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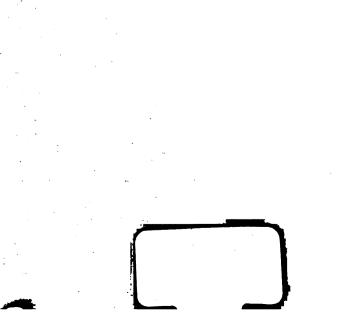
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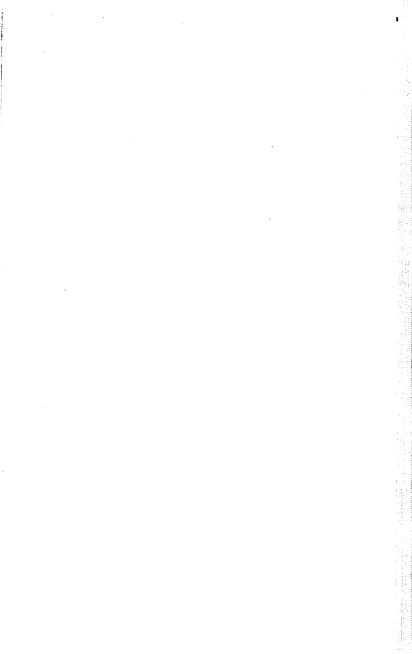
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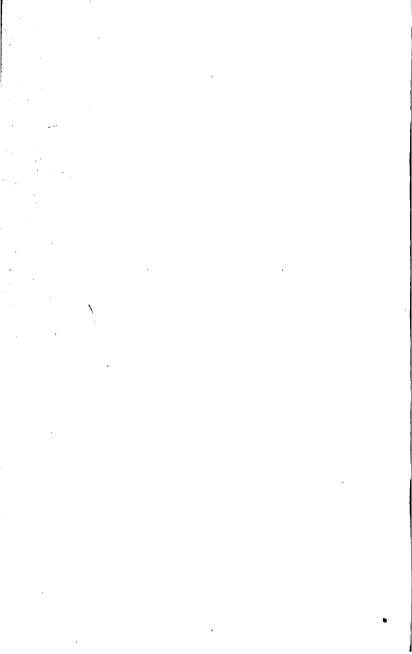


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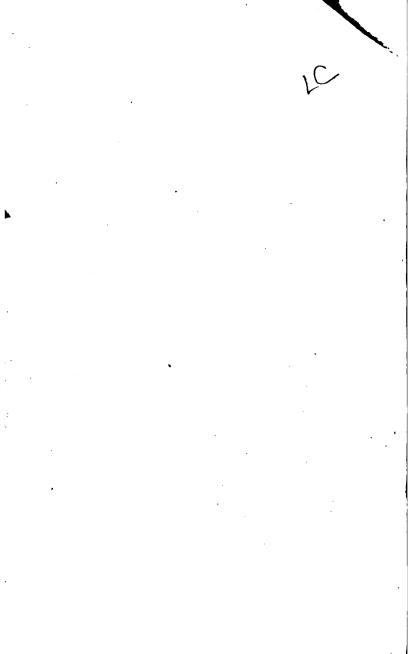






Brown

RNO



THE

FIRST LINES

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

RRING A

BRIEF ABSTRACT OF THE AUTHOR'S LARGER WORK,

THE

"INSTITUTES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR."

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 a rausement—Goldsmith.

A NEW EDITION.

WITH EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARELY

BY HENRY KIDDLE, A. M.,

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY.

NEW YORK
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District of New York.

ORIGINAL 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 lan-Those who desire a more complete elucidation of the subject, are invited to examine the author's larger work.

For the use of young learners, small treatises are generally preafferred 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 I 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 ren-

dered 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

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION.

Since the completion and publication of my Grammar of English Grammars, it has frequently been suggested to me, that a new and critical revision of the Institutes and First Lines, to present them in a state of stricter conformity to that more elaborate work, and to obviate at the same time some remaining defects which had occasionally been noticed, might be the means of increasing the usefulness, and sustaining the reputation of these pretty widely known school-books. Such an improvement of the Institutes the author carefully prepared for the stereotypers during the last year. Having now performed, in like manner, and with proportionate pains, a new revision, or a sort of recasting, of the First Lines of English Grammar, he may perhaps, without lack of modesty, commend this little book to the managers of schools, as being, in his own estimation at least, the best and cheapest epitome of English Grammar yet offered to their choice.

GOOLD BROWN.

LYNN, MASS., 1855.

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FIRST LINES

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking, reading, and writing the English language correctly.

It is divided into four parts; namely, Orthog-

raphy, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, separ-

ate words, and spelling.

Etymology treats of the different parts of

speech, with 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.

CHAPTER 1.—OF LETTERS

A Letter is an alphabetic mark, or character, commonly representing some elementary sound of a word.

An elementary sound of a word, is a simple or primary sound of the human voice, used in speak-

, ing.

The letters in the English alphabet are twentysix; A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R =, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z.

Observation 1.—The names of the letters, as now commonly spoken and written in English, are A, Bee, Cee, Dee, E, Eff, Gee, Aitch, I, Jay, Kay, Ell, Em, En, O, Pee, Kue, Ar, Ess, Tee, U, Vee, Double-u, Ex, Wy, Zee.

Obs. 2.—These names, like those of the days of the week, though they partake the nature of nouns proper, may form regular plurals; thus, Aes, Bees, Cees, Dees, Ees, Effs, Gees, Aitches, Ies, Jays, Kays, Ells, Ems, Ens, Ocs, Pees, Kues, Ars, Esses, Tees, Ues, Vees, Double-

ues, Exes, Wies, Zees.

Obs. 3.—Unlike the other letters, all the principal vowels—whether capitals, as A, E, I, O, U, or small forms, as a, e, i, o, uname themselves; each of them, as the name of itself, having the long, primary sound with which it usually forms an accented syllable; as in Abel, Enoch, Isaac, Obed, Urim. The other letters, though they never actually or fully form their own names, are often used in lieu of them, and are read as the words for which they are assumed; as, C, for Cee; F, for Eff; J, for Jay; H, for Aitth.

CLASSES OF THE 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; as, a, e, o.

A consonant is a letter which cannot be perfectly uttered till joined to a vowel; as, b, c, d.

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

and y. All the other letters are consonants.

W or y is called a consonant when it precedes a vowel heard in the same syllable; as in wine, twine, whine, ye, yet, youth: in all other cases, these letters are vowels; as in newly, dewy, eyebrow.

Obs. 1.—The consonants are divided into mutes and seminowels.

FORMS OF THE LETTERS.

In the English language, the Roman characters are generally employed; sometimes the *Italic*; and occasionally the Old English. In writing, we use the Scipe.

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, or of any clause separately numbered or paragraphed, should begin with a capital.

RULE III .- NAMES OF THE 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 honour, and proper names of every description, should begin with capitals; as, Chief Justice Hale, William, London, the Park, the Albion, the Spectator, 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, Nowtonian, Grecian, Roman.

RULE VII .-- I AND O.

The words I and O should always be capitals; as, "Out of the depths have I cried unto thee, O Lord."—Psalms.

