent.

CLASSES.

Adjectives may be divided into six classes; namely, common, proper, numeral, pronominal,

participial, and compound.

I. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation; as, Good, bad, peaceful, warlike, eastern, western, outer, inner.

II. A proper adjective is one that is formed from a proper name; as, American, English, Platonic.

III. A numeral adjective is one that expresses

a definite number; as, One, two, three, four, &c. IV. A pronominal adjective is a definitive word which may either accompany its noun, or represent it understood; as, "All [men] join to guard what each [man] desires to gain."—Pope.

V. A participial adjective is one that has the form of a participle, but differs from it by reject-

ing the idea of time; as, An amusing story.

VI. A compound adjective is one that consists of two or more words joined by a hyphen; as, Nut-brown, laughter-loving, four-footed.

Obs. Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely,

1. Cardinal; as, One, two, three, four, five, six, seven, &c. 2. Ordinal; as, First, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, &c.

3. Multiplicative; as, Single or alone, double or twofold, triple or threefold, quadruple or fourfold, &c.

MODIFICATIONS.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but comparison.

Comparison is a variation of the adjective, to express quality in different degrees; as, hard, harder, hardest.

There are three degrees of comparison; the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

The positive degree is that which is expressed by the adjective in its simple form; as, hard, soft, good.
The comparative degree is that which exceeds

the positive; as, harder, softer, better.

The superlative degree is that which is not

exceeded; as, hardest, softest, best.

· Those adjectives whose signification does not admit of different degrees, cannot be compared; as, two, second, all, total, immortal, infinite.

Those adjectives which may be varied in sense, but not in form, are compared by means of adverbs; as, skilful, more skilful, most skilful,—skil-

f A, less skilful, least skilful.

Adjectives are regularly compared, when the comparative degree is expressed by adding er,

and the superlative by adding est, to them; as,

Positive. Comparative. Superlative.

great, greater, greatest.

*wide, wider, widest. hotter, hottest.

The following adjectives are compared irregularly: good, better, best; bad or ill, worse, worst; little, less, least; much, more, most; many, more, most; far, farther, farthest; late, later, or latter, latest or last.

Obs. 1. As the simple form of the adjective does not necessarily imply comparison, and as many adjectives admit no other, some think it is not requisite in parsing, to mention the degree, unless it be the comparative or the superlative.

Obs. 2. The method of comparison by er and est, is chiefly applicable to monosyllables, and to dissyllables ending in y or mute e.

Obs. 3. The different degrees of a quality may also be expressed, with precisely the same import, by prefixing to the adjective, the adverbs more and most; as, wise, more wise, most wise; famous, more famous, most famous; amiable, more amiable, most amiable.

Obs. 4. Diminution of quality is expressed, in like manner, by the adverbs less and least; as wise, less wise, least wise; famous, less

famous, least famous.

Obs. 5. The prefixing of an adverb can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The words may with more propriety be parsed

separately, the degree being ascribed to the adverb.

Obs. 6. Most adjectives of more than one syllable, must be compared by means of the adverbs; because they do not admit a change of termination: thus, we may say, virtuous, more virtuous, most virtuous; but not virtuous, virtuouser, virtuousest.

Obs. 7. Common adjectives are more numerous than all the other classes put together. Very many of these, and a few pronominals and participials, may be compared; but adjectives formed from proper names, all the numerals, and most of the compounds, are in no way susceptible of comparison.

Obs. 8. Nouns are often used as adjectives; as, An iron bar—An evening school—A mahogany chair—A south-sea dream. These

also are incapable of comparison.

Obs. 9. The numerals are often used as nouns; and, as such, are regularly declined: as, Such a one—One's own self—The little ones

-By tens-For twenty's sake.

Obs. 10. Comparatives, and the word other, are sometimes also employed as nouns, and have the regular declension; as, Our superiors—His betters—The elder's advice—An* other's wo—Let others do as they will. But, as adjectives, these words are invariable.

Obs. 11. Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are expressed, simply relate to them, and have no modifications; except this and that, which form the plural these and those; and much, many, and a

few others, which are compared.

Obs. 12. Pronominal adjectives, when their nouns are not expressed, may be parsed as representing them in person, number,

gender, and case.

Obs. 13. The following are the principal pronominal adjectives: All, any, both, each, either, every, few, former, first, latter, last, many, neither, none, one, other, same, some, such, this, that, which, what. Which and what, when they are not prefixed to nouns, are for the most part, relative or interrogative pronouns.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER III.—ETYMOLOGICAL.

R is here required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles, nouns, and adjectives. Thus:

EXAMPLE PARSED.

' Take better care."

^{*} There seems to be no good reason for joining on and other. An here excludes any other article; and analogy and consistency require that the words be separated. Their union has led sometimes to an improper repetition of the article; as, "Another such man"—for "An other such man".

Tirke is a verb.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon. Better is a common adjective, of the comparative degree, compared irregularly, good, better, best.

1. An adjective is a word added to a noun or pronoun, and

generally expresses quality.

2. A common adjective is any ordinary epithet, or adjective denoting quality or situation.

3. The comparative degree is that which exceeds the positive. Care is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case/

1. A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing, that can

be known or mentioned.

2. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class of things.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing

merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

5. The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are

neither male nor female.

6. The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

LESSON I.

Ha! what is there amongst the bushes? I can see only its eyes. It has very large full eyes. It is a hare. The hare is very innocent and gentle. In this country, it is generally brown; but, in countries which are very cold, it turns white as snow. It has a short bushy tail; its lip is parted and very hairy; and it always moves its lips.

LESSON II.

The hare feeds upon herbs and roots, and the bark of young trees; and sometimes it will steal into the gardens to eat pinks and parsley: and it loves to play and skip about by moonlight, and to bite the tender blades of grass, when the dew is upon them; but, in the daytime, it loves to sleep.

LESSON III.

The hare sleeps with its eyes open, because it is very fearful and imid; and when it hears the least noise it starts, and pricks up its .ong ears. If it hears a dog coming, it runs away very swift, y, stretching its long legs, and soon leaves him far behind. But a dog is stronger than a hare, and he can run to a much greater distance before he grows tired.

LESSON IV.

The heart is hard in nature, and unfit For human fellowship, as being void Of sympathy, and therefore dead alike To love and friendship both, that is not pleas'd With sight of animals enjoying life, Nor feels their happiness augment his own.—Comper.

OF THE PRONOUN.

A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun: as, The boy loves his book; he has long lessons, and he learns them well.

Obs. 1. The word for which a pronoun stands, is called its ante-

cedent, because it usually precedes the pronoun.

Obs. 2. Pronouns often stand for persons or things not named;

the antecedent being understood.

Obs. 3. A pronoun with which a question is asked, stands for some person or thing unknown to the speaker, and may be said to have no antecedent; as, "What lies there?" Ans. "A man asleep."

Obs. 4. One pronoun may stand as the immediate antecedent to an other; as, "Blessed are they that mourn."

CLASSES.

Pronouns are divided into three classes; personal, relative and interrogative.

I. A personal pronoun, is a pronoun that

shows by its form of what person it is.

The simple personal pronouns are five: namely, I, of the first person; thou, of the second person; he, she, and it of the third person.

The compound personal pronouns are also five; namely, myself, of the first person; thyself, of the second person; himself, herself, and it

self, of the third person.

II. A relative pronoun, is a pronoun that represents an antecedent word or phrase, and con-

nects different clauses of a sentence.

The relative pronouns are. who, which, what, and that; and the compounds whoever or whosoever, whichever or whichsoever, whatever or whatsoever.

What is a kind of double relative, equivalent to that which, or those which; and is to be parsed first as antecedent, and then as relative.

III. An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun with which a question is asked.

The interrogative pronouns are, who, which, and what; being the same in form as relatives.

Obe. 1. Who is usually applied to persons only; which, though

formerly applied to persons, is now confined to animals and inaminate things; what (as a mere pronoun) is applied to things only; that is

applied indifferently to persons, animals, or things.

Obs. 2. The pronoun what has a twofold relation, and is often used (by ellipsis of the noun) both as antecedent and relative, being equivalent to that which, or the thing which. In this double relation, what represents two cases at the same time; as, "He is ashamed of what he has done;" that is, of that which he has done.

Obs. 3. What is sometimes used both as an adjective and a relative at the same time, and is placed before the noun which it represents; as, "What money we had, was taken away;" that is, All the money that we had, &c.—"What man but enters, dies:" that is, Any man who, &c.—"What god but enters yon forbidden field."—Pope. Indeed, it does not admit of being construed after a noun, as a simple relative. The compound whatever or whatsoever has the same peculiarities of construction; as, "We will certainly do whatsoever thing goeth forth out of our own mouth."—Jer. xliv. 17:

Obs. 4. Who, which, and what, when the affix ever or soever is added, have an unlimited signification; and, as some general term, such as any person or any thing is implied in the antecedent, they are commonly followed by two verbs: as, "Whoever attends will im

prove;" that is, Any person who attends will improve.

Obs. 5. That is a relative pronoun, when it is equivalent to who or which; as, "The days that [which] are past, are gone forever." It is a definitive or pronominal adjective, when it relates to a noun expressed or understood; as, "That book is new." In other cases, it is a conjunction; as, "Live well, that you may die well."

Obs. 6. The word as, though usually a conjunction or an adverb, has sometimes the construction of a relative pronoun; as, "The Lord added to the church daily such [persons] as should be saved."

Acts ii. 47.

Obs. 7. Whether was formerly used as an interrogative pronoun, referring to one of two things; as, "Whether is greater, the gold or the temple?"—Mat. xxiii. 17.

MODIFICATIONS.

Pronouns have the same modifications as nouns; namely, Persons, Numbers, Genders, and Cases.

Obs. 1. In the personal pronouns, most of these properties are distinguished by the words themselves; in the relative and the interrogative pronouns, they are ascertained chiefly by the antecedent and the verb.

Obs. 2. "The pronouns of the first and second persons, are both masculine and feminine; that is, of the same gender as the person or persons they represent."—Levizac. The speaker and the hearer, being present to each other, of course know the sex to which they respectively belong; and, whenever they appear in narrative, we are told who they are.

8*

Obs. 3. Murray and some others deny the first person of nouns, and the gender of pronouns of the first and second persons; and at the same time teach that "Pronouns must agree with their nouns, in person, number, and gender." Now, no two words can agree in any property which belongs not to both!

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

The declension of a pronoun is a regular arrangement of its numbers and cases.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

I, of the FIRST PERSON, any gender.

Sing. Nom. I,
Poss. my, or mine,
Obj. me;
Plur. Nom. we,
Poss. our, or ours,
Obj. us.

Thou, of the second person, any gender.

Sing. Nom. thou,
Poss. thy, or thine,
Obj. thee;
Plur. Nom. ye, or you,
Poss. your, or yours,
Obj. you.

HE, of the THIRD PERSON, masculine gender.

Sing. Nom. he,
Poss. his,
Obj. him;
Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. their, or theirs,
Obj. them.

SHE, of the THIRD PERSON, feminine gender.

Sing. Nom. she,
Poss. her, or hers,
Obj. her;
Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. their, or theirs,
Obj. them.

It, of the third person, neuter gender

Sing. Nom. it,
Poss. its,
Obj. it;
Plur. Nom. they,
Poss. their, or theirs,
Obj. them.

The word self, added to the personal pronouns, forms a class of compound personal pronouns, that are used when an action reverts upon the agent, and also when some persons are to be distinguished from others; as, sing. myself, plur. ourselves; sing. thyself, plur. yourselves; sing. himself, herself, itself, plur. themselves. They all want the possessive case, and are alike in the nominative and objective.

The relative and the interrogative pronouns are thus declined:

WHO, applied only to persons.

Sing. Nom. who,
Poss. whose,
Obj. whom;
Plur. Nom. who,
Poss. whose,
Obj. whom.

WHICH, applied to animals and things.

Sing. Nom. which,
Poss. *——
Obj. which;
Plur. Nom. which,
Poss. ——
Obj. which;

What, generally applied to things.

THAT, applied to persons, animals, and things,

Sing. Nom. that,
Poss ————
Obj. that;
Plur. Nom. that,
Poss. ———
Obj. that.

The compound relative pronouns whoever or whosoever, whichever or whichsoever, and whatever or whatsoever, are declined in the same manner as the simples who, which, what.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER IV.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

It is here required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles, nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. Thus:

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"She purchased it."

She is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, feminine gender, and nominative case.

1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

2. A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what person it is.

 The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.

^{*} Whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which; as, "A religion whose engin is divis:e."—Blair.

- 4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.
- The feminine gender is that which denotes animals of the female kind.
- The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the subject of a verb.

Purchased is a verb.

A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

It is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case.

- 1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.
- A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what person it is.
- The third person is that which denotes the person or thing merely spoken of.
- 4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.
- 5. The neuter gender is that which denotes things that are neither male nor female.
- The objective case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the object of a verb, participle, or preposition.

LESSON I.

Frank and Robert were two little boys about eight years old. Frank was a good boy; and whenever he did any thing wrong, he always told his father and mother of it; and when any body asked him about any thing which he had done or said, he always told the truth, so that every body who knew him believed him.

LESSON II.

But nobody who knew his brother Robert, believed a word which he said, because he used to tell lies. Whenever he did any thing wrong, he never ran to his father and mother to tell them of it, but when they asked him about it, he denied it, and said he had not done the things which he had done.

LESSON III.

The reason that Robert told lies, was because he was afraid of being punished for his faults if he confessed them. For he was a coward, and he could not bear the least pain. But Frank was a brave boy, and could bear to be punished for little faults: his mother never punished him so much for such little faults, as she did Robert for the lies which he told, and which she found out afterwards.—M. Edgeworth.

LESSON IV.

Oh! 'tis a lovely thing for youth
To walk betimes in wisdom's way,
To fear a lie, to speak the truth,
That we may trust to all they say.

But liars we can never trust,

Tho' they should speak the thing that's true;

And he that does one fault at first,

And lies to hide it, makes it two.—Watts.

OF THE VERB.

A Verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon: as, I am, I rule, I am ruled.

CLASSES.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their form, into two classes; regular and irregular.

I. A regular verb is a verb that forms the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or

ed; as, love, loved, loving, loved.

II. An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed; as, see, saw, seeing, seen.

Obs. Regular verbs form their preterit and perfect participle by adding d to final e, and ed to all other terminations. The verb hear, heard, hearing, heard, adds d to r, and is therefore irregular.

Verbs are divided, with respect to their signification, into four classes; active-transitive, activeintransitive, passive and neuter.

I. An active-transitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has some person or thing

for its object; as, "Cain slew Abel."

II. An active-intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object; as, "John walks."

III. A passive verb is a verb that represents its subject, or nominative, as being acted upon; as, "I am compelled."

IV. A neuter verb is a verb that expresses neither action nor passion, but simply being, or a state of being; as, "Thou art—He sleeps."

MODIFICATIONS.

Verbs have modifications of four kinds; namely, Moods, Tenses, Persons, and Numbers.

Moods are different forms of the verb, each of which expresses the being, action, or passion, in some particular manner.

There are five moods; the Infinitive, the Indicative, the Potential, the Subjunctive, and the

Imperative.

The *Infinitive mood* is that form of the verb, which expresses the being, action, or passion, in an unlimited manner, and without person or number; as, To read, to speak.

The Indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply indicates, or declares a thing; as, I write, you know: or asks a question; as, Do you

know ?

The *Potential mood* is that form of the verb, which expresses the power, liberty, possibility, or necessity, of being, action, or passion: as, I can read; we must go.

The Subjunctive mood is that form of the verb, which represents the being, action, or passion, as conditional, doubtful, or contingent; as, "If thou

go, see that thou offend not."

The Imperative mood is that form of the verb, which is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting; as, "Depart thou."—"Be comforted."—"Forgive me."—"Go in peace."

TENSES.

Tenses are those modifications of the verb, which distinguish time.

There are six tenses; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfeet, the First-future, and the Second-future.

The Present tense is that which expresses what now exists or is taking place; as, "I hear

a noise; somebody is coming."

The Imperfect tense is that which expresses what took place, within some period of time fully past; as, "We saw him last week; I admired his behaviour."

The Perfect tense is that which expresses what has taken place, within some period of time not yet fully past; as, "I have seen him to-day."

The Pluperfect tense is that which expresses what had taken place, at some past time mentioned; as, "I had seen him, when I met you."

The First-future tense is that which expresses what will take place hereafter; as, "I shall see

him again."

The Second-future tense is that which expresses what will have taken place, at some future time mentioned; as, "I shall have seen him by to-morrow noon."

PERSONS AND NUMBERS.

The Person and Number of a verb are those modifications in which it agrees with its subject or nominative.