RULE VIII .- POETRY.

Every line in poetry, except what is regarded as making but one verse with the line preceding, should begin with a capital; as,

"Our sons their fathers' failing language see,
And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be."—Pops.

RULE IX.—EXAMPLES.

A full example, a distinct speech, or 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.

CHAPTER II.—OF SYLLABLES.

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.

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 syllable; 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, os, oi, oo, ou, ow—ua, ue, ui, uo, uy.

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

above; unless uoi, as in quoit, may be added.

Obs. 5.—The improper triphthongs are sixteen; awe, aye—eau, eou, ewe, eye—ieu, ieu, iou—oeu, owe—uai, uaw, uay, uea, uee.

Obs. 6.—In dividing words into syllables, we are to be directed chiefly by the ear; it may however be proper to observe, as far as practicable, the following rules:

I. Consonants should generally be joined to the vowels or diph-

thongs which they modify in utterance; as, ap-os-tol-i-cal.

II. Two vowels coming together, if they make not a diphthong,

must be parted in dividing the syllables; as, a-e-ri-al.

III. Derivative and grammatical terminations should generally be separated from the radical words to which they have been added; as, harm-less, great-ly, connect-ed.

IV. Prefixes, in general, form separate syllables; as, mis-place, out-ride, up-lift: but if their own primitive meaning be disregarded, the case may be otherwise; thus, re-create and rec-reate are words of different import.

V. Compounds, when divided, should be divided into the simple

words which compose them; as, no-where.

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

CHAPTER III.—OF WORDS.

A Word is one or more syllables spoken or written as the sign of some idea, or of some manner of thought.

SPECIES AND FIGURE OF W. DS.

Words are distinguished as primitive or deriv-

ative, 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,

not composed of other words; 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, which may be called temporary compounds,

are formed by the hyphen; as, glass-house, negro-merchant.

Obs. 2.—The compounding of words produces new ones, which are not always good; and the sundering of just compounds produces solecisms, or ungrammatical phrases. Hence the figure of words should be subjected to rules. To supply so obvious a want, I have framed the following hints:

I. Compounds.—Words regularly or analogically united, and commonly known as compounds, should never be needlessly broken apart.

II. SIMPLES.—When the simple words would only form a regular phrase, of the same meaning, the compounding of any of them ought to be avoided.

III. The Sense.—Words otherwise liable to be misunderstood, must be joined together, or written separately, as the sense and construction may happen to require.

IV. Ellipses.—When two or more compounds are connected in one sentence, none of them should be split to make an ellipsis of half a word.

V. The Hyphen.—When the parts of a compound do not fully coalesce, as to-day, to-night, to-morrow; or when each retains its original accent, so that the compound has more than one, or one that is movable, as first-born, hanger-on, laughter-loving, the hyphen should be inserted between them.

VI. No HYPHEN.—When a compound has but one accented syllable in pronunciation, as watchword, statesman, gentleman, and the parts are such as admit of a complete coalescence, no hyphen should be inserted between them.

CHAPTER IV.—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 to 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.

Monosyllables ending in f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant: as, staff, mill, pass; except three in f—clef, if, of; four in l—bul, nul, sal, sol; and eleven in s—as, gas, kas, was, yes, is, his, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II .- OTHER FINALS.

Words ending in any other consonant than f, l, or s, do not double the final letter; except abb, ebb, add, odd, egg, inn, err, burr, purr, yarr, butt, buzz, fuzz, 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, or by a vowel after qu, double their final consonant before an additional syllable that begins with a vowel: as, rob, robber; permit, permitting; acquit, acquittal, acquitting.

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.

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

RULE V .- RETAINING.

Words ending with any double letter, preserve it double before

any additional termination not beginning with the same letter; as in the following derivatives; seeing, blissful, oddly, hilly, stiffness, illness, smallness, carelessness, agreement, agreeable.

Exc.—The irregular words, fled, sold, told, dwelt, spelt, spilt, shalt, wilt, blest, past, and the derivatives from the word pontiff,

are exceptions to this rule.

RULE VI.-FINAL E.

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

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

changeable; outrage, outrageous.

RULE VII.-FINAL E.

The final e of a primitive word is generally retained before an additional termination beginning with a consonant: as, pale, paleness; lodge, lodgement.

Exo.—When the e is preceded by a vowel, it is sometimes omit ted; 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, shellfish.

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—cludpoll, enrol?—[See Johnson's Dictionary, first American edition 4to.]

CHAPTER V.—EXERCISES.

EXERCISE I. - Divide the following words into their proper syllables.

Vengeance, permission, whosoever, divisible, recollection, rational, premeditate, reflected, inflexibility, extraordinary, unnecessary, preparation, aëriform, aqueduct, iniquity, triennial, conscientiousness, ratio, appreciate, impressible, archipelago, resurrection, abecedarian, simultaneously, prejudice, pronunciation, propitious, catalogue, polysyllable, miscellaneous, omniscience, recommendation.

EXERGISE II.—State from what primitive word each of the following derivatives is formed, and according to which of the Rules for Spelling.

Compelled, skillful, holiday, happiness, courageous, rebellion, traveler, believing, achievement, spoonful, galloping, beautiful, deluder, salable, changeable, narrator, juiciness, improvement, loveliness, beggar, spotted, preference, preferred, variable, conveyance, thralldom, agreeable, deriving, shoeing, business, icicle, impel, beginner, manumitting.

Exercise III.—Form as many derivatives as possible from the following primitives.

Excel, visit, commit, worship, bury, beauty, travel, judge, sincere, refer, vary, agree, full, delay, busy, tie, differ, occur, expel, benefit, duty, plan, despoil, narrate, beg, peril, receive, instruct, assemble, pity, define, mimic, compose, form, value, charge, animate, combat, acquit, abridge, critic, allege, merchant, tyrant, fancy, dry, onnit, achieve, whole, compel, tall, debt, write, cancel, rob, spell.

EXERCISE IV.—Correct the errors in the following words according to the Rules for Spelling.

Scof, repell, til, untill, rareity, chimnies, crosness, outstriped, pasport, blisful, slothfull, merryness, instiling, refered, preferrable, referible, duely, welspent, benefitted, improveing, defering, controllable, dulness, forgeting, bigotted, untieing, moveable, pontificate, forceible, aweful, annull, handfull, al-powerfull, fruitfullness, miscal, wherin, perillous, fulfil, appall, uphil.

EXERCISE V.—Analyze the following words, and state to which of the Rules for Spelling they are exceptions.

Excellence, judgment, bounteous, gaiety, said, egg, yes, argument, wholly, abridgment, traveller, gaseous, unpaid, crystalline, cancelling, development, mutinous, denying, kidnapping, daily, charitable, plenteous, babyhood, truly, this, add, unparalleled, biassed, dryly, awful, welfare, wherefore, chilblain, welcome, Christmas.

EXERCISE VI.—Copy the following sentences, and insert or omit capital letters according to the Rules for Capitals.

Goldsmith's "deserted village" is a beautiful poem. The lord is a great god above all Gods. The city of london is situated on the river Thames. The hudson river was discovered by Henry hudson. the roman empire was divided into two portions at the death of theodosius the great, the empire of the West being governed by Honorius and that of the east, by arcadius. O liberty! o sound once delightful to every roman ear! epimanondas, the theban General, was remarkable for his love of Truth, he never told a lie even in Jest. o grave! where is thy victory? And god spake unto moses, and said unto him, i am the lord. Pope says, "order is heaven's first law." The "lady of the lake" was written by sir walter scott, who was also the Author of the waverley novels.

get thee back, sorrow, get thee back!
why should i weep while i am young?
i have not piped—i have not danced—
my morning Songs i have not sung.

PART II.

X ETYMOLOGY.

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

CHAPTER I.—THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

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

1. THE ARTICLE.

An Article is the word the, an, or a, which we put before nouns to limit their signification: as, the air, the stars; an island, a ship.

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, 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 of an adjective or a noun; 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 de-

pendence of the terms so connected: as, "Thou and he are happy, because you are good."—Mur.

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! ah! poh! pshaw!

PARSING.

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

A sentence is an assemblage of words, making complete sense; as, "Beauty fades."-" Reward sweetens labor."

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

EXERCISE I .- Point out, in the following sentences, the verb, the noun, and the article, and parse each as in the example.

Example 1.—" The man walks."

Walks is the verb, because it signifies action.
 Man is the noun, because it is the name of a person.
 The is the article, because it limits the signification of the noun, man.

The sun shines. William reads. The fire burns. soiled. John studies grammar. The boy told an untruth. The horse is a quadruped. A is an article. The flowers bloom. Duks swim. Does the sun shine? Birds build nests. Columbus ciscovered America. Hawks kill chickens. Cain siew Abel. The sun ripens the fruit.

EXERCISE II.—Point out the verb, the noun, the article, the adjective, and the pronoun, and parse each as in the first and second examples.

Example 2.—" An idle scholar disgraces his teacher."

4. Idle is the adjective, because it expresses the quality of scholar.
5. His is the pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun scholar.

A good boy obeys his parents. Sarah learns bei lessons. History is a useful study. A disobedient boy disgraces his parchts. The earth is a round body. Boys are headless. They distriguted their teachers. Wisdom is the principal thing. A noble mind scorns a mean action. Washington was a true patriot. A good book is an interesting companion. William found the money which his carriess brother lost. A friend should bear principal's infirmities. A faithful servant studies his master's interest. A cheerful temper is a great blessing.

EXERCISE III.—Distinguish the parts of speech in the following sentences, and parse each as in the first, second, and third examples.

Example 3.—"The good echolar attends diligently and carefully to his lessons."

 Diligently and carefully are adverbs, because they are added to the verb attend, and express manner.

7. And is a conjunction, because it connects the adverbs diligently and carefully.

8. To is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the verb attend to the noun lessons.

John and Peter are good scholars. James is a dishonest and idle lad. The rose is a beautiful and fragrant flower. Prosperity gains friends, and adversity tries them. William studies diligently but Charles is idle. A peach, an apple, a pear, or an orange is very delicious. The eagle has a strong and piercing eye. Candar, sincerity, and trada are amiable qualities. The horse rups are 'y. Casar was a very famous general. He conquered many nations, and invaded the island of Britain. Hark i the trumpet sounds. Alas! how unfortunate, he is! The industrious and attentive scholar learns with great ease and rapidity. Virtuous youth gradually brings forward accomplished and flourishing manhood. Sloth cafeebles equally the body and the mental powers. If thou faint in the day of adversity, thy strength is small.

EXERCISE IV.—State what part of speech is required in each of the following sentences, fill the blanks and parse each word.

The	man	wall	ks	 .	John	write	8	. Quic	ksilver	is
bright		- sh	inina		— t	oy is	amiable		talente	d;
	• he	does	nor	study.		is	beautiful		fragran	nt.

Set the book — the — a tree
The ship sailed ——— the harbor, The near ——— punish: ent
crime. My father has gone Boston, vil
return. The travelers sat — a — fire. The —
scholars have studied lessons, and know well.
The hare is a timid animal. He runs away very
when he ——— the least noise.

CHAPTER II.—OF ARTICLES.

An Article is the word the, an, or a, which we out before nouns to limit their signification: as, The air, the stars; an island, a ship.

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 a and a were when expressed by other letters, require a and not an before 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 common noun without an article or other word to limit its signification, is generally taken in its widest sense; as, "A candid temper is proper for man; that is, for all mankind."—Murray.

CHAPTER III.—OF NOUNS.

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.

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

II. A common noun is the name of a sort, kind, or class of beings or things; as, Beast, bird, fish,

insect, creatures, persons, children.

The particular classes, collective, abstract, and verbal, or participial, are usually included among common nouns. The name of a thing sui generis is also called common.

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

2. An abstract noun is the name of some particular quality considered apart from its substance; as, Good-

ness, hardness, pride, frailty.

3. 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.

4. A thing sui generis (i. e., of its own peculiar kind,) is something which is distinguished, not as an individual of a species, but as a sort by itself, without plurality in either the noun or the sort of thing; as, Galvanism, music, geometry.

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 or writer; as, "I Paul have written it."

The second person is that which denotes the hearer, or the person addressed; 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.

λ numbers.

Numbers, in grammar, 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 s, and ss 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, no, noes; 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 nouns in f, change f into v, and add es, for the plural; sheaf, leaf, loaf, beef, thief, calf, half, elf, shelf, self, wolf, wharf; as, sheaves, leaves, etc. 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, gulfs, etc.

Obs. 8.—The following are still more irregular: man, men; woman, women; child, children; brother, brethren [or brothers]; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; louse, tice; 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; pheno-

menon, 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, minutics.

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

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

Obs. 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, fathers-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-servants.

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, in grammar, 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 persons or animals of the male kind; as, man, father, king.

The feminine gender is that which denotes persons or animals 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, neighbor, 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, backelor, maid; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen.

II. By the use of different terminations: as, abbot, abbess; here,

heroine; administrator, administratrix.

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

relations, female relations.

Obs. 5.—The names of things without life, used literally, are always 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," etc.—Exod., xxii. 1.

CASES. ----

Cases, in grammar, 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 usually denotes the subject of a finite verb: as, The boy runs; I run.

The possessive case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun, which usually 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 usually 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. Pro-

couns 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 apostrophs; 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,-FRIEND.							
Sing	ular. '	Plural.					
Nom.	friend,	Nom.	friends,				
Poss.	friend's,	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.

	EXAM	PLE III.	—rox.	•
Nom.	fox,		Nom.	foxes,
Poss.	fox's,		Poss.	foxes'
Obj.	fox;	1	Obj.	foxes.
	EXAM	PLE IV	-FLY.	
Nom.	fly,		Nom	flies.
Poss.	fly's,		Poss.	flies',
Obj.	fly;	,	Obj.	flies,

X ANALYSIS.

Analysis is the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

Every sentence must contain at least two principal

parts; namely, the subject and the predicate.

The subject of a sentence is that of which it treats; as,

"The sun has set,"—" Can you write?"

The predicate is that which expresses the action, being, or passion, as belonging to the subject. It is therefore always a verb.