In each number, there are three persons; and in each person, two numbers: thus,

Singular.			Plural.				
2 d	per.	I Thou He	lovest,	2 d	per.	You	love, love,

Obs. 1. Thus the verb in some of its parts, varies its termination to distinguish, or agree with, the different persons and numbers. The change is, however, principally confined to the second and third persons singular of the present tense of the indicative mood, and to the auxiliaries hast and has of the perfect. In the ancient biblical style, now used only on solemn occasions, the second person singular is distinguished through all the tenses of the indicative and potential moods. In the plural number there is no variation of ending, to denote the different persons, and the verb in the three persons plural, is the same as in the first person singular.—[See Inst. E. Gram. p. 55, et seq.]

Obs. 2. The second person singular is regularly formed by adding st or est to the first person; and the third person in like manner, by adding s or es: as, I see, thou seest, he sees; I give, thou givest, he gives; I go, thou goest, he goes; I fly, thou fliest, he flies; I vex,

thou vexest, he vexes; I lose, thou losest, he loses.

Obs. 3. The third person singular was anciently formed in th or

eth; but this termination is now confined to the solemn style.

Obs. 4. The only regular terminations that are added to verbs, are ing, d or ed, st or est, s or es, th or eth. Ing, and th or eth, always add a syllable to the verb, except in doth, hath, saith. The rest, whenever their sound will unite with that of the final syllable of the verb, are added without increasing the number of syllables; otherwise, they are separately pronounced. In solemn discourse, however, ed and est, are, by most speakers, uttered distinctly in all cases: except some few in which a vowel precedes; as in glorified.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

The conjugation of a verb is a regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons, numbers, and

participles.

There are four PRINCIPAL PARTS in the conjugation of every simple and complete verb; namely, the *Present*, the *Preterit*, the *Imperfect Participle*, and the *Perfect Participle*. A verb which wants any of these parts, is called *defective*.

An auxiliary is a short verb prefixed to one of the principal parts of an other verb, to express some particular mode and time of the being, action, or passion. The auxiliaries are do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, and must, with their variations.

Obs. Some of these, especially do, be, and have, are also used as principal verbs.

Verbs are conjugated in the following manner:

L SIMPLE FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

The simplest form of an English conjugation, is that which makes the present and imperfect tenses without auxiliaries; but even in these, auxiliaries are required for the potential mood, and are often preferred for the indicative

FIRST EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the regular active verb

LOVE.

Principal Parts.

Present. Preterit. Imperfect Participle. Perfect Participle
Love. Loved. Loving. Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To love.
Perfect Tense. To have loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. The simple form of the present tense is varied thus:

Singular.			Plural.			
1st per. 2d per. 3d per.	Thou	lovest,	2 d	per.	We You They	love,

2. This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary do to the verb: thus,

2. Thou dost love, 2.	You	do love, do love, do love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense in its simple form, is the preterit. In all

regular verbs, it adds d or ed to the present, but in others it is formed variously.

1. The simple form of the imperfect tense is varied thus:

Sir	ngular.		P	lural.
1. I le 2. Thou le 3. He	ovedst,	2.	\mathbf{Y} ou	loved, loved, loved.

2. This tense may also be formed by prefixing the auxiliary did to the present: thus,

	ž.	Singula	r.			tural.
1.	I	did	love,			did love,
2.	Thou	didst	love,	2.	You	did love,
3.	He	did	love;	3.	They	did love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary have to the perfect participle: thus,

Ding wai.				I was also		
1. I					have loved,	
2. Thou	hast	loved,	2.	You	have loved,	
3. He	has	loved;	3.	They	have loved.	

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary had to the perfect participle: thus,

Singular.	Plurai.
 I had loved, Thou hadst loved, He had loved; 	 We had loved, You had loved, They had loved.

First-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary shall or will to the present: thus,

Planal

1. Simply to express a future action or event:

	^	sung wa	<i></i>			ui ui.	
	I			1.	$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}$	shall	love,
	Thou				You		
3.	He	will	love;		They		

Sinoular

2. To express a promise, volition, command, or threat:

Singular.			,		ıral.		
2.	I Thou He	shalt	love,	2.	We You They	shall	love,

Second-future Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries shall have or will have to the perfect participle: thus,

singuar.	r urui.
 I shall have loved Thou wilt have loved He will have loved 	i, 2. You will have loved,

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary may, can, or must, to the radical verb: thus,

	Singular.	Plural.
2. Thou	may love, mayst love, may love;	 We may love, You may love, They may love.

Imperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliary might, could, would, or should, to the radical verb; thus,

	Singular.	Plural.
2. Thou	might love, mightst love, might love;	 We might love, You might love, They might love.

Perfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries may have, can have, or must have, to the perfect participle: thus,

	Singwar.	Piurai.
 I Thor He 	may have loved, mayst have loved, may have loved;	 We may have loved, You may have loved, They may have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

This tense prefixes the auxiliaries might have, could have, would have, or should have, to the perfect participle: thus,

Singu	lar.
Nucle	ш.

- 1. I might have loved, 1. We might have loved, 2. Thou mights have loved, 2. You might have loved, 3. He might have loved; 3. They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

This tense is generally used to express some condition on which a future action or event is affirmed, and is there-fore considered by some grammarians, as an elliptical form of the future.

Singular.		Singular.	Plural.		
1.	If I	love,	1. If we	love,	
2.	If thou	love	2. If you		
	If he		3. If they	love.	

Imperfect Tense.

This tense, as well as the imperfect of the potential mood, with which it is frequently connected, is properly an aorist, or indefinite tense, and may refer to time past, present, or future.

Singular.	Plural.		
 If I loved, If thou loved, If he loved; 	 If we loved, If you loved, If they loved. 		

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

Plural. 2. Love [ye or you,] or Do you love.

PARTICIPLES.

1.	The	Imperfect,	Loving.
2.	The	Perfect,	Loved.
3.	The	Pluperfect.	Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST EXAMPLE.

First Person Singular.

IND. I love, I loved, I have loved, I had loved, I shall love, I shall have loved. Por. I may love, I might love, I may have loved, I might have loved. Subj. If I love, If I loved.

Second Person Singular.

IND. Thou lovest, Thou lovedst, Thou hast loved, Thou hadst loved, Thou wilt love, Thou wilt have loved. Por. Thou mayst love, Thou mightst love, Thou mayst have loved, Thou mightst have loved. Subj. If thou love, If thou loved. IMP. Love [thou], or Do thou love.

Third Person Singular.

Ind. He loves, He loved, He has loved, He had loved, He will love, He will have loved. Por. He may love, He might love, He may have loved, He might have loved. Subs. If he love, If he loved.

First Person Plural.

Ind. We love, We loved, We have loved, We had loved, We shall love, We shall have loved. Por. We may love, We might love, We may have loved, We might have loved. Subj. If we love, If we loved.

*In the familiar use of the second person singular, as retained by the Society of Friends, the verb is usually varied only in the present tense of the indicative mood, and in the auxiliary hast of the perfect. Thus:

Ind. Thou lovest, Thou loved, Thou hast loved, Thou had loved, Thou will love, Thou will have loved. Pot. Thou may love, Thou might love, Thou may have loved, Thou might have loved. Subj. If thou love, It thou loved. Imp. Love [thou,] or Do thou love.

To avoid an unnecessary increase of syllables, the formation of the second person singular of the present tense is also in some degree simplified, and condered.

To avoid an unnecessary increase of syluaties, the formation of the second person singular of the present tense, is also in some degree simplified, and rendered closely analogous to that of the third person singular: st or est being added for the former exactly as so re sis added for the latter: as, I know thou knows; the stones; I read, thou readst, he reads; I take, thou takest, he takes; I bid, thou bidst, he bids; I ptly, thou pitiest, he pities. Thus there is no increase of syllables, when the verbeads with a sound which will unite with that of the letters added. [See Inst. E.

Gram. p. 56)
This method of forming the verb, accords with the practice of the most intelligest of those who retain the common use of this distinctive, and consistent mode of aliress. It disencumbers their familiar dialect of a multitude of harsh and usea Jiress. It disencumbers their familiar dialect of a multitude of harsh and use-less terminations, which serve only, when uttered, to give an uncouth prominency to words not often emphatic; and, without impairing the strength or perspiculty of the language, increases its harmony, and reduces the form of the verb, in the second person singular, nearly to the same simplicity as in the other persons and numbers. This simplification is supported by usage as extensive as the familiar use of the pronoun thou, and is also in accordance with the canons of criticism. "All words and phrases which are remarkably harsh and unharmonious, and not absolutely necessary, should be rejected."—Campbell's Philosophy of Rheteric. Sec. 2. Camen First.

Second Person Plural.

Inp. You love, You loved, You have loved, You had loved, You will love, You will have loved. Por. You may love, You might love, You may have loved, You might have loved. Subj. If you love, If you love, If you love. Imp. Love [ye or you], or Do you love.

Third Person Plural.

Ind. They love, They loved, They have loved, They had loved, They will love, They will have loved. Por. They may love, They might love, They may have loved, They might have loved. Subj. If they love, If they loved.

SECOND EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular active verb

SEE.

Principal Parts.

Present.	Preterit.	Imperfect Participle.	Perfect Participie.
See.	Saw.	Seeing.	Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To See. Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Singular.		Plural.
	I see,		1. We see,
	Thou seest,		2. You see,
3.	He sees;		3. They see.
		Imperfect	Tense.
	Singular.		Plural.
1.	I saw,		1. We saw,
2.	'Thou sawest,		2. You saw,
3.	He saw;		3. They saw.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have seen, 2. Thou hast seen, 3. He has seen	1. We have seen, 2. You have seen, 3. They have seen.

Pluperfec	t Tense.
Singular	Plural.
1. I had seen,	 We had seen, You had seen,
2. Thou hadst seen,	2. You had seen,
3. He had seen;	3. They had seen.
First-futur	e Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall see,	1. We shall see,
2. Thou wilt see,	2. You will see,
3. He will see;	3. They will see.
Second-futu	re Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have seen,	1. We shall have seen,
2. Thou wilt have seen,	2. You will have seen,
3. He will have seen;	3. They will have seen.
POTENTIA	L MOOD.
Present	Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I may see,	1. We may see,
2. Thou mayst see,	2. You may see,
3. He may see;	3. They may see.
Imperfect	Tense.
Singular.	Plural.
1. I might see,	1. We might see,
2. Thou mightst see,	2. You might see,
3. He might see;	3. They might see.
Perfect !	
Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have seen,	1. We may have seen,
2. Thou mayst have seen,3. He may have seen;	2. You may have seen,
•	3. They may have seen.
Pluperfect	
Singular	Plural.
1. I might have seen,	1. We might have seen,
2. Thou mightst have seen, 3. He might have seen;	 You might have seen, They might have seen.
o. He might have seen,	o. They might have seen

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
 If I see, If thou see, If he see; 	 If we see, If you see, If they see.

Imperfect Tense.

Singul	ar.			Plure	ıl.
 If I If thou If he 	saw,	2.	If	we you they	saw, saw, saw.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. See [thou,] or Do thou see.

Plural. 2. See [ye or you,] or Do you see.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect.	2. The Perfect.	3. The Pluperfect.
Seeing.	Seen.	Having seen.

THIRD EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular neuter verb

BE.

Principal Parts.

Present.	Preterit.	Imperfect Participle.	Perfect Participle.
Be.	Was.	Being.	Been.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be.
Perfect Tense. To have been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Sin	gular.		P	ural
	I_			We	
2.	Thou	art,	2.	You	are,
	He		3.	They	are.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.			Plural	ıl.	
1.	I	was,	1.	We	were
2.	Thou	wast,		You	
	He			They	

			/.	Perfect T	l'en	₩e.		
		Sing	ular.				Plural.	•
2.	I Thou He	hast	been,		2.	We You They	have	been,
			P	luperfect	T	ense.		

		Singula	r.	•	•			Plure	ıl.
2.	I Thou He	hadst	been,			2.	We You They	had	been,

First-future Tense.

	i	Singul	ır.			Plura	L.
1.	I	shall	be,	1.	We	shall	he,
2.	Thou	wilt	be,	2.	You	will	be,
	He			3.	They	will	be.

Second-future Tense.

ongwar.	rurai.
 I shall have been, Thou wilt have been, He will have been; 	 We shall have been, You will have been, They will have been

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Singul	ar.				Plural.
1. I n	nay	be,		1.	We	may be,
2. Thou n	nayst	be,		2.	You	may be,
3. He n				3.	They	may be.
			Imperfect	Te	nse.	
	Singul	ar.				Plural.
1. I	might	be	,	1.	We	might be,
2. Thou i	mighte	st be		2.	You	might be,
3. He 1	might	be	;	3.	They	might be.

Perfect Tense.

Sing	war.	`	rurui.
1. I may 2. Thou mays	have been, at have been,		may have been, may have been,

3. He may have been; 3. They may have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

zagaa.			1 007 00.		
1. I	might	have been,	1. We	might have been,	
2. Thou	mightst	have been,	2. You	might have been,	

3 He might have been; 3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular	·•			Plur	al.
 If I If thou If he 	be,	2.	If	we you they	be,

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.		Plural.			
 If I If thou If he 	wert,	 If we If you If they 	were,		

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou,] or Do thou be.

Plural. 2. Be [ye or you,] or Do you be.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect.
Being.

2. The Perfect.
Been.

3. The Pluperfect.
Having been.

II. COMPOUND FORM, ACTIVE OR NEUTER.

Active and neuter verbs may also be conjugated, by adding the Imperfect Participle to the auxiliary verb be, through all its changes; as, I am writing; He is sitting. This compound form of conjugation denotes a continuance of the action or state of being, and is, on many occasions, preferable to the simple form of the verb.

FOURTH EXAMPLE.

Compound form of the irregular active verb

READ.

Principal Parts of the simple verb.

Preterit. Imperfect Participle. Perfect Participle. Present. Rĕad. Rēading. Rēad. Rĕad.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be reading. Perfect Tense. To have been reading.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	Sir	ıgular.				Plural.	
 I Thou He 	art	reading, reading; reading;		2.	\mathbf{Y} ou	are reading, are reading are reading	,
		-	_		,		

Imperfect Tense.

Plural.

Singular. was reading, 1. We were reading, 1. I You were reading,
 They were reading. 2. Thou wast reading, 3. He was reading;

Perfect Tense.

Plural. Singular. I have been reading,
 We have been reading,
 Thou hast been reading,
 You have been reading,
 He has been reading;
 They have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense. Singular. Plural. I had been reading,
 Thou hadst been reading,
 You had been reading,
 He had been reading,
 They had been reading. First-future Tense. Singular. Plural.

1. We shall be reading, shall be reading, 2. You will be reading, 2. Thou wilt be reading, 3. They will be reading. 3. He will be reading;

Second-future Tense.

- I shall have been reading,
 Thou wilt have been reading, Singular.

 - 3. He will have been reading;
- 1. We shall have been reading, Plural.
 - 2. You will have been reading,
 - 3. They will have been reading.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- Plural. Singular.
- may be reading, 1. We may be reading.
- 2. Thou mayst be reading,
 3. He may be reading;
 3. They may be reading.

Imperfect Tense.

- Singular. Plural.
- I might be reading,
 Thou mights be reading,
 You might be reading,
 He might be reading;
 They might be reading

Perfect Tense.

- Singular. 1. I may have been reading,
 - 2. Thou mayst have been reading,
 - 3. He may have been reading;
- 1. We may have been reading, PluraL
 - 2. You may have been reading,
 - 3. They may have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

- I might have been reading,
 Thou mightst have been reading, Singular.

 - 3. He might have been reading;
- 1. We might have been reading, Plural.
 - 2. You might have been reading,
 - 3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Pheral

- 1. If I be reading, 2. If thou be reading,
- 1. If we be reading, 2. If you be reading,
- 3. If he be reading;
- 3. If they be reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular. 1. If I were reading, 2. If thou wert reading, 3. If he were reading; 3. If they were reading.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. 2. Be [thou] reading, or Do thou be reading. Plur. 2. Be [ye or you] reading, or Do you be reading.

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect.	2. The Perfect.	3. The Pluperfect.
Being reading.		Having been reading.

III. FORM OF PASSIVE VERBS.

Passive verbs, in English, are always of a compound form. They are formed from active-transitive verbs, by adding the Perfect Participle to the auxiliary verb be, through all its changes: thus, from the active-transitive verb *love*, is formed the passive verb *be loved*.

Obs. In the compound forms of conjugation, the imperfect participle is sometimes taken in a passive sense: as, "The goods are selling; the ships are building:" and the perfect participle of an active-intransitive verb, may have a neuter signification: as, "I amcome; He is risen; They are fallen." The former are passive, and the latter, neuter verbs.