Any combination of the subject and predicate is called.

a proposition.

A simple sentence is one that contains only one proposition; as, "Fire burns."—"The truth will prevail."

A simple sentence may be declarative, interrogutive.

imperative, or exclamatory.

It is declarative when it expresses an affirmation or negation; interrogative, when it expresses a question; imperative, when it expresses a command; and exclamatory, when it expresses an exclamation.

Obs.—In analyzing simple sentences, the subject and predicate should be found first, and then the object, if the sentence contain one. The object is defined in Obs. 4. on the preceding page. The subject, in imperative sentences, is not expressed, but must be supplied in analysis. It is thou or you, (understood.)

EXERCISES.—ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—Analyze each of the following sentences by pointing out the subject, the predicate, and the object (if there be any), and

state whether it is declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatery.

EXAMPLE.—"Contentment brings happiness."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is conteniment, the predicate, brings; the object, happiness.

Orimes deserve punishment. Robbers are imprisoned. Generosity makes friends. Vice primes miser. Does William study grammar. Oar he speak French (Tay) (1). Justice will prevail. Persey rance overcomes obstact (Honor merit. Can you avoid errors? Matilda possesses beaut. Pense meanness. Jane has friends. Vanity excites disgust. Plants produce flowers. Can indolence bestow wealth? Diligence should be rewarded. Could he have avoided disgrace? Will you give assistance?

EXERCISE II.—Parse each word in the above sentences according to the following example.

Example.—" Contentment brings happiness."

Contentment is a common noun; of the third person, because it is spoken of; of the singular number, because it denotes only one; of the neuter gender, because it is neither male nor female; of the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb brings.

Brings is a verb, because it signifies action.

Happiness is a common noun of the third person, singular number, neuter genden, and of the objective case, because it is the object of the verb orings.

CHAPTER IV.—OF ADJECTIVES.

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, Platonia

III. A numeral adjective is one that expresses a definite number; as, One, two, three, four, etc.

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 cf two or more words joined together; as, Nutbrown, laughter-loving, four-footed.

Obs.-Numeral adjectives are of three kinds: namely.

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

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

MODIFICATIONS.

Adjectives have, commonly, no modifications but the forms of comparison.

Comparison is a variation of the adjective, to express quality in afferent 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 ex-

ceeded; 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, skillful, more skillful, most skillful, skillful, less skillful, least skillful.

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.
hot,	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 &

Obs. 8.—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; fumous, 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, or to each word.

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 adjectives put together. Very many of these, and a few pronominals and participials, may be compared; but adjectives formed from proper names, all the nut erals, and most of the compounds, are in no way susceptible of co parison.

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 woe—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. 18.—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.

ANALYSIS.

Words, added to either of the principal parts of a sentence to modify or limit its meaning, are called adjuncts.

Primary adjuncts are those added directly to either of the principal parts; as, "Good books

always deserve a careful perusal."

Secondary adjuncts are those added to other adjuncts; as, "Suddenly acquired wealth very rarely brings happiness."

Adjuncts are sometimes called modifications.

Obs. 1.—The subject or the object may be modified by different parts of speech; as, 1. By an article or adjective; as, "The diligent

^{*} There seems to be no good reason for joining an 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 a man,"—for, "An other such man."

scholar impreves." 2. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "William's sister has lost her book." 3. By a noun or pronoun, used merely for explanation; as, "His brother, Charles, is idle." 4. By a preposition and its object, used as an adjective; as, "The heavens declare the glory of God." 5. By a verb; as, "The desire to excel is laudable."

Obs. 2.—The predicate may be modified, 1. By an adverb; as, "The sun shines brightly." 2. By a preposition and its object, used

as an adverb; as, "He came from Boston.

Obs. 3.—The modifications enumerated are those of the simplest form. Others are mentioned and described as the pupil proceeds.

EXERCISE.—Analyze each sentence, pointing out first, the subject, the predicate, and the object, and secondly, the adjuncts of each; parse each word.

EXAMPLE. "The good scholar attentively studies his lessons."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

1. The subject is scholar; the predicate, studies; the object, lessons.

2. The adjuncts of the subject are the and good; the adjunct of the predicate is attentively; the adjunct of the object is his.

Many severe afflictions overtook that unfortunate man. suddenly lost all his property. Every person highly praised William's noble conduct. Cosar fought many great battles. Villiam has carelessly torn John's beautiful new book. The Athenians carefully observed Solon's wise laws. The queen has wisely proclaimed a general peace. John yesterday found Sarah's new book. That ferocious dog has severely bitten Charles's right arm. When will his brother return? Where did your kind father buy that interesting book? Always cheerfully obey your parents. Never neglect the smallest duty. This benevolent young lady kindly teaches many poor children. Twelve pence make one shilling. The English Reader was formerly much used. John has bought two entertaining books. The Russian ambassador has presented his credentials. His brother attends the Lutheran church. these bad boys deserve severe punishment. The traveller related many amusing incidents. This merchant has just returned from Europe. In winter, the snow covers the ground. The love of truth should be carefully cultivated. All the objects of nature deserve diligent study. Grammar teaches the right use of language.

CHAPTER V.—OF PRONOUNS.

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 antecedent, 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 itself, 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.

Obs. 1.—Who is asually applied to persons only; which, though formerly applied to persons, is now confined to animals and inani-

mate 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, etc.—"What man but enters, dies:" that is, Any man who, etc.—"What god but enters you forbidden field."—Pope. Indeed, it does not admit of being construed after a noun, as a simple relative. The compound whatever or whateverer has the same peculiarities of construction; as, "We will certainly do whatever 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

improve;" 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?"—Matt., 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.

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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 of the genders.

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

THOU, of the SECOND PERSON, any of the genders.

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

What, generally applied to things.

THAT, applied to persons, animals, and things.

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.

ANALYSIS.

When simple sentences are connected, they form compound or complex sentences, and are then called clauses.

A clause, therefore, is a division of a compound or a complex sentence. Compound or complex clauses are sometimes called *members*.

Clauses may be connected by conjunctions, relative

pronouns, or adverbs.

A clause, used as an adjunct, or as one of the principal parts of a sentence, is called a dependent clause.

^{*} Whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which, as, "A religion whose origin is divine."—Blasr.

The clause on which it depends, is called the *principal* clause.

A sentence composed of a principal and a dependent clause, is called a *complex sentence*.

When neither of the component clauses of a sentence is dependent, it is called a *compound sentence*.

A clause, introduced by a relative pronoun, is often called a *relative* clause; it may be dependent or independent.

Obs.—The sentence, "This is the man that committed the deed," is complex; because the relative clause is an adjunct of man, modifying it like an adjective; but "I gave the book to John, who has lost it," is a compound sentence, the relative clause not being an adjunct, but expressing an additional fact, and equivalent to "and he has lost it."

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE I.—State whether the sentence is complex or compound; separate it into its component clauses; analyze each as in the previous exercise.

Example.—"The messenger who was sent, has returned."

This is a complex declarative sentence; the principal clause is, The messenger has returned, and the dependent clause is, Who was sent, an adjunct of messenger; the connective word is who.

The subject of the principal clause is, messenger; the predicate is, hus returned; the adjuncts of the subject are the, and the relative clause, who was sent; the predicate has no adjuncts. The subject of the dependent clause, is who, and the predicate, sous sent; neither has any adjuncts.

Children who disobey their parents, deserve punishment. young man who embezzled his employer's money, was yesterday arrested. . Hatred stirreth up strifes, but love covereth all sins. He that walketh uprightly, walketh surely. Them that honor me I will honor. I immediately perceived the object which he pointed out. Who can respect a man that has lost his self-respect? Whoever dreads punishment, suffers it already. He imprudently reported what his friend told him. You may purchase whatever you need. What cannot be prevented must be endured. You should carefully avoid rudeness, which always excites ill-will. Cæsar, who conquered many nations, was assassinated. When spring returns, the trees resume their verdure. We always respect a man who scrupulously observes the truth. When my friend returns, I shall know all the facts. Washington was universally admired, because he faithfully served his country. Every one despised Benedict Arnold, who betrayed his country.

Exercise II.—Purse each word in the above sentences as in the previous exercise; state the class and modifications of the pronouns.

X CHAPTER VI.—OF VERBS.

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

Verbs are divided, with respect to their form, into four classés; regular, irregular, redundant, and defective.

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.

III. A redundant verb is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, thrive, thrived or throve, thriving, thrived or thriven.

IV. A defective verb is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, beware, ought, quoth.

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 again, with respect to their signification, into four classes; active-transitive, active-intransitive, 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."

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

MOODS.

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 the 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, and 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."

Obs.—A verb in any other mood than the infinitive, is called, by way of distinction, a finite verb.

TENSES.

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

There are six tenses; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfect, 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, or was occurring, in time fully past: as, "I saw him yesterday; he was walking out."

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."

Obs.—The tenses do not all express time with equal precision. Those of the indicative mood are in general the most definite. The time expressed by the same tenses (or what are called by the same names) in the other moods, is frequently relative, and sometimes indefinite. The present infinitive often expresses what is relatively future. The potential imperfect is properly an aorist: no definite time is usually implied in it. The subjunctive imperfect is also an aorist, or indefinite tense: it may refer to time past, present, or future.

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.

1st per. I love, 2d per. Thou lovest, 3d per. He loves; 1st per. We love, 2d per. You love, 3d per. They 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. of 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, hatis, 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; name-

ly, 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:

I. 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. Love.

Loved.

Loving.

Imperfect Participle. Perfect Participle. 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 :---

Singula r.	Plural.			
1st per. I love, 2d per. Thou lovest,	1st per. We love. 2d per. You love.			
3d per. He loves:	3d per. They love.			

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

Singular. 🗠	Plural.		
1. I do love,	1. We do love,		
2. Thou dost love,	2. You do love,		
3. He does love;	3. They 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:--

Singular.		lar.	Plural.		
1.	I	loved,	1.	We	loved,
2.	Thou	lovedst,			loved,
3.	He	loved;	3.	They	loved.

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

Singular.		:	Plural.				
1.	I	\mathbf{did}	love,	.*	1.	$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{e}$	did love,
2.	Thou	didst	love,		2.	You	did love,
R	HΔ	hih	love ·		2	Thev	did love

Perfect Tense.

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

i merbre . mins,—				
Singular.	Plural.			
1. I have loved,	1. We 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.		Plural.		
 I had Thou hadst He had 		2.	You	had loved, had loved, had loved.

First-future Tense.

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

1. Simply to express a future action or event:

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall love.	1 We shall love,
2. Thou wilt love,	2. You will love,
8. He will love;	3. They will love.
FTT	*4*

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

Singular.	Plural.
 I will love, Thou shalt love, He shall love; 	 We will love, You shall love, They shall love.

Second-future Tense.

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

Singular.	Plural.
 I shall have loved, Thou wilt have loved, He will have loved; 	 We shall have loved, You will have loved, They will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Singular.		Plural.		
 I may Thou mayst He may 	love,	2.	You	may love, may love, may love.

Imperfect Tense.

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

Plural.

Plural.

Plyral,

Singular.

- 1. We might love, 2. You might love, might love, 1. I
- 2. Thou mightst love, 3. He might love; 3. They might love.

Perfect Tense.

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

Singular.

I may have loved,
 Thou mayst have loved,
 You may have loved,
 He 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,

Singular.

- I might have loved,
 We might have loved,
 Thou mightst have loved,
 You might have loved,
 He might have loved;
 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 therefore considered by some grammarians as an elliptical form of the future.

Singular.				Plural.		
1.	If I	love,	1.	If we	love.	
	If thou			If you		
	If he		8	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 agrist, or indefinite tense, and may refer to time past, present, or future.

Singular.				Plural.		
L.	If I	loved,	1.	If we	loved,	
2.	If thou	loved,	2.	If you	loved,	
3.	If he	loved;		If they		

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

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

PARTICIPLES.

1. The Imperfect, Loving. 2. The Perfect, Loved.

3. The Preperfect. 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.

^{*} 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, If thou loved. Imp. Love [thou], or Do

To avoid an unnecessary increase of syllables, the formation of the second person singular of the present tense, is also ir ome degree simplified, and rendered closely analogous to that of the third person singular; st or est being added for the former exactly as s or es is added for the latter; as, I know, thou knows, he knows; I read, thou reads, he reads; I take, thou takes, he takes; I bid, thou bidst, he bids; I pils, thou pitiest, he pities. Thus there is no increase of syllables, when he verb ends with a sound which will unite with that of the letters added.—See Inst. of E. Gram., p. 56.

This method of forming the verb accords with the practice of the most intelligent This method of forming the verb accords with the practice of the most intelligent of those who retain the common use of this distinctive and consistent mode of address. It disencumbers their familiar dialect of a multitude of barsh and useless terminations, which serve only, when uttered, to give an uncouth prominency to words not often emphatic; and, without impairing the strength or perspicuity 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 Rhetoric, R. II, Oh. 44, Sec. 3, Canon Sketh.

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. Subj. 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.

Second Person Plural.

IND. 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 Participle.
See. Saw. Seeing. Seen.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To see. Perfect Tense. To have seen.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plur	al.
1. I	see.	1. We	see.
2. Thou	seest,	2. You	
8. He		3. They	

Imperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural. saw, 1. We saw, 2. You saw, 3. They saw. 2. Thou sawest, 3. He 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.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I had seen,
2. You had seen,
3. When had seen,
3. When had seen. 3. He had seen; 3. They had seen.

First-future Tense.

Plural. Singular. 1. 1 shall see, 2. Thou wilt see, 1. We shall see, 2. You will see, 3. He will see; 3. They will see.

Singular.

Singular.

Plural.

1. I shall have seen,
2. Thou wilt have seen,
will have seen;
3. They will have seen.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense. Plural. Singular. 1. We may see, 2. You may see, 1. I may see, 2. Thou mayst see, 8. He may see; 3. They may see.

Imperfect Tense.

	Den	yquu.				1 carao.
1.	I	might	see,			might see,
2.	Thou	mightst	see,			might see,
8.	\mathbf{He}	might	see;	3.	They	might see.