FIFTH EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the regular passive verb

BE LOVED.

Principal Parts of the active verb.

Present. Preterit. Imperfect Participle. Perfect Participle. Love. Loved. Loving. Loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Perfect Tense,

To be loved, To have been loved

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.				Plural.			
1.	I	am	loved,	1.	We	are	loved.
2.	Thou	art	loved,	2.	You	are	loved.
			loved;	3.	They	are	loved

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	${\it Plural}.$		
 I was loved, Thou wast loved, 	 We were loved, You were loved, They were loved. 		

Perfect Tense.

2. Thou hast been loved, 2.	You have been loved, They have been loved

- Pluperfect Tense.

	Singular.				Plural.				
2.	Thou	hadst	been	loved, loved, loved;	2.	We You They	had	been l	oved,

First-future Tense.

	20.00 3								
	Singular.				Plural.				
1.	Ţ	shall	be	loved	,	1.	We	shall	he loved,
2.	Thou	wilt	be	loved.	,	2.	You	will	be loved,
3.	He	will	be	loved	;	3.	They	will	be loved.
				~			-		

Second-future Tense.					
Singular.	1. I shall have been loved,				
•	2. Thou wilt have been loved,				
	3. He will have been loved;				
Plural.	1. We shall have been loved,				
	2. You will have been loved,				
	3. They will have been loved.				

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

1. I may be loved, 1. We may be loved,

Plural.

Singular.

Singular.

1. If I were loved,

2. If thou wert loved, 3. If he were loved;

2. Thou mays 3. He may	st be loved, be loved;	 You may They may 	be loved,			
	Imperfect	Tense.				
Sing	ular.	Plure	al.			
2. Thou migh		 We mig You mig They mig 	ht be loved, ht be loved, ht be lored			
	Perfect	Tense.				
Singular.	 I may Thou mayst He may 	have been love have been love have been love	red,			
Plural.	-	have been lov	red,			
	Pluperfect	Tense.				
Singular.	2. Thou might	have been lost have been lost have been lo	veď,			
Plural.		have been lo have been lo	ved,			
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.						
Present Tense.						
Singul	ar.	Plure	al.			
 If I be If thou be If he be 		 If we If you If they 	be loved,			

Imperfect Tense.

Plural. 1. If we were loved,

2. If you were loved.
3. If they were love

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. 2. Be [thou] loved, or Do thou be loved.

Plural. 2. Be [ye or you] loved, or Do you be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

The Imperfect.
 The Perfect.
 The Pluperfect.
 Having been loved.

IV. FORM OF NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated negatively, by placing the adverb not after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the infinitive and the participles take the negative first: as,

INF. Not to love, Not to have loved. IND. I love not, or I do not ove, I loved not, or I did not love, I have not loved, I had not loved, I shall not love, I shall not have loved. Por. I may, can, or must not love; I might, could, would, or should not love; I may, can, or must not have loved; I might, could, would, or should not have byed. Subj. If I love not, If I loved not. Part. Not loving, Not byed, Not having loved.

V. FORM OF QUESTION.

A verb is conjugated interrogatively, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative after it, or after the first auxiliary: as,

Ind. Do I love? Did I love? Have I loved? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? Pot. May, can, or must I love? Might, could, would, or should I love? May, can, or must I have loved? Might, could, would, or should I have loved?

VL FORM OF QUESTION WITH NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated interrogatively, and neg atively, in the indicative and potential moods, by placing the nominative and the adverb not after the verb, or after the first auxiliary: as,

IND. Do I not love? Did I not love? Have I not loved? Had I not loved? Shall I not love? Shall I not have loved? Por. May, can, or must I not love? Might, could, would, or should I not love? May, can, or must I not have loved? Might, could, would, or should I not have loved?

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An *irregular verb* is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed.

The simple irregular verbs are nearly all monosyllables. The following is a list of them, as they are now generally used. Those marked with the letter r, admit also the regular form.

Present.	Preterit.	Perf. Part	. Present.	Preterit.	Perf. Part
Abide,	abode,*	abode.	Dwell,	dwelt, $m{r}$	dwelt, $m{r}$
Ве,	was,	been.	Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Bear,	boré,	borne.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Beat	beat,	beaten.	Feed,	fed,	fed.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Feel,	felť,	fe.lt.
Bend,	bent, \dot{r}	bent. r	Fight,	fought,	iought.
Beseech,	besought	besought.	Find,	found,	found.
Bid, ´	bade,	. bidden.	Flee,	fled, ´	fled.
Bind,	bound.	bound.	Fling.	flung,	flung.
Bite,	bit, '	bitten.	Fly,	flew,	flown.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Break,	broké,	broken.	Get,	got,	got.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Gild,	gilt, r	gilt. r
Bring,	brought	brought.	Gird,	girt, r	girt. r
Build,	built, r	built. r	Give,	gave,	given.
Burst,	burst,	burst.	Go, ´	went,	gone.
Buy,	bought,	bought.	Grind,	ground,	ground.
Cast,	cast	cast.	Grow,	grew,	grown.
Catch,	caught, r	caught. r	Hang,	hung, r	hung. r
Chide,	chid,	chidden.	Have,	had,	had.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Cling,	clung,	clung.	Hide,	hid,	hidden.
Come,	came,	come.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Cost,	cost,	cost.	Hold,	held,	held.
Creep,	crept, r	crept. r	Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Cut, T	cut	cut	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Deal.	dealt, r	dealt. r	Kneel,	knelt, r	knelt. r
Dig.	dug, r	$\mathrm{dug.}\ r$	Knit,	knit, \hat{r}	knit. $m{r}$
Do,	∠did, ′	done.	Know,	knew,	known.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.	Lade,	laded,	laden.
Dream,	dreamt, r	dreamt. r	Lay,	laid,	laid.
Drive,	drove,	driven.	Lead,	led,	led.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.	Leave,	left,	lest.
•	•		•	•	

^{*} After the Preterit the learner should insert the Imperfect Participle; which is at ways formed by adding ing to the Present, or Root of the verb: thus, Abude, aborabiding, abode.

Present.	Preterit.	Perf. Part		Preterit.	Perf. Part
Lend,	lent,	lent.	Slit	slit, <i>r</i>	slit. <i>r</i>
Let	let,	let.	Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Lie,	lay,	lain.	Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Speed,	sped,	sped.
Make,	made,	made.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Mean,	meant, r	meant. r	Spill,	spilt, r	spilt. 🕶
Meet	met,	met.	Spin,	spun,	spun.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Spit,	spit,	spit.
Put	put,	put.	Split,	split,	split.
Quit,	quit, r	quit. r	Spread,	spread,	spread.
Read,	read,	read.	Spring,	sprung,	sprung.
Reave,	reft, r	rest. r	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Rend,	rent,	rent.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Stick,	stuck,	stuck:
Ride,	rode,	ridden.	Sting,	stung,	stung.
Ring,	rung,	rung.	Stride,	strode,	stridden.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Strike,	struck,	struck.
Run,	ran,	run.	String,	strung, r	strung. r
Say,	said,	said.	Strive,	strove, <i>r</i>	striven. r
See,	saw,	seen.	Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Swim,	swum,	swum.
Send,	sent,	sen t .	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Set,	set,	set.	Take,	took,	taken.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Shed,	slied,	shed.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Shine,	shone, r	shone. r	Tell,	told,	told.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Show,	showed,	shown.	Thrive,	throve, r	thriven. r
Shoot,	shot,	shot.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Shut	shut,	shut.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Shred,	shred,	shred.	Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Shrink,	shrunk,	shrunk.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Sing,	sung,	sung.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Sink,	sunk,	sunk.	Weep,	wept, r	wept. r
Sit	sat,	sat.	Win,	won,	won.
Slay,	slew,	slain.	Wind,	wound, r	wound.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.	Wont,	wont, r	wont. r
Slide,	slid,	slidden.	Work,	wrought,	
Sling,	slung,	slung.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.	Write,	wrote,	written.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A defective verb is a verb which wants some of the principal parts. When any of the principal parts are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are also wanting.

All the auxiliaries, except do, be, and have, are defective.

The following is a list of the defective verbs:

Present.	Preterit.	Imp. Part.	Per. Part.
Beware,			
Čan,	could,		
May,	migh ť ,		
Must,	must,		
Ought	ought,		
Ought, Sha!!,	should,		
Will,	would,		
Quoth.	quoth,		

OF THE PARTICIPLE.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb par ticipating the properties of a verb and an adjective; and is generally formed by adding *ing*, *d*, or *ed* to the verb: thus, from the verb *rule*, are formed three participles, two simple and one compound; as, 1. *ruling*, 2. *ruled*, 3. *having ruled*.

CLASSES.

English verbs have severally three participles; the First or Imperfect, the Second or Perfect, and the Third or Pluperfect.*

I. The imperfect participle is that which implies a continuance of the being, action, or passion; as, being, loving, seeing, writing—being loved, being seen, being writing.

II. The perfect participle is that which implies a completion of the being, action, or passion;

as, been, loved, seen, written.

III. The pluperfect participle is that which implies a previous completion of the being, action, or passion; as, having loved, having seen, having written-having been loved, having been writing, having been written.
The First or Imperfect Participle, when sim-

^{*} See copious observations on the names and properties of the participles, in the Institutes of English Grammar, under the Etymology of this part of speech.

ple, is always formed by adding ing to the radical verb; as, look, looking: when compound it is formed by prefixing being to some other simple participle; as, being reading, being read.

The Second or Perfect Participle is always

The Second or Perfect Participle is always simple, and is regularly formed by adding d or ed to the radical verb: those verbs from which it is formed otherwise, are inserted in the list as being

irregular.

The Third or Pluperfect Participle is always compound, and is formed by prefixing having to the perfect, when the compound is double, and having been to the perfect or the imperfect, when the compound is triple; as, having spoken, having been speaking.

Ohs. 1. Participles often become adjectives, and are construed before nouns to denote quality. Words of a participial form, may be regarded as adjectives, 1. When they denote something customary or habitual, rather than a transient act or state; as, A lying rogue, i. e. one addicted to lying. 2. When they admit adverbs of comparison; as, A more learned man. 3. When they are compounded with something that does not belong to the verb; as, unfeeling, unfelt. Adjectives are generally placed before their nouns: participles, after them.

Obs. 2. Participles in ing often become nouns. When preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, they are construed as nouns, and take no regimen, or object

after them.

Obs. 3. A participle immediately preceded by a preposition, is not converted into a noun, and therefore retains its regimen; as, "I thank you for helping him." This construction of the participle cor

responds with the Latin Gerund.

Obs. 4. To distinguish the participle from the participial noun, the learner should observe the following four things: 1. Nouns take articles and adjectives before them; participles do not. 2. Nouns may govern the possessive case, but not the objective; participles may govern the objective case, but not the possessive. 3. Nouns may be the subjects or objects of verbs; participles cannot—or, at least the propriety of any such use of them, is doubtful. 4. Participial nouns express actions as things; participles refer actions to their agents or recipients.

Obs. 5. To distinguish the perfect participle from the preterit verb of the same form, observe the sense, and see which of the auxiliary forms will express it: thus loved for being loved, is a participle; but

loved for did love, is a preterit verb.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER V.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

Il is here required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and the classes and modifications of the articles, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, and participles. Thus,

EXAMPLE PARSED.

"He speaks fluently:"

He is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case.

1. A pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

2. A personal pronoun is a pronoun that shows, by its form, of what person it is.

3. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing

merely spoken of.

4. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

The masculine gender is that which denotes animals of the male kind.

 The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which denotes the subject of a verb.

Speaks is an irregular active-intransitive verb, from speak, spoke, speaking, spoken; found in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, and singular number.

1. A verb is a word that signifies to be, to act, or to be acted

upon.

 An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and the perfect participle by assuming d or ed.

3. An active-intransitive verb, is a verb that expresses an action which has no person or thing for its object.
4. The indicative mood is that form of the verb, which simply

indicates or declares a thing, or asks a question.

5. The present tense is that which expresses what now exists

or is taking place.

6. The third person is that which denotes the person or thing

merely spoken of.

7. The singular number is that which denotes but one.

Fluently is an adverb.

An adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner.

LESSON I.

I learn my lessons. Thou art sitting idle. He plays. She speaks distinctly. We read together. You do not cipher. They are going *-

school. The man walks slowly. The child is sleepy. See the ducks swim. The chickens do not swim; they avoid the water. Hawks kill chickens. Spiders make cobwebs; they catch flies in them.

LESSON II.

I have lost my book. Do you know where it is? I left it on the table. Somebody has taken it. If I had been careful, I should have put it away in the closet. Inquire of the maid; perhaps she has seen it. I must not go to school without it. I shall not know my lesson; and the master will detain me.

LESSON III.

It is a pleasant evening. Come hither, Charles; look at the sun. The sun is in the west. Yes, because he is going to set. How pretty the sun looks! We can look at him now; he is not so bright as he was at dinner-time, when he was up high in the sky. And how beautiful the clouds are! There are crimson clouds, and purple, and gold-coloured clouds. Now the sun is going down very fast. Now we can see only half of him. Now we cannot see him at all.

LESSON IV.

Now turn and look towards the east. What is it that shines so behind the trees? Is it fire? No, it is the moon. It is very large; and how red it is! The moon is round now, because it is full moon: but it will not be so round to-morrow night: it will lose a little bit; and the next night it will lose a little bit more; and more the next night: and so on, till it is like a bow that is bent.—Barbauld.

LESSON V.

Thus the moon will grow less and less, till in a fortnight there will be no moon at all. Then there will come a new moon; and we shall see it in the afternoon, and it will be very thin at first, but it will grow rounder and bigger every day, till at last, in an other fortnight, it will be full moon again like this, and we shall see it rise again behind the trees.

LESSON VI.

The unwearied sun from day to day Does his Creator's power display,
And publishes, to every land,
The work of an Almighty hand.
Soon as the evening shades prevail,
The moon takes up the wondrous tale;
And nightly, to the listening earth,
Repeats the story of her birth:
Whilst all the stars that round her burn,
And all the planets, in their turn,
Confirm the tidings as they roll,
And spread the truth from pole to pole.—Addison.

OF THE ADVERB.

An Adverb is a word added to a verb, a participle, an adjective, or an other adverb; and generally expresses time, place, degree, or manner: as, They are now here, studying very diligently.

Obs. Adverbs briefly express what would otherwise require several words: as, here, for in this place. There are several customary combinations of short words which are used adverbially, and which some grammarians do not analyze in parsing: as, Not at all, at length, in vain.

CLASSES.

Adverbs may be reduced to four general classes; namely, adverbs of time, of place, of degree, and of manner.

- I. Adverbs of *time*, are those which answer to the question when? or how often? Adverbs of time may be subdivided as follows:
 - 1. Of time present: as, Now, yet, to-day, instantly.
 - 2. Of time past: as, Already, lately, heretofore, since, ago.
 - 3. Of time to come: as, To-morrow, hereafter, henceforth.
 4. Of time relative: as, When, then, before, after, while.
 - 5. Of time absolute: as, Always, ever, never.
 - 6. Of time repeated: as, Often, seldom, daily, thrice.
 - 7. Of the order of time: as, First, secondly, thirdly, &c.
- II. Adverbs of place, are those which answer to the question where? whither? or whence? Adverbs of place may be subdivided as follows:
 - 1. Of place in which: as, Where, here, there, somewhere.
 - 2. Of place to which: as, Whither, hither, thither.
 3. Of place from which: as, Whence, hence, thence.
 - 4. Of the order of place: as, First, secondly, thirdly.
- III. Adverbs of degree, are those which answer to the question how much? Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:
 - 1. Of excess or abundance: as, Much, chiefty, fully.

 9 Of equality: as, Enough, sufficiently, equally, so, as.

- 3. Of deficiency or abatement: as, Little, scarcely, hardly.
- 4. Of quantity: as, How, everso, somewhat.
- IV. Adverbs of manner, are those which answer to the question how? or show how a subject is regarded. Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows:
 - Of quality: as, Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, and many others formed by adding ly to adjectives of quality.

Of affirmation: as, Yes, yea, verily, truly, indeed, surely.
 Of negation: as, No, nay, not, nowise.

Of doubt: as, Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance.
 Of mode: as, Thus, so, somehow, like, else, otherwise.
 Of cause: as, Why, wherefore, therefore.

Obs. The adverbs here, there, and where, when prefixed to prepositions, have the force of pronouns; as, whereby, for by which. Compounds of this kind are, however, commonly reckoned adverbs.

Adverbs sometimes perform the office of conjunctions, and serve to connect sentences, as well as to express some circumstance of time, place, degree, or manner; adverbs that are so used, are called conjunctive adverbs: as, When, where, after, before, since, therefore, &c.