Plural.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

may have seen, 1. We may have seen. 2. You may have seen, 2. Thou mayst have seen,

3. They may have seen. 3. He may have seen:

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

might have seen. might have seen, 1. We 2. Thou mightst have seen, 2. You might have seen,

might have seen: 3. They might have seen. 3. He

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Plural.

Singular. 1. If T 1. If we see. see,

2. If thou see, 2. If you see, S. If he 3. If they see. see;

Imperfect Tense.

Plural. Singular.

1. If I saw, 1. If we saw, 2. If thou saw, 2. If you saw,

3. If they saw. 3. If he 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. Seeing.

2. The Perfect. Seen.

3. The Preperfect. Having seen.

THIRD EXAMPLE.

Conjugation of the irregular neuter verb

BE.

Principal Parts.

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

INFINITIVE MOOD.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.		Plural.		
1. I	am,	1.	We	are,
2. Thou	art,	2.	You	are,
8. He		3.	They	are

Imperfect Tense.

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

Perfect Tense.

sıngul ar.		Piurai.		
1. I have		1. We ha		
2. Thou hast		2. You ha	ve been,	
8. He has	been;	3. They ha	ave been.	

Pluperfect Tense.

singular.		Piurai.		
1. I had 2. Thou hadst 8. He had	been,	2. You	had been, had been, had been.	

First-future Tense.

Singular.	\boldsymbol{P}	lural.
1. I shall b 2. Thou wilt b 8. He will b	. 2. You	shall be, will be, will be.

Second-future Tense.

singular.			Piurai.			
	hall have		We			
2. Thou w			You	will	have	been,
8. He v	vill have	been: 3.	They	will	have	been.

^{*} Wort is sometimes used indicatively for societ; as, "Vainly seers then wed."—Agree. "Whate'er then art or seers."—Id.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be,	1. We may be,
2. Thou mayst be,	2. You may be,
8. He may be:	3. They may be

Imperfect Tense.

zoneg u our s	A 1001 000
1. I might be,	1. We might be,
2. Thou mightst be,	2. You might be,
8. He might he:	3. They might be.

Perfect Tense.

Plural.

zing war.				2 00.00.				
	may							been,
2. Thou:	mayst	have	been,	2.	You	may	have	been,
3. He	may	have	been;	3.	They	may	have	been.

Pluperfect Tense.

singular.				Piurai.				
	might			1.	We	might	have	been,
	mightst			2.	You	might	have	been,
3. He	might	have	been;	3.	They	might	have	been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were, 2. If thou wert, or were, 8. If he were;	1. If we were, 2. If you were, 3. 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 Preperfect. 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.

Present. Preterit. Imperfect Participle. Perfect Participle. Rēad. Rēad. Rěad.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am reading,
2. Thou art reading,
3. He is reading;
3. They are reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. 1 was reading,
2. Thou wast reading,
3. He was reading;
3. They were reading.

Perfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

- have been reading, 1. We have been reading,
- 2. Thou hast been reading, 2. You have been reading, 3. He has been reading; 3. They have been reading.

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

- had been reading, 1. We had been reading.
- 2. Thou hadst been reading, 2. You had been reading, 3. He had been reading; 3. They had been reading.

First-future Tense.

Plural. Singular.

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

Second-future Tense.

- Singular. 1. I shall have been reading,
 - 2. Thou wilt have been reading.
 - 3. He will have been reading:
- 1. We shall have been reading, 2. You will have been reading, Plural.

 - 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, 2. You may be reading,
- 8. He may be reading: 3. They may be reading.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular, Plural.

- might be reading, 1. We might be reading,
- Thou mightst be reading,
 You might be reading,
 He might be reading;
 They might be reading.

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

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- I may have been reading,
 Thou mayst have been reading,
- 3. He may have been reading;

- Plural.
- 1. We may have been reading,
- 2. You may have been reading,
- 3. They may have been reading.

Pluperfèct Tense.

- Singular.
- 1. I might have been reading, 2. Thou mightst have been reading,
- 3. He might have been reading:
- 5. He might have been reading
- Plural. 1. We might have been reading,
 - 2. You might have been reading, 3. They might have been reading.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

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

Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

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

##PERATIVE 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. Being reading.
- 2. The Perfect.
- 8. The Preperfect. 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

PART II.

selling; The ships are building." and the perfect participle of an active-intransitive verb, may have a neuter signification: as, "I am come; 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. To be loved, Perfect Tense. To have been loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.
am loved, 1. We are loved,

1. I am loved, 1. We are loved, 2. Thou art loved, 2. You are loved,

3. He is leved, 3. They are loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

1. I was loved, 1. We were loved,

2. Thou wast loved, 3. He was loved; 2. You were loved, 3. They were loved.

Perfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

1. I have been loved, 1. We have been loved,

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

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

1. I had been loved, 1 We had been loved,

2. Thou hadst been loved, 2. You had been loved,

3. He had been loved; 3. They had been loved.

First-future Tense.

Singular. Plural.

I. I shall be loved, 1. We shall be loved,

2. Thou wilt be loved, 2. You will be loved,

3. He will be loved; 3. They will be loved.

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Second-future Tense.

1. I shall have been loved, Singular. 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.

Singular. Plural.

may be loved, 1. We may be loved, 2. You may be loved,

2. Thou mayst be loved, 3. He may be loved: 3. They may be loved.

Imperfect Tense.

Singular. Plural.

might be loved, 1. We might be loved, 2. Thou mightst be loved, 2. You might be loved,

3. He might be loved; 3. They might be loved.

Perfect Tense.

1. I may have been loved, Singular. 2. Thou mayst have been loved,

3. He may have been loved;

1. We may have been loved, Plural.2. You may have been loved,

3. They may have been loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

might have been loved, Singular. 1. I

2. Thou mightst have been loved,

3. He might have been loved;

1. We might have been loved, Plural.

2. You might have been loved,

3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. Plural.

1. If I 1. If we be loved. be loved, 2. If thou be loved,

2. If you be loved, 3. If they be loved. 8. If he be loved;

Plural

_ _ _

Imperfect Tense.
Singular.

1. If I were loved, 1. If we were loved,

2. If thou wert loved, 2. If you were loved,

3. If he were loved; 3. If they were loved,

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.

1. The Imperfect.

2. The Perfect.

8. The Preperfect.

Being loved.

Loved.

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 love, 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 loved. Suss. If I love not, If I loved not. Park. Not loving, Not loved, 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? Por. 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?

VI. FORM OF QUESTION WITH NEGATION.

A verb is conjugated interrogatively and negatively, 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; as, see, saw, seeing, seen.

Obs.—The simple irregular verbs, about 110 in number, are nearly all monosyllables. The following is a list of them, as they are now generally used.

LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VEPRS.