MODIFICATIONS.

Adverbs have no modifications, except that a few are compared after the manner of adjectives: as, Soon, sooner, soonest,-often, oftener, oftenest,-long, longer, longest.

The following are irregularly compared: well, better, best,—badly or ill, worse, worst,—little, less, least,—much, more, most,—far, farther, farthest,—forth, further, furthest.

Obs. 1. Most adverbs of quality will admit the comparative acverbs more and most, less and least, before them: as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely,-culpably, less culpably, least culpably these should be parsed separately.

Obs. 2. As comparison does not belong to adverbs in general, it should not be mentioned in parsing, except in the case of those few

which are varied by it.

OF THE CONJUNCTION.

A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or sentences in construction, and to show the dependence of the terms so connected: as, Thou and he are happy, because you are good.

CLASSES.

Conjunctions are divided into two classes; copu-

lative and disjunctive.

A copulative conjunction, is a conjunction that denotes an addition, a cause, or a supposition: as, He and I shall not dispute; for, if he has any choice, I shall readily grant it.

choice, I shall readily grant it.

A disjunctive conjunction is a conjunction that denotes opposition of meaning: as, "Be not overcome [by] evil, but overcome evil with good."—

Rom. xii. 21.

The following are the principal conjunctions:

1. Copulative; and, as, both, because, for, if, that.

2. Disjunctive; or, nor, either, neither, than, though, although, yet, but, except, whether, lest, unless, save, notwithstanding.

OF THE PREPOSITION.

A Preposition is a word used to express some relation of different things or thoughts to each other, and is generally placed before a noun or pronoun: as, The paper lies before me on the desk.

The following are the principal prepositions:

The following are the principal prepositions: above, about, aboard, across, after, against, along, amid or amidst, among or amongst, around, at, athwart—before, behind, below, beneath, beside or besides, between or betwixt, beyond, by—concerning—down, during—except, excepting—for, from—in, into—notwithstandimg—of, off, on, out-of, over, overthwart—past—round—

since—through, throughout, till, to, touching, toward or towards—under, underneath, until, unto, up, upon—with, within, without.

Obs. The words in the preceding list are generally prepositions. But when any of them are employed without a subsequent term of relation they are adverbs. For, when it signifies because, is a conjunction; without, when used for unless, and notwithstanding, when placed before a nominative, are usually referred to the same class.

OF THE INTERJECTION.

An Interjection is a word that is uttered merely to indicate some strong or sudden emotion of the mind: as, Oh! alas!

The following are the principal interjections, arranged according to the emotions which they are generally intended to indicate:—1. Joy; eigh! hey! io!—2. Sorrow; oh! ah! alas! alack! welladay!—3. Wonder; heigh! ha! strange!—4. Wishing or earnestness; O!—5. Pain; oh! ha! he!—6 Contempt; pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut!—7. Aversion; foh! fie! off! begone! avaunt!—8. Calling aloud; ho! soho! holla!—9. Exultation, aha! huzza! heyday! hurrah!—10. Laughter; ha, ha, ha.—11. Salutation; welcome! hail! all hail!—12. Calling to attention; lo! behold! look! see! hark!—13. Calling to silence; hush! hist! mum —14. Surprise; oh! ha! hah! what!—15. Languor; heigh-ho!—16. Stopping; avast! whoh!

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER VI.-ETYMOLOGICAL.

It is here required of the pupil—to distinguish and define the different parts of speech, and ALL their classes and modifications.

LESSON I.

What is that tall thing that has four great arms which move very tast? I believe, if I were near it, it would strike me down. It is

a windmill. Those arms are the sails. The wind turns them round. And what is a windmill for? It is to grind corn. We could have no bread, if the corn were not ground.—Barbauld.

LESSON II.

Here is a river; how shall we do to get over it? Why, see how the ducks do! they swim over. But I cannot swim. Then thou must learn to swim, I believe: it is too wide to jump over. O, there is a bridge! somebody has made a bridge for us, quite over the river. That somebody was very clever too. I wonder how he made it. I am sure I could not have made such a bridge.

LESSON III.

Now we are come among a great number of trees—more trees than there are in the orchard, by a great many, and taller trees. There is oak, and ash, and elm. This is a wood. What great boughs the trees have! like thick arms. The sun cannot shine among the trees, they are so thick. Look! there is a squirrel, jumping from one tree to an other. He is very nimble. And, hark! I hear the voice of the cuckoo. Barbauld.

LESSON IV.

Hail, beauteous stranger of the wood, Attendant on the spring! Now Heav'n repairs thy rural seat, And woods thy welcome sing.

Soon as the daisy decks the green,
Thy certain voice we hear;
Hast thou a star to guide thy path,
Or mark the rolling year?

LESSON V.

Delightful visitant! with thee
I hail the time of flowers,
When heav'n is fill'd with music sweet
Of birds among the bowers.

The school-boy, wandering in the wood
To pull the flow'rs so gay,
Off starts thy curious voice to hear,
And imitates thy lay.

LESSON VI.

Soon as the pea puts on the bloom
Thou fliest the vocal vale,
An annual guest in other lands,
An other spring to hail.

Sweet bird! thy bow'r is eyer green, Thy sky is ever clear; Thou hast no sorrow in thy song, No winter in thy year!—Logan.

QUESTIONS ON ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON I .- PARTS OF SPEECH.

Of what does Etymology treat? How many parts of speech are there? name them. What is an article? and what are the examples? What is a noun? and what are the examples? What is a pronoun? and what are the examples? What is a pronoun? and what are the examples? What is a participle? and what are the examples? What is a participle? and what are the examples? What is an adverb? and what are the examples? What is a conjunction? and what are the examples? What is a preposition? and what are the examples? What is an interjection? and what are the examples?

LESSON II .- PARSING.

What is Parsing?
What is required of the pupil in the first Chapter for parsing?
How is the following example parsed? "Bring a long ladder, and set it up against the tree."
[Now parse, in like manner, the six lessons of the First Chapter.]

LESSON III. -- ARTICLES.

What is an ARTICLE?
How many articles are there? Name them.
Are an and a different articles, or the same?
When should an be used? and when a? Give the examples.
Repeat the alphabet with an or a before each letter.
Name the parts of speech with an or a before each name
How are the two articles distinguished?
Which is the definite article, and what does it denote?
Which is the indefinite article, and what does it denote?

LESSON IV .-- NOUNS.

What is a Noun?
Into what general classes are nouns divided?
What is a proper noun? a common noun?
What particular classes are included among common nouns?
What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?—a participial; oun?
What modifications have nouns?
What are Persons in Grammar?
How many persons are there, and what are they ca_ed?
What is the first person?—the second person?—the third person?

What are Numbers in grammar? How many numbers are there, and what are they called? What is the *singular* number?—the *plural* number? How is the plural number of nouns regularly formed?

LESSON V .-- NOUNS.

What are Genders in grammar?
How many genders are there, and what are they called?
What is the masculine gender?—the feminine?—the neuter?
What are Cases in grammar?
How many cases are there, and what are they called?
What is the nominative case?
What is the subject of a verb?
What is the possessive case?
How is the possessive case of nouns formed?
What is the objective case?
What is the object of a verb, participle, or preposition?
What is the declension of a noun?
How do you decline the nouns, friend, man, fox, and fly?

LESSON VI.-PARSING.

What is required of the pupil, in the SECOND CHAPTER for parsing? How is the following example parsed? "The horse runs swiftly." [Now parse, in like manner, the four lessons of the Second Chapter.]

LESSON VII .-- ADJECTIVES.

What is an Adjective? Into what classes may adjectives be divided? What is a common adjective?—a proper adjective?—a numeral adjective?--a pronominal adjective?--a participial adjective?--a compound adjective? What modifications have adjectives? What is Comparison in grammar? How many, and what are the degrees of comparison? What is the positive degree !—the comparative degree !—the superlative degree? What adjectives cannot be compared? What adjectives are compared by means of adverbs? How are adjectives regularly compared? How do you compare great, wide, and hot? Compare good, bad, or ill; much, many; far, and late. LESSON VIII .- PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the THIRD CHAPTER for parsing? How is the following example parsed? "Take better care."
[Now parse, in like manner, the four lessons of the Third Chapter.]

LESSON IX .-- PRONOUNS.

What is a Pronoun?

How are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun! How many, and what are the simple personal prenouns? What is a relative pronoun! Mention the relative pronouns. What is an interrogative pronoun? Mention the interrogative pronouns. What modifications have pronouns? What is the declension of a pronoun? How do you decline the pronouns I, thou, he, she, and it? Explain the compound personal pronouns. How do you decline who, which, what, and that?

LESSON X .- PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the FOURTH CHAPTER for parsing? How is the following example parsed? "She purchased it." [Now parse, in like manner, the four lessons of the Fourth Chapter.]

LESSON XI .- VERBS.

How are verbs divided, with respect to their form?

What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb? How are verbs divided, with respect to their signification? What is an active-transitive verb!—an active-intransitive verb!—a passive verb !—a neuter verb ! What modifications have verbs! What are Moods? How many moods are there, and what are they called? What is the infinitive mood !—the indicative mood !—the potential mood?—the subjunctive mood?—the imperative mood?

LESSON XII .- VERBS.

What are Tenses? How many tenses are there, and what are they called? What is the present tense !—the imperfect tense !—the perfect tense ! —the pluperfect tense?—the first-future tense?—the second-futur tense ! What are the Person and Number of a verb? How many persons and numbers are there?

What is the Conjugation of a verb? What are the principal parts in the conjugation of a verb? What is a verb called which wants some of these parts? What is an auxiliary? What verbs are auxiliaries?

What is a VERB?

LESSON XIII .- CONJUGATION.

Conjugate the regular active verb Love throughout.

LESSON XIV .- SYNOPSIS.

Give a synopsis of Love in each person and number.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON XV .- THE VERB SEE.

Conjugate the irregular active verb See throughout. Give a synopsis of See in each person and number.

LESSON XVI.-THE VERB BE.

Conjugate the irregular neuter verb Be throughout. Give a synopsis of Be in each person and number.

LESSON XVII .- COMPOUND.

How may active and neuter verbs be otherwise conjugated? Conjugate the active verb READ in the compound form. Give a synopsis in each person and number.

LESSON XVIII .- PASSIVES.

How are passive verbs formed?
Conjugate the passive verb Be Loven throughout.
Give a synopsis in each person and number.
How is a verb conjugated negatively?
How is a verb conjugated interrogatively?
How is a verb conjugated interrogatively and negatively?

LESSON XIX .- IRREGULARS.

What is an *irregular* verb?

Learn the principal parts of all the irregular verbs.

LESSON XX .- DEFECTIVES.

What is a defective verb?
What verbs are defective? and wherein are they so?

LESSON XXI .-- PARTICIPLES.

What is a Participle?
How many participles have verbs? and what are they?
Which or what is the imperfect participle?
Which or what is the perfect participle?
Which or what is the pluperfect participle?
Is the first or imperfect participle always formed in one way only?
Is the second or perfect participle always formed in one way only?
Is the third or pluperfect participle always formed in one way only?

LESSON XXII.-PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the FIFTH CHAPTER for parsing? How is the following example parsed? "He speaks fluently."
[Now parse, in like manner, the six lessons of the Fifth Chapter.]

LESSON XXIII .- ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

What is an ADVERB?
To what general classes may adverbs be reduced?
How may adverbs of time be known?
How may adverbs of place be known?

How may adverbs of degree be known?
How may adverbs of manner be known?
What are conjunctive adverbs?
Have adverbs any modifications?
Compare well, bally or ill, little, much, far and forth.
What is a Conjunction?
How are conjunctions divided?
What is a copulative conjunction?
What is a disjunctive conjunction?
What are the principal conjunctions?

LESSON XXIV .- PREPOSITIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

What is a Preposition?
What are the principal prepositions?
What is an Interjection?
How are the interjections arranged?
What are the interjections of joy?—of sorrow!—of wishing or earnestness?—of pain?—of contempt?—

What are the interjections of joy?—of sorrow!—of wonder?—of wishing or earnestness?—of pain?—of contempt?—of aversion?—of calling aloud!—of exultation?—of laughter!—of salutation!—of calling to attention?—of calling to silence?—of surprise?—of languor?—of stopping.

LESSON XXV.-PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the SIXTH CHAPTER for parsing?
[Now parse, after the models previously given, the six lessons of the Sixth Chapter.]

PART III.

SYNTAX.

Syntax treats of the relation, agreement, government, and arrangement, of words in sentences.

The relation of words, is their dependence, or

connexion, according to the sense.

The agreement of words, is their similarity in person, number, gender, case, mood, tense, or form.

The government of words, is that power which one word has over an other, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The arrangement of words, is their collocation,

or relative position, in a sentence.

A sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense, and always containing a nominative and a verb; as, "Reward sweetens labour."

The principal parts of a sentence, are usually three; namely, the subject, or nominative,—the verb—and, (if the verb be transitive,) the object governed by the verb; as, "Crimes deserve punishment."

The other parts depend upon these, either as primary or as secondary adjuncts; as, High crimes justly deserve very severe punishments."
Sentences are of two kinds, simple, and com-

pound.

A simple sentence, is a sentence which conveys but one affirmation or negation; as, "Man is mortal."—" Charity is not easily provoked."

A compound sentence, is a sentence which may be resolved into two or more simple ones; as, "Idleness produces want, vice, and misery."

A clause, or member, is a subdivision of a compound sentence; and is itself a sentence, either simple or compound.

A phrase is two or more words which express

some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition, as, "By the means appointed."—"To be plain with you."

Words that are omitted by *ellipsis*, and that are necessarily understood in order to complete the construction, must be supplied in parsing.

RULES OF SYNTAX,

WITH EXAMPLES AND OBSERVATIONS.

1. Of Relation and Agreement.

RULE I .-- ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the houns which they limit: as, "At a little distance from the ruins of the abbey, stands an aged elm."

Obs. 1. Articles often relate to nouns understood; as, "The [river] Thames."—"Pliny the younger" [man].—"The honourable [body] the Legislature."—The animal [world] and the vegetable world."—

"The Old [Testament] and the New Testament."

Obs. 2. Articles belong before their nouns; but the definite article and an adjective seem sometimes to be placed after the noun to which they both relate: as, "Section the fourth."—"Henry the Eighth." Such examples, however, may be supposed elliptical; and, if they are so, an article cannot be placed after its noun, nor can two arti-

cles ever relate to one and the same noun.

Obs. 3. The definite article is often prefixed to comparatives and superlatives; and its effect is, (as Murray observes,) "to mark the degree the more strongly, and to define it the more precisely:" as, "The oftener I see him the more I respect him."—"A constitution the most fit."—"A claim the strongest, and the most easily comprehended."—In these cases the article seems to relate only to the adjective or adverb following it; but, after the adjective, the noun may be supplied.

Obs. 4. The article the is applied to nouns of both numbers: as,

The man, the men.—The good boy, the good boys.

Obs. 5. An or a implies one, and is prefixed to nouns of the sin-

gular number only; as, A man, a good boy.

Obs. 6. An or a is sometimes prefixed to an adjective of number, when the noun following is plural: as, A few days—a hundred shee. Here also the article relates only to the adjective; unless few hundred, &c. are nouns with of understood after them.

Obs. 7. A, as prefixed to participles in ing, or used in composition, is a preposition; being, probably, the French d, signifying to, at, on,

in, or of; as, "He is gone a hunting."—" They burst out a laughing."—"She lies a-bed all day."

Obs. 8. An is sometimes a conjunction, signifying if; as. "Nay, an thou'lt mouthe, I'll rant as well as thou."—Shak.

RULE II .- NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb, must be in the nominative case: as, "I know thou sayst it: says thy life the same?"

Obs. 1. Every nominative belongs to some verb, unless it be put in apposition according to Rule 3d, after a verb according to Rule 21st, or absolute according to Rule 25th.

Obs. 2. The subject or nominative, is generally placed before the verb; as, "Peace dawned upon his mind."—" What is written in

the law?"

Obs. 3. But, in the following cases, the subject is placed after

the verb, or after the first auxiliary:

1. When a question is asked without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; as, Shall mortals be implacable?"—" What art thou doing?"

 When the verb is in the imperative mood; as, "Go thou."
 When an earnest wish, or other strong feeling, is expressed; as, "May she be happy!"—"How were we struck!"—Young.

4. When a supposition is made without a conjunction; as, "Were

it true, it would not injure us."

5. When neither or nor, signifying and not, precedes the verb; as, "This was his fear; nor was his apprehension groundless."

6. When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it; as, "Here am I."—"Narrow is the way."—"Silver and gold have I none."

7. When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatical; as,

" Echo the mountains round."—Thomson.

8. When the verbs say, think, reply, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue; as, "'Son of affliction,' said Omar, 'who art thou?' 'My name,' replied the strange, 'is Hassan.'"—Johnson.
9. When the adverb there precedes the verb; as, "There lived a

man."-Montgomery.

RULE III .- APPOSITION.

A noun or personal Pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, n the same case: as,

"But he, our gracious Master, kind as just,

"Knowing our frame, remembers we are dust."

Obs. 1. Apposition is the using of different words or appellations to designate the same thing. Apposition also denotes the relation which exists between the words which are so employed. In parsing, the rule of apposition should be applied only to the explanatory term; for the case of the principal words depends on its relation to the rest of the sentence, and comes under some other rale. This rule involves a variety of forms of expression, as may be seen by the following examples: "I, thy schoolmaster, have made thee profit."—Shak. "I, even I, am he."—Isaiah, xliii. "I am the Lord, your Holy One, the Creator of Israel, your King."—Id. "They shall every man turn to his own people."—Id. "Behold, I create Jerusalem a rejoicing, and her people a joy."—Id. "Righteouzness and peace have kissed each other."—Psalms. "That ye love one an other."—N. Test. "Be ye helpers one of an other."—Id. "To make him king."—Id. "With modesty thy guide."—Pope.

Obs. 2. The explanatory word is sometimes placed first, especially

among the poets; as,

"From bright'ning fields of ether fair disclos'd,

"Child of the sun. refulgent Summer comes."—Thomson.

Obs. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, are often prefixed to nouns merely to distinguish their person. In this case of apposition, the words are not separated by a comma; and either of them may be taken as the explanatory term: as, "I John saw these things."—"His praise, ye brooks, attune." So also, when two or more nouns form one proper name: as, John Horne Tooke.

Obs. 4. When two or more nouns of the possessive case are put in apposition, the possessive termination added to one, denotes the case of both or all; as, "His brother Philip's wife."—" John Baptist's head"—" At my friend Johnson's, the bookseller." By a repetition of the possessive sign, a distinct governing noun is implied, and the

apposition is destroyed.

Obs. 5. When an object acquires a new name or character from the action of a verb, the new appellation is put in apposition with the object of the active verb, and in the nominative after the passive; as, "They named the child John—The child was named John."—"They elected him president—He was elected president n

RULE IV .--- ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns: as, "He is a wise man, though he is young.

Obs. 1. When an adjective follows a verb, it generally relates to the subject going before; as, "I am glad that the door is made wide."

Obs. 2. An adjective sometimes relates to a phrase or sentence, which is substituted for a noun; as, "That he should refuse, is not strange."

Obs. 3. Adjectives preceded by the definite article, are often used, by ellipsis, as noises. They designate those classes of objects which are characterized by the qualities they express. They are mostly confined to the plural number, and refer to persons, places, or things, understood; as, "The good [persons] must merit God's peculiar care."—Pope.

Obs. 4. By an ellipsis of the noun, an adjective with a preposition before it, is sometimes equivalent to an adverb: as, "In particular;" that is, in a particular manner; equivalent to particularly. In pars-

ing, supply the ellipsis. [See Obs. 2d, under Rule xxii.]

Obs. 5. Adjectives that imply unity or plurality, must agree with

their nouns in number; as, That sort, those sorts.

Obs. 6. When the adjective is necessarily plural, the noun should be made so too; as, "Twenty pounds;" not, "Twenty pound." In some peculiar phrases this rule appears to be disregarded; as, "Twenty sail of vessels,"—"A hundred head of cattle,"—"Two hundred pennyworth of bread."

Obs. 7. To denote a collective number, a singular adjective may precede a plural one; as, One hundred men,"—" Every six weeks."

Obs. 8. To denote plurality, the adjective many may, in like manner, precede an or a, with a singular noun; as,

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen."—Gray.

Obs. 9. The noun means, and some others, have the same form in both numbers; they should therefore be used with an adjective of the singular or the plural number, as the sense requires: as, "By this means they bear witness to each other."—Burke. This mean is not in good use.

Obs. 10. The comparative degree can only be used in reference to two objects, or classes of objects; the superlative compares one or more things with all others of the same class, whether few or many; as, "Edward is taller than James; he is the largest of my

scholars."

RULE V .- PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender: as, "This is the friend of whom I spoke; he has just arrived."—"This is the book which I bought; it is an excellent work."—"Ye, therefore, who love mercy, teach your sons to love it too."—Cowper.

Obs. 1. When the antecedent is used figuratively, the pronoun obe agrees with it in the figurative, and not in the literal sense; as, "Grim darkness furls his leaden shroud." [See Syllepsis among the figures of Syntax.]

Obs. 2. The pronoun we is used by the speaker to represent himself and others, and is therefore plural. But it is sometimes used

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by a sort or fiction, instead of the singular, to intimate that the speaker or writer is not alone in his opinions.

Obs. 3. The pronoun you, though originally and properly plural, is now generally applied alike to one person or more. See Inst.

E. Gram. p. 56 and 137.]

Obs. 4. A pronoun sometimes represents a phrase or sentence, or a quality expressed before by an adjective. In this case, the pronoun is always in me third person, singular, neuter: as, "She is very

handsome; and she has the misfortune to know it."

Obs. 5. The proloun it is often used without a definite reference to any antecedent; and, still more frequently, it refers to something mentioned in the st becaucht part of the sentence. This pronoun is a necessary expletie at the commencement of a sentence, in which the verb is followed by a clause which, by transposition, may be made the subject to the verb; as, "It is impossible to please every one."—"It was requisite that the papers should be sent."

Obs. 6. In familiar language, the relative in the objective case is frequently understood; as, "Here is the letter [which] I received.' The omission of the relative in the nominative case, is inelegant,

as, "This is the worst thing [that] could happen."

RULE VI .-- PRONOUNS.

When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Pronoun must agree with it, in the plural number: as, "The council were divided in their sentiments."

Obs. 1. A collective noun conveying the idea of unity requires a pronoun in the third person, singular, neuter; as, "The nation will enforce its laws."

Obs. 2. Most collective nouns of the neuter gender, may take the regular plural form, and be represented by a pronoun in the third person, plural, neuter; as, "The nations will enforce their laws."

RULE VII .-- PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number: as, "James and John will favour us with their company."

Obs. 1. When the antecedents are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third; as 'John, and thou, and I, are attached to our country."—"John and thou are attached to your country."

Obs. 2. The gender of pronouns, except in the third person sun-

gular, is distinguished only by their antecedents. In expressing that of a pronoun which has antecedents of different genders, the masculine should be preferred to the feminine, and the feminine to the neuter.

RULE VIII .- PRONOUNS.

When a Pronoun has two or more singular antecedents connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, "James or John will favor us with his company."

Obs. When antecedents of different persons, numbers, or genders, are connected by or or nor, they cannot be represented by a pronoun that is not applicable to each of them.

RULE IX .- VERBS.

A Verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number: as, "I know; thou knowst, or knowest; he knows, or knoweth." "The bird flies; the birds fly."

Obs. 1. The adjuncts of the nominative, do not control its agreement with the verb; as, "Six months' interest was due."—"The propriety of these rules is evident."—"The mill, with all its appur-

tenances, was destroyed."

Obs. 2. The infinitive mood, a phrase, or a sentence, is sometimes the subject to a verb: a subject of this kind, however composed, if it is taken as one whole, requires a verb in the third person, singular; as, "To lie is base."—"To see the sun is pleasant."—"That you have violated the law, is evident."—"For what purpose they embarked, is not yet known."

Obs. 3. A neuter verb between two nominatives should be made to agree with that which precedes it; as, "Words are wind:" except when the terms are rhetorically transposed, and the proper subject is put after the verb; as, "His pavilion were dark waters and thick

clouds."-" Who art thou?"

Obs. 4. When the verb has different forms, that form should be adopted which is the most consistent with present and reputable usage, in the style employed: thus, to say familiarly, "The clock hath stricken,"—"Thou laughedst and talkedst, when thou oughtest to have been silent,"—"He readeth and writeth, but he doth not cipher,"—would be no better, than to use, dont, wont, cant, shant, and didnt, in preaching.

Obs. 5. The nominative to a verb in the imperative moud, is generally omitted; as, "Guide [thou] my lonely way." With the verb in all the other personal tenses, the nominative must be

pressed: except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction; as, "They bud, blow, wither, fall, and dic."

RULE X .-- VERBS.

When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the Verb must agree with it in the plural number: as, "The council were divided."

Obs. A collective noun conveying the idea of unity, requires a verb in the third person, singular; and generally admits also the regular plural construction: as, ".His army was defeated."—" His armies were defeated."

RULE XI .- VERBS.

When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number: as,

"Judges and senates have been bought for gold; Esteem and love were never to be sold."—Pope.

- Obs. 1. The conjunction is sometimes understood; as,
 - "Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."-Beattie.
- Obs. 2. When the nouns connected are descriptive of one and the same thing, they are in apposition; and do not require a plural verb; as, "This philosopher and poet was banished from his country."

Obs. 3. When the same nominative is repeated, the words are in

apposition, and do not require a plural verb: as,

- "Love, and love only, is the loan for love."-Young.
- Obs. 4. When the verb separates its nominatives, it agrees with that which precedes it, and is understood to the rest; as,
 - "Forth in the pleasing spring Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness, and love."—Thomson.
- Obs. 5. When two subjects are connected, one of which is taken affirmatively, and the other negatively, they belong to different propositions; and the verb or pronoun must agree with the affirmative subject, and be understood to the other: as, "Diligent industry, and not mean savings, produces honourable competence." So also when subjects are connected by as well as, but, or sare; as, "Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was admired for his eloquence."—"Nothing but wailings was heard."—"None but thou can aid us."—"No mortal man, save he, had e'er survived."—Scott.

- Obs. 6. When the subjects are severally preceded by the adjective each, every, or no, they are taken separately, and require a verb and pronoun in the singular number; as,
 - "And every sense, and every heart, is joy."—Thomson. "Each beast, each insect, happy in its own.—Pope.
- Obs. 7. Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by and, require a plural verb; as, "To be wise in our own eyes, to be wise in the opinion of the world, and to be wise in the sight of our Creator, are three things so very different as rarely to coincide."—Blair.

RULE XII .-- VERBS.

When a Verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number: as, "Fear or jealousy affects him."

Obs. 1. When a verb has nominatives of different persons or numbers, connected by or or nor, it must agree with that which is placed next to it, and be understood to the rest in the person and number required; as, "Neither he nor his brothers were there.—"Neither you nor I am concerned.

Obs. 2. But when the nominatives require different forms of the verb, it is, in general, more elegant to express the verb, or its auxiliary, in connection with each of them; as, "Either thou art to blame, or I am."—" Neither were their numbers, nor was their destination known."

Obs. 3. The speaker should generally mention himself last; as, "Thou or I must go."—"He then addressed his discourse ω my father and me."—But in confessing a fault he may assume the first place: as "I and Robert did it"—M Edgeworth

place; as, "I and Robert did it."—M. Edgeworth.

Obs. 4. Two or more distinct subject phrases connected by or or nor, require a singular verb; as, "That a drunkard should be

poor, or that a fop should be ignorant, is not strange."

RULE XIII .- VERBS.

When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed: as, "He himself held the plough, sowed the grain, and attended the reapers."—"She was proud, but she is now humble."

Obs. 1. From this rule there are many exceptions. We may, without repeating the nominative, connect the present, the perfect, and the first future tense of the indicative mood; the corresponding tenses of the indicative and potential moods; the affirmative ar

the negative form; or the simple and the compound form. But the simple verb must, in general, be placed first; as,

"What nothing earthly gives or can destroy."—Pope.

Some are, and must be greater than the rest."—Id.

Plays round the head, but comes not to the heart."—Id.

"Plays round the head, but comes not to the heart."—Id.

Obs. 2. Those parts which are common to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest; as, "Every sincere endeavour to amend shall be assisted, [shall be] accepted, and [shall be] rewarded."—"Honourably do the best you can" [do].—"He thought as I did" [think].—"You have seen it, but I have not" [seen it].—"If you will go, I will" [go].

RULE XIV .-- PARTICIPLES.

Participles relate to nouns or pronouns, or are governed by prepositions: as, "Elizabeth's tutor at one time paying her a visit, found her employed in reading Plato."—Hume.

Obs. 1. The word to which the participle relates, is sometimes understood; as, "Granting this to be true, what is to be inferred from it?" that is, "I, granting this to be true, ask, what is to be inferred from it?" Some grammarians have erroneously taught that

such participles are put absolute.

Obs. 2. Participles have the same government as the verbs from which they are derived. The preposition of, therefore, should not be used after the participle, when the verb does not require it. Thus, in phrases like the following, of is improper; "Keeping of one day in seven."—"By preaching of repentance."—"They left beating of Paul."

Obs. 3. An imperfect or a compound participle, preceded by an article, an adjective, or a noun or pronoun of the possessive case, becomes a verbal noun, and, as such, it cannot govern an object after it. A word which may be the object of the participle in its proper construction requires the preposition of, to connect it with the verbal noun; as, 1. (By the participle,) "By exercising the body we promote health." 2. (By the verbal noun,) "By the exercising of the body, health is promoted."

Obs. 4. Participles that have become nouns, may be used as such with or without the article. But we sometimes find those which retain the government and the adjuncts of participles, used as nouns before or after verbs; as, "Exciting such disturbances, is unlawful."—"Rebellion is rising against government." This mungrel

construction is liable to ambiguity, and ought to be avoided.

Obs. 5. According to the analogy of Greek and Latin, there are several intransitive verbs after which the participle in ing, relating to the nominative, may be used in stead of the infinitive connected to

the verb; as, "Continue following the Lord your God."—1 Sam. xii. 14. Greek, poreuomenoi—Latin, sequentes. Not understanding the nature of this construction, or not observing what verbs admit of it, some persons use the participle erroneously as the object of the transitive verb; and Murray has very unskillully laid it down as rule, that "The participle with its adjuncts, may be considered as a substantive phrase in the objective case, governed by the preposition or verb;" whereas, he himself on the preceding page, had cautioned the learner against treating words in ing, "as if they were of an amphibious species, partly nouns and partly verbs"—that is, "partly nouns and partly participles;" for, according to Murray, participles are verbs.

RULE XV .-- ADVERBS.

Adverbs relate to verbs, participles, adjectives, or other adverbs: as, "Any passion that habitually discomposes our temper, or unfits us for properly discharging the duties of life, has most certainly gained a very dangerous ascendency."

Obs. 1. The adverb yes, expressing a simple affirmation, and the adverb no, expressing a simple negation, are always independent. They generally answer a question; and are equivalent to a repetition of it, in the form of an affirmative or a negative proposition.

Obs. 2. No is sometimes an adverb of degree, and, as such, it can relate only to comparatives; as, "No greater"—"No sooner."

No, when prefixed to a noun, is an adjective; as,

" No clouds, no vapours intervene."-Dyer.

Obs. 3. A negation in English admits but one negative word; as "I could not wait any longer,"—not, "no longer." Double nega-

tives are vulgar.

Obs. 4. The repetition of a negative word or clause, strengthens the negation; as, "No, no, no." But two negatives in the same clause, destroy the negation and render the meaning affirmative; as, "Nor did they not perceive their evil plight."—Milton. That is, they did perceive it.

Obs. 5. By the customary (but faulty) omission of the negative before but, that conjunction has acquired the adverbial sense of only; and it may, when used with that signification be called an adverb. Thus the text, "He hath not grieved me but in part," [2 Cor. ii. 5.] might drop the negative and still convey the same mean-

ing: "He hath grieved me but in part."

Obs. 6. We sometimes find adverbs used after he manner of nouns: as, "The Son of Man hath not where to by his head."—Matt. viii. 20. "The Son of God—was not yea and nay, but in him was yea."—2 Cor. i. 19. "An eternal naw does always ast."—Couley.

RULE XVI. - CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions connect either words or sentences; as, "Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between me and thee, and between my herdmen and thy herdmen; for we are brethren."—Bible.

Obs. 1. Conjunctions that connect particular words, generally join similar parts of speech, in a common dependence on some other term. Those which connect sentences or clauses, commonly unite one to an other, either as an additional affirmation, or as a condition, a cause, or an end.

Obs. 2. The conjunction as, often unites words that are in apposi-

tion; as, "He offered himself as a journeyman."

Obs. 3. As frequently has the force of a relative pronoun; as, "Avoid such as are vicious."—"But to as many as received him, &c."—"He then read the conditions as follow."

Obs. 4. The conjunction that, is frequently understood; as, "We

hoped [that] you would come."

Obs. 5. The conjunction that, when it introduces a sentence as the subject of a verb, does not connect it to any other term; as,

"That mind is not matter, is certain."