Present.	Preterit.	Imperf. Part.	Perfect Participle.
Arise.	arose,	arising.	arisen.
Be,	was,	being,	been.
Bear,	bore or bare,	bearing.	borne or born.*
Beat,	beat,	beating,	beaten o- heat.
Begin,	began or begun.	beginning.	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beholding.	beheld.
Beset,	beset,	besetting.	beset.
Bid,	bid or bade.	bidding.	bidden <i>or</i> rid
Bind,	bound,	binding.	bound.
Bite,	bit,	biting.	bitten <i>or</i> bit.
Bleed,	bled.	bleeding.	bled.
Break,	broke,	breaking.	broken.
Breed,	bred,	breeding.	bred.
Bring,	brought,	bringing,	brought.
Buy,	bought,	buving.	brought. bought.
Cast,	cast,	casting.	cast.
Chide,	cast, chid,	chiding.	chidd en <i>or</i> chid
Choose,	chose,	choosing.	chosen.
Cleave.†	cleft or clove,	cieaving,	cleft or cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clinging,	clung.
Come,	came,	coming.	come.
Cost,	cost,	costing,	cost.
Cut,	cut,	cutting,	cut.
Do,	did,	doing,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawing.	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drinking.	drunk <i>or</i> drank.
Drive,	drove,	driving.	driven.
Eat,	ate <i>or</i> čat,	eating.	eaten <i>or</i> eat.
Fall,	féll,	falling.	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	feeding.	fed.
Feel.	felt,	feeling,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fighting.	fought.
Find.	found,	finding,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fleeing,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flinging,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flying,	flown.

^{*} Borne signifies carried; born signifies brought forth.
† Cleave, to split, is irregular, as above; cleave, to stick, is regular, but cleave was formerly used in the preterit, for cleaved.

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Present. Preterit Forbear. forbore. Forsake. forsook. Get. got. Give. gave. Go, went, grew, Grow, Have. Hear. heard. Hide. hid, Hit, Hold, hit, held. Hurt. hurt, Keep, kept. Know, knew. Lead. led, Leave, left. Lend. lent. Let, let. Lie, (to rest,) lay, Lose, lost, made, Make, Meet. met. outdid. Outdo, Put, put, read. Read Rend. rent, Rid, rid, Ride. rode. Ring, rung or rang, Rise, rose, Run, ran or run. Say, said. See, 88W, Seek. sought, Sell, sold. Send. sent, Set, set, Shed. shed. Shoe. shod. Shoot, shot, Shut, shuť. shred. Shred. Shrink. shrunk or shrank. Sing, Sink, sung or sang, sunk or sank, . Sit, sat, Slay, slew, Sling, slung, Slink, slunk. Smite, smote. Speak, spoke, Spend, spent, Spin, spun, Spit, spit or spat. Spread, spread, Spring, sprung or sprang, Stand, stood, Steal, stole, Stick, stuck, Sting, stung,

Stride.

trike,

strode or strid.

struck,

Perfect Participle. Imperf. Part. for bearing, forborne. forsaking, forsaken. getting, got or gotten. ğiven. giving, gone. going, grown. growing, having, heard. hearing. hiding, hidden or hid. hitting, hit. held or holden. holding. hurting, hurt. keeping, kept. knowing. known. led. leading. leaving, left. lending, lent. letting. let. lving, lain. losing, lost. making, made. meeting, met. outdoing. outdone. put. putting. reading. read. rending. rent. ridding, rid. riding, ridden or rode. ringing, rung. rising, risen. running. run. saying, said. seeing, RAAN. seeking. sought. selling, sold. sending, sent. setting, set. shedding, shed. shoeing, shod. shooting, shot. shutting, shut. shredding, shred. shrinking, shrunk or shrunken. singing, sinking, sung. sitting, sat. slaying, alain. slung. slinging, slinking, smiting. smitten or smit. speaking. apoken. spending, spent. spinning, spun. spitting, spit or spitten. spreading, spread. springing, sprung. standing, stood. stealing, stolen. sticking, stuck. stinging, stung. striding. stridden or strid. striking. struck or stricken.

Present. Preterit. Imperf. Part. Perfect Participle. swearing, Swear. swore, SWOTH. swum or swam. swimming, Swim. swum. Swing. swung or swang. swinging, swung. Take, taking, taken. Teach, taught, teaching, taught. Tear, tearing, tore, torn. telling, Tell. told. told. Think. thought. thought. thinking, Thrust, thrust. thrusting, thrust. trod, treading, trodden or trod. Tread. Wear, wore, wearing, worn. Win, won, winning, won. Write. writing. wrote. written.

REDUNDANT VERBS.

A redundant verb is a verb that forms the preterit or the perfect participle in two or more ways, and so as to be both regular and irregular; as, thrive, thrived or throve, thriving, thrived or thriven.

Obs.—Of this class of verbs, there are about ninety-five, beside sundry derivatives and compounds. The following table exhibits them as they are now generally used, or as they may be used without grammatical impropriety. The preferable forms are placed first.

LIST OF THE REDUNDANT VERBS.

Present. Protorit. Abide. abode or abided, Awake. awaked or awoke, Belay, belayed or belaid. Bend. bent or bended. Bereave. bereft or bereaved. Beseech. besought or beseeched. Bet, betted or bet. Betide, betided or betid, Bide, bode or bided. Blend. blended or blent, Bless, blessed or blest, Blow blew or blowed, Build. built or builded. burned or burnt, Burn, Burst, burst or bursted. Catch, eaught or catched, Clothe. clothed or clad. Creep, crept or creeped, Crow, crowed or crew, cursed or curst, Curse, Dare, dared or durst, Deal, dealt or dealed, Dig, dug or digged, dived or dove, Dive, Dream, dreamed or dreamt. Dress. dressed or drest. Dwell. dwelt or dwelled, Freeze, froze or freezed,

awaking, belaying, bending, bereaving, beseeching, betting, betiding, biding, blending, blessing, blowing, building, burning, bursting, catching, clothing, creeping, crowing, cursing, daring, dealing, digging, diving, dreaming, dressing, dwelling,

freezing,

Imperf. Part. Perfect Participle. abiding, abode or abided. awaked or awoke. belayed or belaid. bent or bended. bereft or bereaved. besought or beseeched. betted or bet. betided or betid. bode or bided. blended or blent. blessed or blest. blown or blowed. built or builded. burned or burnt. burst or bursted. caught or catched. clothed or clad. crept or creeped. crowed. cursed or curst. dared. dealt or dealed. dug or digged. dived or diven. dreamed or dreamt. dressed or drest. dwelt or dwelled. frozen or freezed.

Present. Geld, Gild. Gird, Grave, Grind. Hang, Heat, Heave. Hew, Kneel, Knit. Lade, laded, Lay, Lean, Leap, Learn, Light. Mean, Mow, Mulct. Pass, Pay, Pen, (to coop), penned or pent, Plead. Prove, Quit, Rap, Reave, rived, Rive, Roast, Saw, Seethe. Shake, Shape, Shave, Shear, Shine, Show, Sleep, Slide, Slit, Smell, Sow, Speed. Spell, Spill, Split. Spoil, Stave, Stay, String, Strive. Strow, Sweat, Sweep, Swelf. Thrive, Throw, Wake, Wax, Weave, Wed.