Obs. 6. After than or as expressing a comparison, there is usually an ellipsis of some word or words. The construction of the words employed, may be known by supplying the ellipsis; as, "She is younger than I" [am].—"He does nothing, who endeavours to do more than [what] is allowed to humanity."—Johnson.

RULE XVII .- PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions show the relations of things: as, "The house was founded on a rock."

Obs. 1. The former term of relation is sometimes understood: as, [I say] "In a word, it would entirely defeat my purpose."—"For all shall know me, [reckoning] from the least to the greatest."—

Heb viii. 11.

Obs. 2. When a preposition introduces the infinitive, a phrase, or a sentence, which is made the entire subject or predicate of a proposition, it has no antecedent term of relation; as, "To be good, is, to be happy."—"To be reduced to poverty, is a great affliction." "For an old man to be reduced to poverty, is a very great affliction." Dr. Adam remarks, that "To is often taken absolutely; as, 'To confess the truth,'—'To proceed.'" But his examples are not appropriate; for what he and many other grammarians call the infinitive absolute, evidently depends on something understood.

Obs. 3. In the familiar style, a preposition governing a relative or an interrogative pronoun, is often separated from its object, and connected with the other term of relation; as Whom did he

speak to?" But it is more digmified, and, in general, more graceful, to place the preposition before the pronoun; as, "To whom did he speak?"

Obs. 4. Two prepositions sometimes come together, so that they ought not to be separated in parsing; as, "Lambeth is over-

against Wesminster-abbey."—L. Murray.

And from before the lustre of her face."—Thomson.

Obs. 5. Two separate prepositions have sometimes a joint reference to the same noun; as, "He boasted of, and contended for, the privilege." This construction is formal, and scarcely allowable, except in the law style. It is better to say, "He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it."

RULE XVIII .- INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections have no dependent construction: as, "O! let not thy heart despise me."—Johnson.

Obs. "Interjections in English have no government."—Lowth. When a word, not in the nominative absolute, is connected with an interjection, or used in exclamation, its construction generally depends upon something understood; as, "Ah me!"—that is, "Ah! pity me!"—"Wo is me!"—that is, "Wo is to me!"

2. Government.*

RULE XIX.—POSSESSIVES.

A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed: as, "Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine:

"Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine; Touch'd by thy hand, again Rome's glories shine."

Obs. 1. The governing noun is sometimes understood; as, "At the Alderman's" [house].—"A book of my brother's" [books].

Obs. 2. When nouns of the possessive case, are connected by

Obs. 2. When nouns of the possessive case, are connected by conjunctions, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must always be annexed to such, and such only, as immediately precede the governing noun, expressed or understood; as, "John and Eliza's teacher is a man of more learning than James's, or Andrew's."—
"For David my servant's sake."

Obs. 3. The apostrophe and s are sometimes annexed to that part of a compound name, which is, of itself, in the objective case; as, "The captain-of-the-guard's house."—Bible. "The Bard-of-Lo-

mond's lay is done."—Hogg.

Obs. 4. To avoid a concurrence of hissing sounds, the s is some-

^{*} The arrangement of words is treated of in the observations under the Rules more fully in the author's larger work.

times omitted, and the apostrophe only retained; as, "For conscience sake."—" Moses' minister."—" Felix' room."—" Achilles' wrath."

But in prose this elision should be sparingly indulged.

Obs. 5. The relation of property may also be expressed by the preposition of; as, "The will of man,"—for "man's will." Of these forms, we should adopt that which will render the sentence the most perspicuous and agreeable; and, by the use of both, avoid an up pleasant repetition of either.

RULE XX .--- OBJECTIVES.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and pluperfect participles, govern the objective case: as, "I found her assisting him." "Having finished the work, I submit it."

Obs. 1. The objective case generally follows the governing word: but when it is emphatic, it sometimes precedes it; as, "This point they have gained." A relative or an interrogative pronoun is commonly placed at the head of its clause; as, Whom will the meeting appoint?"

Obs. 2. Active-transitive verbs are sometimes followed by two objectives in apposition; as, "Thy saints proclaim thee king."—Cov-

per.—" And God called the firmament Heaven."—Bible.

Obs. 3. When a verb is followed by two words in the objective case, which are not in apposition, nor connected by a conjunction, one of them is governed by a preposition understood; as, "I paid[to] him the money."—"They offered [to] me a seat."—"He asked [of] them the question."

Obs. 4. In expressing such sentences passively, the object of the preposition is sometimes erroneously assumed for the nominative: as, "He was paid the money," instead of, "The money was paid [to]

him."

Obs. 5. Some verbs will govern a kindred noun, or its pronoun, but no other: as, "He lived a virtuous life."—"Hear, I pray you. this dream which I have dreamed."—Gen. xxxvii. 6.

RULE XXI .- SAME CASES.

Active-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing: as, "He return'd a friend, who came a foe."—"The child was named John."—"It could not be he."

Obs. 1. This is, perhaps, more properly a rule of agreement; the words connected by the verb, agree as if they were in apposition.—[See Rule iii.]

Obs. 2. In the foregoing rule, the words after and before refer rather to the order of the sense and construction, than to the placing of the words. The proper subject of the verb is the nominative to it, or before it, by Rule ii.; and the other nominative, however placed, belongs after the verb, by Rule xxi.

Obs. 3. In interrogative sentences, the terms are usually trans-

posed, or both are placed after the verb; as,

"Whence, and what art thou, execrable shape?"-Milton. "Art thou that traitor angel? art thou he?"-Idem.

Obs. 4. In some peculiar constructions, both words naturally come before the verb; as, "I know not who she is." And they are sometimes placed in this manner by transposition; as, "Yet He it is."

RULE XXII .- OBJECTIVES.

Prepositions govern the objective case: as, "Truth and good are one: And beauty dwells in them, and they in her, With like participation."—Akenside.

Obs. 1. Most of the prepositions may take the imperfect participle for their object; and some, the compound: as "On opening the trial, they accused him of having defrauded them."

Obs. 2. Prepositions are sometimes elliptically construed with adiectives; as, in vain, in secret, at first, on high-i. e. in a vain manner, in secret places, at the first time, on high places. In parsing supply the ellipsis. [See Obs. 4th, under Rule iv.]

Obs. 3. In a few instances prepositions precede adverbs; as, at These should be united if the terms are once, from above, forever. to be parsed together as adverbs; but we may suppose the latter

words to be used substantively, by Obs. 6th, on Rule 15th.

Obs. 4. When nouns of time or measure are connected with verbs or adjectives, the prepositions which govern them, are generally suppressed; as, "We rode sixty miles that day; that is, "through sixty miles on that day."—"The wall is ten feet high;" that is, "high to ten feet." In parsing, supply the ellipsis.—Such expressions as, "A board of six feet long."—"A boy of twelve years old," -are wrong. Strike out of; or say, "a board of six feet in length," -" A boy of twelve years of age."

Obs. 5. After the adjectives like, near, and nigh, the preposition to or unto is generally understood; as, "It is like [to or unto] sil

ver."—" Near [to] yonder copse."—" Nigh [to] this recess."

Obs. 6. The word worth, which most grammarians call an adjective, is followed either by the objective case or by a participle, supposed to be governed by of understood; as the book is worth a dol. far."—" It is worth mentioning." But, after a careful examination of the term, we know no reason why worth should be called an ad. jective, rather than a preposition governing the word which follows it. Obe. 7. After verbs of giving, procuring, and some others, there is usually an ellipsis of to or for before the objective of the person; as, "Give [to] him water to drink."—"Buy [for] me a knife."

RULE XXIII .- INFINITIVES.

The preposition to governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb: as, "I desire to learn."—Dr. Adam.

Obs. 1. Most grammarians have considered the sign to as a part of the infinitive; and have referred the government of this mood to a preceding verb. But the rule which they give is partial and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and puzzling. Though the infinitive is commonly made an adjunct to some finite verb, yet it may be joined to almost all the other parts of speech.—
[See Institutes of E. Gram. p. 186.]

Obs. 2. The infinitive sometimes depends on a verb understood:

as, " To be candid with you, [I confess] I was in fault."

RULE XXIV .-- INFINITIVES.

The active verbs bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and their participles, take the infinitive after them, without the preposition To. as, "If he bade thee depart, how darest thou stay?"

Obe. 1. The preposition is always employed after the passive form of these verbs, and in some instances after the active; as, "He was heard to say."—"I cannot see to do it."—"What would dare to molest him who might call on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty?"—Dr. Johnson.

Obs. 2. The auxiliary be of the passive infinitive is also suppressed after feel, here, make, and see; as, "I heard the letter read,"

not, " be read."

RULE XXV .-- NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word: as, "He failing, who shall meet success?"—" Your fathers, where are they? and the prophets, do they live forever?"—Zech. i. 5.

"This said, he form'd thee, Adam! thee, O man! Dust of the ground."—Milton.

- Obe. 1. A noun or a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, under the following four circumstances:
- 1. When with a participle, it is used to express a cause, or a concomitant fact; as,

"Thou looking on,
Shame to be overcome or overreach'd,
Would utmost vigour raise."—Milton.

2. When, by a direct address, it is put in the second person, and set off from the verb; as, "At length, Seged, reflect and be wise."

3. When, by plemasm, it is abruptly introduced, for the sake of emphasis; as, "He that is in the city, famine and pestilence shall devour him."—"Gad, a troop shall overcome him."—"The north and the south, thou hast created them."—Bible.

4. When, by mere exclamation, it is used without address, and without other words expressed or implied to give it construction; as,

"Oh! deep enchanting prelude to repose!"—Campbell.

Obs. 2. The nominative put absolute with a participle, is equivalent to a dependent clause commencing with when, while, if, since, or because; as, "I being a child"—equal to, "When I was a child."

Obs. 3. The participle being is often understood after nouns or

pronouns put absolute; as,

"Alike in ignorance, his reason [----] such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much." Pope.

Obs. 4. All nouns preceded by an article, are in the third person; and, in exclamatory phrases, such nouns sometimes appear to have no determinable construction: as, "O the depth of the riches both

of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"-Rom. xi. 32.

Obs. 5. The case of nouns used in exclamations, or in mottoes and abbreviated sayings, often depends, or may be conceived to depend, on something understood; and when their construction can be satisfactorily explained on the principles of ellipsis, they are not put absolute. The following examples may perhaps be resolved in this manner, though the expressions will lose much of their vivacity; "A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!"—Shak. "Heaps upon heaps"—"Skin for skin"—"An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth"—"Day after day"—"World without end."—Bible.

RULE XXVI .-- THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the Subjunctive, present; and a mere supposition, with indefinite time, by a verb in the Subjunctive, imperfect: but a conditional circumstance assumed as a fact, requires the Indicative Mood:

as, "If thou forsake him, he will cast thee off forever."—"If it were not so, I would have told you."—"If thou went, nothing would be gained."— "Though he is poor, he is contented."

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

CHAPTER VII.—SYNTACTICAL.

It is here required of the pupil—to distinguish the different parts of speech, and their classes; to mention their modifications in order; to point out their relation, agreement, or government; and to apply the Rules of Syntax. Thus,

EXAMPLE PARSED.

- "Man's highest interest consists in virtue."
- Man's is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, and possessive case: and is governed by interest; according to Rule xix, which says, "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed." Because the meaning is,—man's interest.
- Highest is a common adjective, of the superlative degree; compared high, higher, highest: and relates to interest; according to Rule iv, which says, "Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns." Because the meaning is,—highest interest.
- Interest is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case: and is the subject of consists; according to Rule ii, which says, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb, must be in the nominative case." Because the meaning is,—interest consists.
- Consists is a regular neuter verb, from consist, consisted, consisting, consisted; found in the indicative mood, present tense, third person, and singular number: and agrees with its nominative interest; according to Rule ix, which says, "A verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." Because the meaning is,—interest consists.
- In is a preposition: and shows the relation between virtue and consists; according to Rule xvii, which says, "Prepositions show the relations of things." Because the meaning is,—consists in virtue.

Virtue is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case: and is governed by in; according to Rule xxii, which says, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Because the meaning is,—in virtue.

LESSON I.

The bee and the butterfly are both busy bodies; but their purposes of action appear to be very different.

A lottery, which is confessedly a species of gambling, is an unsafe

corner-stone for a public edifice.

It is said that some thieves who once robbed a traveller, very gravely charged him with dishenesty for concealing a part of his money.

LESSON II.

Others sometimes appear to us more wrong than they are, because we ourselves are not right in judging them.

Genius may often be discovered by the manner in which children

pass their leisure moments.

Innocent minds are the least suspicious; and they who are least apt to offend, the most readily forgive.

LESSON III.

Power enthroned with wisdom on its right hand and mercy on its left, constitutes a complete judge.

All public measures that are not strictly equitable, are destructive

of the true end of civil government.

Where there is no knowledge of the law, a man acting contrary to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it.

LESSON IV.

A reply is properly a return to an answer: to answer and to re-

ply are therefore not always equivalent expressions.

He who prides himself on his learning, would, if he were destitute of that, be just as proud of a pair of new shoes. A literary boaster is therefore as far from wisdom and modesty as any other braggadocio.

LESSON V.

Language is to the understanding what a genteel motion is to the body—a very great advantage: but a person may be superior to an other in understanding, and not have an equal dignity of expression.

Fine writing is generally the effect of spontaneous thoughts and

a laboured style.

A sound head and a good heart are as essential to genius as a lively imagination.

LESSON VL.

A large, branching, aged oak, is, perhaps, the most venerable of at inanimate objects.

No man of sense ever took any pains to appear wise; as no hon-

est man ever used any tricks to display his own integrity.

I consider your very testy and quarrelsome people in the same light as I do a loaded gun; which may, by accident go off and kill one.

LESSON VII.

Were a man of pleasure to arrive at the full extent of his several wishes, he must immediately feel himself miserable. It is one species of despair, to have no room to hope for any addition to one's happiness. His following wish must then be, to wish that he had some fresh object for his wishes.—This is a strong argument, that the mind and the body were both designed for strenuous activity.

LESSON VIII.

Shining characters are not always the most agreeable ones: the mild radiance of the emerald is by no means less pleasing than the glare of the ruby.

To be at once a rake and to glory in the character, discovers at

the same time a bad disposition and a bad heart.

Few men, that would cause respect and distance merely, can say any thing by which their end will be so effectually answered as by silence.

LESSON IX.

If we would judge whether a man is really happy, it is not solely to his houses and lands, to his equipage and his retinue, we are to look. Unless we could see farther, and discern what joy or what bitterness his heart feels, we can pronounce little concerning him.

LESSON X.

Riches and pleasures are the chief temptations to criminal deeds. Yet those riches when obtained may very possibly overwhelm us with unforeseen miseries. Those pleasures may cut short our health and life.

The house of feasting too often becomes an avenue to the house of mourning. Short, to the licentious, is the interval between them.

LESSON XI.

The veil which covers from our sight the events of succeeding

years, is a veil woven by the hand of mercy.

He who pretends to great sensibility towards men, and yet has no feeling for the high objects of religion, no heart to admire and adore the great Father of the universe, has reason to distrust the truth and delicacy of his sensibility.

LESSON XII.

Genuine virtue has a language that speaks to every heart throughout the world. It is a language which is understood by all. In every region, every climate, the homage paid to it is the same. In no one sentiment were ever manked more generally agreed.

LESSON XIII.

O blind to each indulgent aim
Of pow'r supremely wise,
Who fancy happiness in aught
The hand of Heav'n denies!
Vain is alike the joy we seek,
And vain what we possess,
Unless harmonious reason tunes
The passions into peace.
To temper'd wishes, just desires,
Is happiness confined;
And, deaf to folly's call, attends
The music of the mind.—Carter.

QUESTIONS ON SYNTAX.

LESSON I .- DEFINITIONS.

Of what does Syntax treat?
What is the relation of words?
What is the agreement of words?
What is the government of words?
What is the arrangement of words?
What is a sentence?
What are the principal parts of a sentence?
What are the other parts called?
How many kinds of sentences are there?
What is a simple sentence?
What is a compound sentence?
What is a clause?
What is a phrase?
What words must be supplied in parsing?

LESSON II .- RULES.

How many Rules of Syntax are there?
Which are the rules of relation and agreement?
Which are the rules of government?
Where is the arrangement of words treated of?
What part of speech is without any rule of syntax?
To what do articles relate?

Q#

What case is employed as the subject of a verb?
How do words in apposition agree?
To what do adjectives relate?
How does a pronoun agree with its antecedent?
How does a pronoun agree with a collective noun?
How does a pronoun agree with joint antecedents?
How does a pronoun agree with disjunct antecedents?

LESSON III .- RULES.

How does a verb agree with its subject, or nominative? How does a verb agree with a collective noun? How does a verb agree with joint nominatives? How does a verb agree with disjunct nominatives? What agreement is required, when verbs are connected? How are participles employed? To what do abverbs relate? What is the use of conjunctions? What is the use of prepositions? To what do interjections relate?

LESSON IV .- RULES.

By what is the possessive case governed?
What case do active-transitive verbs govern?
What case is put after other verbs?
What case is put after other verbs?
What governs the infinitive mood?
What governs the infinitive mood?
What verbs take the infinitive after them, without the preposition to?
When is a noun or pronoun put absolute?
When should the subjunctive mood be employed?

LESSON V .-- PARSING.

What is required of the pupil in the SEVENTH CHAPTER for parsing?

How is the following example parsed? "Man's highest interest consists in virtue."

[Now parse, in like manner, the thirteen lessons of the Seventh Chapter.]

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of punctuation, utterance, figures, and versification.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relation of the words, and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading.

The following are the principal points, or marks: the Comma [,], the Semicolon [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Dash [—], the Note of Interrogation [?], the Note of Exclamation [!], and

the Parenthesis [()].

The Comma denotes the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the Period, or Full Stop, a pause double that of the colon. The pauses required by the other four, vary according to the structure of the sentence, and their place in it.

OF THE COMMA.

The Comma is used to separate those parts of a sentence, which are so nearly connected in sense, as to be only one degree removed from that close connexion which admits no point:

EXAMPLES.

That life is long, which answers life's great end. The mind, though free, has a governor within itself. In eternity, days, years, and ages, are nothing. Good and evil, like heat and cold, differ totally. To strengthen our virtue, God bids us trust in him.

OF THE SEMICOLON.

The Semicolon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the comma, nor so little dependent as those which require the colon:

EXAMPLES

In the regions inhabited by angelic natures, unmingled felicity for ever blooms; joy flows there with a perpetual and abundant stream, nor needs any mound to check its course.

Straws swim upon the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom.

OF THE COLON.

The Colon is used to separate those parts of a compound sentence, which are neither so closely connected as those which are distinguished by the semicolon, nor so little dependent as those which require the period:

EXAMPLES.

Avoid evil doers: in such society, an honest man may become ashamed of himself.

Princes have courtiers, and merchants have partners; the voluptuous have companions, and the wicked have accomplices: none but the virtuous can have friends.

OF THE PERIOD.

The Period, or Full Stop, is used to mark an entire and independent sentence, whether simple or compound:

EXAMPLES.

Every deviation from truth, is criminal. Abhor a falsehood. Let your words be ingenuous. Sincerity possesses the most powerful charm.—Blair.

OF THE DASH.

The Dash is used to denote an unexpected pause, of variable length:

EXAMPLES.

"I must inquire into the affair, and if"—" And if'" interrupted the farmer.

Here lies the great—false marble, where? Nothing but sordid dust lies here.— Young.

OF THE NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

The Note of Interrogation is used to designate a question:

EXAMPLES.

In life, can love be bought with gold?

Are friendship's pleasures to be sold?—Johnson.

OF THE NOTE OF EXCLAMATION.

The Note of Exclamation is used to denote some strong or sudden emotion of the mind:

EXAMPLES.

O! let me listen to the words of life!—Thomson. Alas! how is that rugged heart forlorn!—Beattie.

OF THE PARENTHESIS.

The Parenthesis is used to distinguish a clause that is hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence to which it does not properly belong:

PYAMPI.PG.

To others do (the law is not severe)
What to thyself thou wishest to be done.—Beattie.
Know then this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below.—Pope.

Obs. The incidental clause should be uttered in a lower tone, and faster than the principal sentence. It always requires both before and after it, a pause as great as that of a comma, or greater.

OF THE OTHER MARKS.

There are also other marks that are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow:

1. ['] The Apostrophe denotes either the possessive case, or the elision of one or more letters of a word; as, The girl's regard to her parents' advice;—'gan, lov'd, e en, thro'; for began, loved, even, through.

2. [-] The Hyphen connects the parts of compound words; as, ever-living. Placed at the end of a line, it shows that one or more

syllables of a word are carried forward to the next line.

3. [] The *Diæresis*, placed over the latter of two vowels, shows that they are not a diphthon g; as, aërial.

4. ['] The Acute Accent marks the syllable which requires the

principal stress in pronunciation; as, é qual, equal'ity. It is sometimes used in opposition to the grave accent, to distinguish a close or short vowel, or to denote the rising inflection of the voice.

5. [1] The Grave Accent is used, in opposition to the acute, to distinguish an open or long vowel, or to denote the falling inflection

of the voice.

6. [4] The Circumflex generally denotes the broad sound of a vowel; as, eclāt.
7. [] The Breve is used to denote either a close vowel, or a syl-

lable of short quantity; as, raven, to devour.

8. [-] The Macron is used to denote either an open vowel or a syllable of long quantity; as, raven, a bird.

9. [---] or [****] The Ellipsis denotes the omission of some

letters or words; as, K-g for king.

10. [A] The Caret shows where to insert words that have been accidentally omitted.

11. [The Brace serves to unite a triplet, or to connect several

terms with something to which they are all related.

12. [§] The Section marks the smaller divisions of a book or

chapter.

13. [¶] The Paragraph (chiefly used in the Bible) denotes the commencement of a new subject. The parts of discourse which are called paragraphs, are, in general, sufficiently distinguished, by beginning a new line, and carrying the first word a little forwards or backwards.

14. [""] The Quotation Points distinguish words that are taken from some other author or speaker. A quotation within a quotation is marked with single points; which, when both are employed, are

placed within the others.

15. []] The Crotchets generally enclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained; as, "He [the speaker] was of a different opinion."

16. [The Index points out something remarkable.

17. [*] The Asterisk, [†] the Obelisk, [‡] the Double Dagger, and [||] the Parallel, refer to marginal notes. The letters of the alphabet, or the numerical figures, may be used for the same purpose.

UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

OF PRONUNCIATION.

Pronunciation, as distinguished from elocution, is the utterance of words taken separately.

Pronunciation requires a knowledge of the just powers of the letters in all their combinations, and of the force and seat of the accent.

1. The Just Powers of the letters are those sounds which are

given to them by the best readers.

2. Accent is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular syllable of a word, whereby that syllable is distinguished from the rest; as, gram'-mar, gram-ma'-ri-an.

Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables ac-

cented.

When the word is long, for the sake of harmony or distinctness, we often give a secondary, or less forcible accent, to an other syllable; as, to the last of tem'-per-a-ture', and to the second of in-dem'-

ni-fi-ca'-tion.

A full and open pronunciation of the long vowel sounds, a clear articulation of the consonants, a forcible and well placed accent, and a distinct utterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the elegant speaker.

OF ELOCUTION.

Elocution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and form discourse.

Elocution requires a knowledge, and right application, of emphasis, pauses, inflections, and tones.

Emphasis is the peculiar stress which we lay upon some particular word or words in a sentence, which are thereby distinguished from the rest.

2. Pauses are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to refieve the speaker, and to render language intelligible and pleasing. The duration of the pauses should be proportionate to the degree of

connexion between the parts of the discourse.

3. Inflections are those peculiar variations of the human voice, by which a continuous sound is made to pass from one note into an other. The passage of the voice from a lower to a higher or shriller note, is called the rising inflection;—the passage of the voice from a higher to a lower or grave note, is called the falling inflection.

These two opposite inflections may be heard in the following examples: 1. The rising, "Do you mean to go?"—2. The fulling,

"When will you go?"

Obs. Questions that may be answered by yes or no, require the rising inflection: those that demand any other answer, must be ut-

tered with the falling inflection.

4. Times are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. And it is of the utmost importance that they be natural, and adapted to the subject and to the occasion; for upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elecution.

FIGURES.

A figure, in grammar, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or application of words. There are, accordingly, figures of Etymology, figures of Syntax, and figures of Rhetoric. When figures are judiciously employed, they both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than in prose; and several of them are merely poetic licenses.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A figure of Etymology is an intentional deviation from the ordinary form of a word.

The principal figures of Etymology are eight; namely, A-phere-sis, Pros-the-sis, Syn-co-pe, A-poc-o-pe, Par-a-go-ge, Di-ær-e-sis, Sym-ær-e-sis and Tme-sis.

1. Aphæresis is the elision of some of the initial letters of a word;

as, 'gainst, 'gan, 'neath,-for against, began, beneath.

2. Prosthesis is the prefixing of an expletive syllable to a word; as, adown, appaid, bestrown, evanished,—for down, paid, strown, vanished.

3. Syncope is the elision of some of the middle letters of a word:

as, med'cine, for medicine.

4. Apocope is the elision of some of the final letters of a word; as, tho' for though.

5. Paragoge is the annexing of an expletive syllable to a word; as, withouten, for without; my deary, for my dear.

6. Diarcsis is the separating of two vowels that might form a diphthong; as, cooperate, not cooperate.

7. Synæresis is the sinking of two syllables into one; as, seest, for seëst.

Obs. When a vowel is entirely suppressed in pronunciation, (whether retained in writing or not,) the consonants connected with it, fall into an other syllable: thus, loved or lov'd, lovest or lov'st, are monosyllables, except in solemn discourse, in which the e is made vocal.

8. Tmesis is the inserting of a word between the parts of a compound; as, "On which side soever,"-"To us ward,"-To God

ward."—Bible.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A figure of Syntax is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

The principal figures of Syntax, are five; name y, El-lip-sis, Pleonasm, Syl-lep-sis, En-al-la-ge, and Hy-per-ba-ton.

1. Ellipsis is the omission of some words which are necessary to complete the construction, but not necessary to convey the mean-

ing; as, "Who did this?" I [did it.]

2. Pleonasm is the introduction of superfluous words. This figure is allowable only, when in animated discourse, it abruptly introduces an emphatic word, or repeats an idea to impress it more strongly; as, "He that hath ears to hear, let him hear!"—"I know thee who thou art." A pleonasm is sometimes impressive and elegant; but an unemphatic repetition of the same idea, is one of the worst faults of bad writing.

3. Syllepsis is agreement formed according to the figurative sense of a word, or the mental conception of the thing spoken of, and not according to the literal or common use of the term; it is therefore, in general, connected with some figure of rhetoric: as, "The Word was made flesh, and dwelt among us, and we beheld his glory."—John i. 14. "Then Philip went down to the city of Samaria, and preached Christ unto them."—Acts viii. 5. "While Evening draws her crimson curtain round."

4. Enallage is the use of one part of speech, or of one modification for an other. This figure borders closely upon solecism.* It is a license sparingly indulged in poetry, and fashion has given it at

least one form in prose; as,

"You know that you are Brutus that say this."—Shak.
"They fall successive [ly,] and successive [ly] rise."

"Than whom [who] none higher sat."—Milton.

"So furious was that onset's shock,

Destruction's gate at once unlock."—Hogg.

5 Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "He wanders earth around,"—"Rings the world with the vain stir." This figure is much employed in poetry.-A judicious use of it confers harmony, variety, strength, and vivacity, upon composition. But care should be taken lest it produce ambiguity or obscurity.

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A figure of Rhetoric, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words.

Numerous departures from perfect simplicity of diction occur in almost every kind of composition. They are mostly founded on

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Deviations of this kind are, in general, to be considered solecisms; otherwise the rules of grammar would be of no use or authority. Despauter, an ancient Latin grammarian, gave an improper latitude to this figure, under the name of Antiplosis; and Behourt and others extended it still further. But Sanctius says, Antiplosi grammaticurum nihil imperitius, quod figurentum si seset verum, frilstra quæreriur, quod sementum si esset verum, frilstra quæreriur, quæreretur, quæreretur, quæreretur, quæreretur, quæreretur, there are, however, some changes of this kind, which the grammarian is not competent escademn, though they do not accord with the ordinary principles of construction.

some similitude or relation of things, which, by the power of imagi-

nation, is rendered conducive to ornament or illustration.

The principal figures of Rhetoric are fourteen, namely, Sim-i-le, Me-ta-phor, Al-le-go-ry, Me-ton-y-my, Sy-nec-do-che, Hy-per-bo-le, Vis-ion, A-pos-tro-phe, Per-son-i-fi-ca-tion, Er-o-te-sis, Ec-pho-ne-sis, An-tith-e-sis, Cli-max, and I-ro-ny.

1. A Simile is a simple and express comparison, and is generally

introduced by like, as, or so; as,

"At first, like thunder's distant tone,
The rattling din came rolling on."—Hogg.

2. A Metaphor is a figure that expresses the resemblance of two objects, by applying either the name, or some attribute, adjunct, or action, of the one, directly to the other; as,

"His eye was morning's brightest ray."—Hogg. "Beside him sleeps the warrior's bow."—Id.

3. An Allegory is a continued narration of fictitious events designed to represent and illustrate important realities. Thus the Psalmist represents the Jewish nation under the symbol of a vine: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars."—Ps. lxxx. 8.

4. A Metonymy is a change of names. It is founded on some such relation as that of cause and effect, of subject and adjunct, of place and inhabitant, of container and thing contained, or of sign and thing signified; as, "God is our salvation;" i. e. Saviour.—"He was the sigh of her secret soul;" i. e. the youth she loved.—"They smote the city;" i. e. citizens. "My son, give me thy heart;" i. e. affection.—"The sceptre shall not depart from Judah;" i. e. kingly power.

5. Synecdoche is the naming of the whole for a part, or of a part for the whole; as, "This roof [i. e. house] protects you."—"Now

the year [i. e. summer] is beautiful."—Thomson.

6. Hyperbole is extravagant exaggeration, in which the imagination is indulged beyond the sobriety of truth; as,

"The sky shrunk upward with unusual dread, And trembling Tiber div'd beneath his bed."—Dryden

7. Vision or Imagery, is a figure by which the speaker represents the objects of his imagination, as actually before his eyes and present to his senses; as,

"Andromache—thy griefs I dread;

I see thee trembling, weeping, captive led."-Pope.

8. Apostrophe is a turning from the regular course of the subject, into an animated address; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory." O Death! where is thy sting? O Grave! where is thy victory?"—1 Cor. xv. 54.

9. Personification is a figure by which, in imagination, we ascribe in the second personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities.

itics; as,

"Lo, steel-clad War his gorgeous standard rears!"—Rogers. "Hark! Truth proclaims thy triumphs cease!"—Id.

10. Erotesis is a figure in which the speaker adopts the form of interrogation, not to express a doubt, but in general confidently to assert the reverse of what is asked; as, "Hast thou an arm like God? or canst thou thunder with a voice like him?"—Job, xl. 9.

11. Ecphonesis is a pathetic exclamation, denoting some violent emotion of the mind; as, "O Liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear! O sacred privilege of Roman citizenship!—once sacred—now trampled upon!"—Cicero.

12. Antithesis is a placing of things in opposition to heighten their

effect by contrast; as,

"Contrasted faults through all their manners reign; Though poor, luxurious; though submissive, vain; Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue; And, e'en in penance, planning sins anew."—Goldsmith.

13. Climax is a figure in which the sense is made to advance by successive steps, to rise gradually to what is more and more important and interesting, or to descend to what is more and more minute and particular; as, "Tribulation worketh patience; and patience, experience; and experience, hope."—Rom. v. 3.

14. Irony is a figure in which the speaker sneeringly utters the direct reverse of what he intends shall be understood; as, "We have, to be sure, great reason to believe the modest man would not

ask him for a debt, when he pursues his life."—Cicero.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the art of arranging words into lines of correspondent length, so as to produce harmony by the regular alternation of syllables differing in quantity.

The Quantity of a syllable, is the relative portion of time occupied in uttering it. In poetry, every syllable is considered to be either long or short. A long syllable is reckoned to be equal to two short ones.

Obs. 1. The quantity of a syllable does not depend on the sound of the vowel or diphthong, but principally, on the degree of accentual force with which the syllable is uttered, whereby a greater or less portion of time is employed. The open vowel sounds are those which are the most easily protracted, yet they often occur in the shortest and feeblest syllables.

Obs. 2. Most monosyllables are variable, and may be made either long or sho we suits the rhythm. In words of greater length, the

accented syllable is always long; and a syllable immediately before or after that which is accented, is always short.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound, between the last syllables of dif-

ferent lines. Blank verse is verse without rhyme.

Obs. The principal rhyming syllables are always long. Double rhyme adds one short syllable; triple rhyme, two. Such syllables are redundant in iambic and anapæstic verses.

POETIC FEET.

A line of poetry consists of successive combinations of syllables, called feet.

A poetic foot consists either of two or of three syllables.

The principal English feet are the *Iambus*, the *Trochee*, the *Anapæst*, and the *Dactyl*.

1. The lambus is a poetic foot consisting of a short syllable and a

long one; as, betray, confess.

2. The Trochee is a poetic foot consisting of a long syllable and a short one; as, hateful, pettish.

3. The Anapæst is a poetic foot consisting of two short syllables

and one long one; as, contravene, acquiesce.

4. The Dactyl is a poetic foot consisting of one long syllable and two short ones; as, labourer, possible.

We have, accordingly, FOUR KINDS of verse, or poetic measure; Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic, and Dactylic.

SCANNING.

Scanning is the dividing of verses into the feet which compose them.

I. In Iambic verse, the stress is laid on the even syllable.

EXAMPLES.

För präise | töo dear|ly löv'd | ör wärm|ly söught, Enfet |bles all | inter|nal strength | of thought. With söl |emn äd |örä |tiön döwn | they cäst Their crowns | inwove | with am |arant | and gold.

II. In Trochaic verse, the stress is laid on the odd syllables. Sin gle-rhymed trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one. This kind of verse is the same as iambic without the initial short syllable.

EXAMPLES.

Round & | holy | calm dif | fusing, Love of | peace and | lonely | musing. Single Rhyme.

Rēstlēss | mortāls | toil for | naught; B.iss in | vain from | earth is | sought.

III. In Anapæstic verse, the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapæstic line, may be an iambus.

EXAMPLES.

At the close | of the day—when the ham|let is still,
And mor|tals the sweets—of forget|fulness prove,
When nought | but the tor|rent is heard | on the hill,
And nought | but the night|ingale's song | in the grove.

IV. In Dactylic verse, the stress is laid on the first, the fourth, the seventh, and the tenth syllable. Full Dactylic forms triple rhyme. When one of the final short syllables is omitted, the rhyme is double: when both, single. Dactylic with single rhyme, is the same as anapæstic without its initial short syllables. Dactylic measure is rather uncommon; and, when employed, is seldom perfectly regular.

EXAMPLES.

Hōly and | pure are the | pleasures of | piety,
Drawn from the | fountain of | mercy and | love;
Endless, ex|haustless, ex|empt from sa|tiety,
Rising un|earthly and | soaring a|bove.

Obs. The more pure these several kinds of poetic measure are preserved, the more complete is the chime of the verse. But, to avoid disagreeable monotony, the poets generally indulge some variety; not so much, however, as to confound the drift of the r!.yth-mical pulsations.

QUESTIONS ON PROSODY.

LESSON I .- PUNCTUATION.

Of what does Prosody treat? What is Punctuation?

What are the principal points or marks?

What is the proportion of the pauses denoted by the comma, the semicolon, the colon, and the period?

What pauses are required by the other four?

What is the use of the comma?—of the semicolon?—of the colon? of the period?—of the dash?—of the note of interrogation?—of the note of exclamation?—of the parenthesis?

LESSON II .- OTHER MARKS.

Are there any other marks used in printing? What does the apostrophe denote? What is the use of the hyphen? How is the diæresis employed? What is the use of the acute accent? What is the use of the grave accent? What is the use of the circumflex? For what purpose is the breve employed? For what purpose is the macron employed? What does the ellipsis denote?

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What does the caret show?
What is the use of the brace?
What does the section mark?
What does the paragraph denote?
How is a new subject generally distinguished?
What do the quotation points denote?
What is the use of the crotchets?
What does the index point out?
To what do the asterisk, obelisk, dagger, and parallel, refer?

LESSON III .- UTTERANCE.

What is UTTERANCE? and what does it include? What is pronunciation?—What does it require? What are the just powers of the letters? What is accent?—Is every word accented? What four things distinguish the elegant speaker? What is elocution?—What does elocution require? What is emphasis?—What are pauses?—inflections? What is the rising inflection?—the falling inflection? How are these inflections applied in asking questions? What are tones?

LESSON IV .- FIGURES.

What is a FIGURE in grammar?
How many kinds of figures are there?
What is a figure of etymology?
What are the principal figures of etymology?
What is aphæresis?—prosthesis?—syncope?—apocope?—parago ge?—diæresis?—synæresis—tmesis?
What is a figure of syntax?
What are the principal figures of syntax?
What is ellipsis?—pleonasm?—syllepsis?—enallage?—hyperbaton?

LESSON V .- FIGURES.

What is a figure of rhetoric?
On what are the figures of rhetoric founded?
What are the principal figures of rhetoric?
What is a simile?—a metaphor?—an allegory?—metonymy?—
synecdoche?—hyperbole?—vision?—apostrophe?—personification?—erotesis?—ecphonesis?—antithesis?—climax?—irony?

LESSON VI. - VERSIFICATION.

What is versification?
What is quantity?—rhyme?—blank verse?—scanning?
Of what does a line of poetry consist?
What are the principal English feet?
What is an iambus?—a trochee?—an anapæst?—a dactyl?
How many kinds of verse are there?
What syllables are accented in iambic verse?—in trochaic verse?—in anapæatic verse?—in dactylic verse?

THE END OF PART FOURTH.

APPENDIX.

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

To be corrected orally according to the formules here given.

UNDER RULE IL

Thee must have been idle.

[Not proper, because the pronoun thee is in the objective case, and is the subject of the verb must have been. But, according to Rule 2d, "A noun or a pronoun which is the subject of a verb, must be in the nominative case." Therefore, thee should be thou. thus, Thou must have been idle.]

Him that loiters by the way, may be belated. Them that labour, should be rewarded. Us who are spared ought to be thankful. You and me are equally concerned. Are not thee and him related? My brother is older than me. He cannot read so well as thee. Who fastened the door? Me. Whom do you suppose did it?

UNDER RULE III.

I have heard from my cousin, she that was here last week.

[Not proper, because the pronoun *she* is in the nominative case, and is used to explain the noun *cousin* which is in the objective case. But, according to Rule 3d, "A noun or a personal pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case." Therefore, *she* should be *her*; thus, I have heard from my cousin, *her* that was here last week.]

That was the tailoress, her that made my clothes. I saw your friend, he that was here last winter.

Dennis, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

UNDER RULE V.

Ought not every man to be careful of their reputation?

[Not proper, because the pronoun their is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent noun man, which is of the third person, singular, masculine. But according to Rule 5th

⁶ A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun or pronoun which it represents, in person, number, and gender." Therefore, their should be his; thus, Ought not every man to be careful of his reputation?

Every one must judge of their own feelings.—Byron. We may be displeased with a person without hating them. I poured water on the embers to quench it. Ask ber for the scissors, and bring it to me. He had sown the oats, and it had already sprung up.

UNDER RULE VI.

The jury will be confined until it agrees on a verdict.

[Not proper, because the pronoun it is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its antecedent jury, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But, according to Rule 6th, "When the antecedent is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the pronoun must agree with it, in the plural number." Therefore, it should be they; thus, The jury will be confined until they agree on a verdict.]

The people will not relinquish its rights.
The clergy had declared its intention.
The party disagreed among itself.
The committee were unanimous, and this is its award.
The company then renewed its claims.

UNDER RULE VII.

Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.

[Not proper, because the pronoun itself is of the singular number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents, discontent and sorrow, which are connected by and, and taken conjointly. But, according to Rule 7th, "When a pronoun has two or more antecedents connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number." Therefore itself should be themselves; Thus, Discontent and sorrow manifested themselves in his countenance.]

Avoid lightness and frivolity: it is allied to folly. Truth and honesty cannot fail of its reward.

Learning and good sense always adorn its possesson Banish envy and strife: it will destroy your peace. Cherish love and unity: it is the life of society.

UNDER RULE VIII.

Neither wealth nor honour can satisfy their votaries.

[Not proper, because the pronoun their is of the plural number, and does not correctly represent its two antecedents wealth and honour, which are connected by nor, and taken disjunctively. But according to Rule 8th, "When a pronoun has two or more singular untecedents connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the

singular number." Therefore, their should be its; thus, Neither wealth nor honour can satisfy its votaries.]

Can justice or truth change their nature?

One or the other must relinquish their claim.

Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow their neck to thee.

The horse or the ox will lend thee their strength.

Neither my father nor my master would give their consent.

UNDER RULE IX.

You was kindly received.

[Not proper, because the verb was received is of the singular number, and does not agree with its nominative you, which is plural. But according to Rule 9th, "A verb must agree with its subvect, or nominative, in person and number." Therefore, was received should be were received: thus, You were kindly received.]

Appearances is often deceptive.

The propriety of such restrictions are doubtful. There is windows on three sides of the room.

Thou sees the difficulties with which I am surrounded.

What does all my exertions avail.

UNDER RULE X.

The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow.

[Not proper, because the verb rejoices is of the singular number and does not correctly agree with the nominative people, which is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality. But according to Rule 10th, "When the nominative is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must agree with it in the plural number." Therefore, rejoices should be rejoice: thus, The people rejoice in that which should cause sorrow.]

The nobility was assured that he would not interpose. The committee has attended to their appointment. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure. All the world is spectators of your conduct. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound.—Bible.

UNDER RULE XI.

Industry and frugality leads to wealth.

[Not proper, because the verb leads is of the singular number and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, industry and frugality, which are connected by and, and taken conjointly. But according to Rule 11th, "When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by and, it must agree with them in the plural number." Therefore, leads should be lead: thus, Industry and frugality lead to wealth.]

Temperance and exercise preserves health.

My love and affection towards thee remains unaltered.

Wealth, honour, and happiness, forsakes the indolent. My flesh and my heart faileth.—Bible.

In all his works, there is sprightliness and vigour.

UNDER RULE XII.

Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake

[Not proper, because the verb have caused is of the plural number, and does not correctly agree with its two nominatives, ignorance and negligence, which are connected by or, and taken disjunctively. But, according to Rule 12th, "When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by or or nor, it must agree with them in the singular number." Therefore, have caused should be has caused: thus, Ignorance or negligence has caused this mistake.]

No axe or hammer have ever awakened an echo here. What the heart or imagination dictate, flows readily. Neither authority no analogy support thy opinion. Either ability or inclusation were wanting. He comes—nor want nor cold his course delay.—Johnson.

UNDER RULE XIII.

They would neither go in, nor suffered others to enter.

[Not proper, because the verb suffered, which is in the indicative mood, is connected, without repetition of the nominative, to would go, which is in the potential mood. But, according to Rule 13th, "When verbs are connected by a conjunction, they must either agree in mood, tense, and form, or have separate nominatives expressed." Therefore, suffered should be would suffer; (would understood;) thus, They would neither go in, nor suffer others to enter.]

Does not he waste his time, and neglects his lessons?
Did not she send, and gave you this information?
Their honours are departing and come to an end.
He had retired to his farm, and appeared to be happy there
He was elected to the office, but would not serve.

UNDER RULE XX.

She I shall more readily forgive.

Not proper, because the pronoun she is in the nominative case, and is the object of the active-transitive verb shall forgive. But, according to Rule 20th, "Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and pluperfect participles, govern the objective case." Therefore, she should be her: thus, Her I shall more readily forgive.]

Thou only have I chosen.
Who shall we send on this errand?
My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him
He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.
Who should I meet but my old friend!

UNDER RULE XXI.

We did not know that it was him.

[Not proper, because the pronoun him, which follows the neuter verb was, is in the objective case, and does not agree with the pronoun it, which precedes the verb, in the nominative; both words referring to the same thing. But, according to Rule 21st, "Active-inv ansitive, passive, and neuter verbs, take the same case after as before them, when both words feer to the same thing." Therefore, him should be he: thus, We did not know that it was he.]

We thought it was thee.

I would act the same part, if I were him. It could not have been her.

It is not me that he is angry with.

They believed it to be I.

UNDER RULE XXII.

It rests with thou and me to decide.

[Not proper, because the pronoun thou is in the nominative case, and is governed by the preposition with. But, according to Rule 22d, "Prepositions govern the objective case." Therefore, thou should be thee: thus, It rests with thee and me to decide.]

Let that remain a secret between you and I. I lent the book to some one, I know not who. Let no quarrel occur among ye.

Who did he inquire for? Thou.

UNDER RULE XXIII.

Ought these things be tolerated?

[Not proper, because the infinitive be tolerated, is not preceded by the preposition to. But, according to Rule 23d, "The preposition to governs the infinitive mood, and commonly connects it to a finite verb." To should be inserted: thus, Ought these things to be tolerated?]

Please excuse my son's absence. Cause every man go out from me. Forbid them enter the garden. Do you not perceive it move? Allow others discover your merit. He was seen go in at that gate.

UNDER RULE XXIV.

They need not to call upon her.

[Not proper, because the preposition to is inserted before call, which follows the active verb need. But, according to Rule 24th,

"The active verbs bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see, and their participles, take the infinitive after them, without the preposition to." Therefore, to should be omitted: thus, They need not call upon her.]

I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me. I have heard him to mention the subject. Bid the boys to come in immediately. I dare to say he has not got home yet. Let no rash promise to be made.

UNDER RULE XXV.

Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

[Not proper, because the pronoun him, whose case depends on no other word, is in the objective case. But, according to Rule 25th, "A noun or pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when 12 case depends on no other word." Therefore, him should be he thus, He having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.]

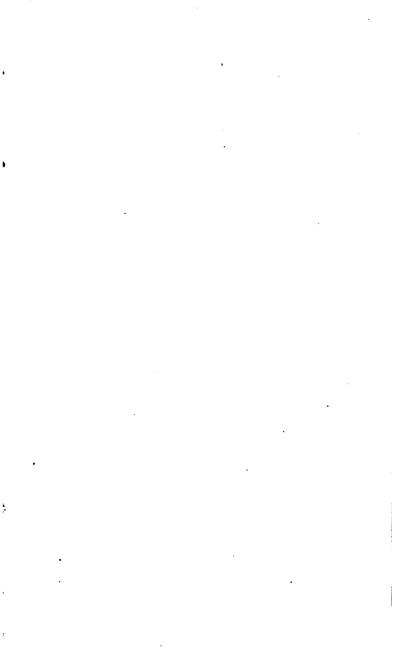
Me being young, they deceived me.
Them refusing to comply, I withdrew.
The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go?
Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.
Arise, and gird thyself, O thee that sleepest!
O wretched us! shut from the light of hope!
"Thee too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cæsar overcome
But him, the chieftain of them all,
His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

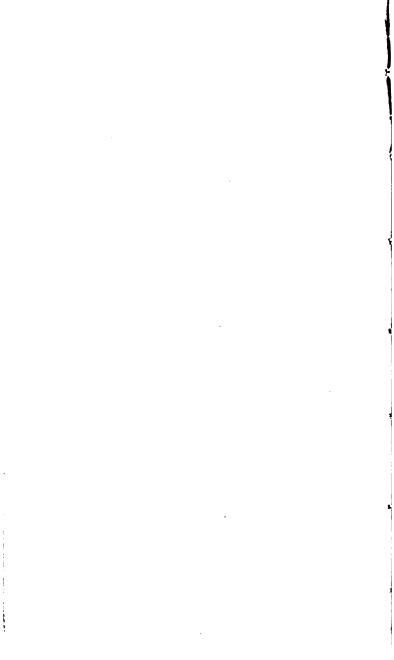
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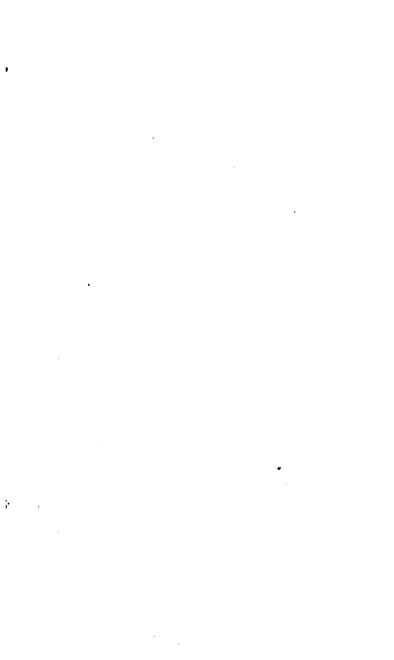
He will not be pardoned, unless he repents.

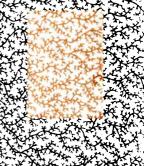
[Not proper, because the verb repents, which is used to express a future contingency, is in the indicative mood. But, according to Rule 26th, "A future contingency is best expressed by a verb in the subjunctive, present." Therefore, repents should be repent: thus, He will not be pardoned unless he repent.]

I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rains. If thou feltest as I do, we should soon decide. I knew thou wert not slow to hear. Let him take heed lest he falls. If thou castest me off, I shall be miserable. I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well. If he was an impostor, he must have been detected.









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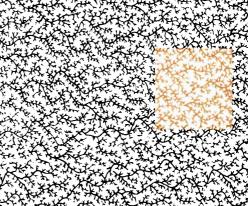
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