Protorit gelded or gelt, gilded or gilt, girded or girt, graved. ground or grinded, hung or hanged, heated or het. heaved or hove. hewed, kneeled or knelt, knit or knitted. laid or layed. leaned or leant. leaped or leapt. learned or learnt, lighted or lit, meant or meaned. mowed, mulcted or mulct. passed or past, paid or payed, pleaded or pled, proved, quitted or quit, rapped or rapt, reft or reaved. roasted or roast. sawed, seethed or sod, shook or shaked. shaped, shaved sheared or shore, shined or shone, showed, slept or sleeped, slid or slided, slitted or slit, smelled or smelt, sowed, sped or speeded, spelled or spelt, spilled or spilt, split or splitted. spoiled or spoilt, stove or staved, staid or stayed. strung or stringed, strived or strove. strowed, sweated or sweat swept or sweeped, swelled, thrived or throve. threw or throwed. waked *or* woke, waxed, wove or weaved, wedded or wed.

gelding. gilding, girding, graving, grinding, hanging, heating, heaving. hewing, kneeling, knitting, lading, laying, leaning, leaping, learning, lighting. meaning. mowing. mulcting, passing, paying, penning. pleading, proving, quitting, rapping, reaving, riving, roasting, sawing, seething, shaking, shaping, shaving, shearing, shining, showing, sleeping, sliding, slitting, smelling, sowing, spelling, spilling, splitting, spoiling, staving, staying, stringing, striving, strowing, sweating, sweeping, swelling, thriving, throwing, waking, waxing, weaving. wedding,

Imperf. Part, Perfect Participle, gelded or gelt. gilded or gilt. girded or girt. graved or graven. ground or grinded. hung or hanged. heated or het. heaved or hoven. hewed or hewn. kneeled or knelt. knit or knitted. laded or laden. laid or layed. leaned or leant. leaped or leapt. learned or learnt. lighted or lit. meant or meaned. mowed or mown. mulcted or mulct. passed or past. paid or payed. penned or pent. pleaded or pled. proved or proven. quitted or quit. rapped or rapt. reft or reaved. riven or rived. roasted or roast. sawed or sawn. seethed or sodden. shaken or shaked. shaped or shapen. shaved or shaven. sheared or shorn. shined or shone. showed or shown. slept or sleeped. slidden, slid or slided. slitted or slit. smelled or smelt. sowed or sown. sped or speeded. spelled or spelt. spilled or spilt. split or splitted. spoiled or spoilt. stove or staved. staid or stayed. strung or stringed. strived or striven. strowed or strown. sweated or sweat. swept or sweeped. swelled or swollen. thrived or thriven. thrown or throwed. waked or woke. waxed or waxen. woven or weaved. wedded or wed.

Present. Weep, Wet, Whet, Wind, Wont, Work, Wring,	Present. we't or weeped, wet or wetted, whetted or whet, wound or winded, wont or wouted, worked or wrought, wringed or wrung,	Imperf. Part. weeping, wetting, whetting, winding, wonting, working, wringing,	Perfect Participla. Wept or weeped. Wet or wetted. Whetted or whet. Wound or winded. Work or wrought. Wringed or wrung.
	X		

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

A defective verb is a verb that forms no participles, and is used in but few of the moods and tenses; as, beware, ought, quoth.

Obs.—When any of the principal parts of a verb are wanting, the tenses usually derived from those parts are also, of course, wanting. All the auxiliaries, except do, be, and have, are defective; but, as auxiliaries, they become parts of other verbs, and do not need the parts which are technically said to be "wanting." The following brief catalogue contains all our defective verbs, except methinks, with its preterit methought, which is not only defective; but impersonal, irregular, and deservedly obsolescent.

LIST OF THE DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Present.	Preterit.	Present.	Protorit.
Beware,	 ,	Shall.	should.
Can,	could.	Will,	would.
Mav.	might.	Quoth,	quoth.
Must.	must.	Wis.	wist.
Ought,	ought.	Wit,	wot.

CHAPTER VII.—OF PARTICIPLES.

A Participle is a word derived from a verb, participating the properties of a verb, and of an adjective or a noun; 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 Preperfect.*

I. The Imperfect participle is that which ends commonly in ing, and 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 ends, commonly in ed or en, and implies a completion of the being, action, or passion; as, been, loved, seen.

written.

III. The Preperfect participle is that which takes the sign having, and 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 simple, 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 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 lists as being

irregular or redundanta

The Third or Preperfect 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 spoken, having been speaking.

Obs. 1.—Participles often become adjectives, and are construed before nouns to denote quality. The terms so converted form the class of participial adjectives. Words of a participial form, may be regarded as adjectives: 1. When they denote something customary

^{*} 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; and remarks still more extended in the Grammar of English Grammars, pp. 892-897.

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 ought to take no regimen, or object after them. 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 corresponds with the Latin gerund.

Obs. 8.—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, as such, do not. 2. Nouns may govern the possessive case, but not the objective; participles may govern the objective case, but not the possessive. 8. 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. 4.—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 par-

ticiple; but loved for did love, is a preterit verb.

✓ ANALYSIS.

An adjective, participle, noun, or pronoun, modifying the predicate of a sentence and relating to the subject, is called an *attribute*; as, "Gold is *yellow*."—"Cain was a *murderer*."—"The sun is *shining*."

- Obs. 1.—The verb that connects the subject and the attribute, must be active-intransitive, passive, or neuter. It is sometimes called the *copula*, because it *couples* or joins the other principal parts of the sentence
- Obs. 2.—The verb be generally affirms only the connection between the subject and the attribute. When the latter is a noun, it may express 1. Ulass; as, "Uain was a murderer." 2. Identity; as, "Cain was the murderer of Abel." 3. Name; as, "The child was called John."
 - Obs. 8.—Class, identity, name, or quality may be attributed to

the subject in various ways; as, 1. By affirming directly a connection, as in the preceding examples; 2. By affirming it to belong to the subject, in connection with a particular act or state of being; as, "She looked a goddess, and she walked a queen."—"The sun stood still." + 3. By affirming a connection, but not its previous existence; as, "He has become a scholar." 4. By affirming not only the connection, but the cause or manner by which it was established; as, "He was elected President."—"The twig has grown a tree."

Obs. 4.—The attribute is often used indefinitely, that is, without reference to any particular subject; as, "To be good is to be happy."

—"To be a poet requires genius." In analyzing, this may be called the indefinite attribute.

Obs. 5.—The attribute, when a noun or a pronoun, is in the same case as the subject; as, "It is I, be not afraid."

In analyzing a sentence, the attribute should be considered one of the principal parts.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

EXERCISE 1.—Analyze the following sentences as in the preceding exercises, and point out the attributes and their adjuncts.

EXAMPLE.—"Filial ingratitude is a shameful crime."

This is a simple declarative sentence; the subject is ingratitude; the predicate is is; and the attribute, crime. The adjunct of the subject is fillal; the predicate has ne adjuncts; the adjuncts of the attribute are a and shameful.

"Honesty is the best policy. Napoleon was a great general. Washington was a true patriot. He was elected the first president. The Bible is God's holy word. New York is a great commercial city. My brother has been appointed inspector. Aristides was styled the Just. Peter the Great, who built St. Petersburgh, was a remarkable man. He returned a friend, who came a foe. The flowers which my sister plucked yesterday, still remain fresh. long, and time is fleeting. Can that be the man who deceived me? He might have been guilty, but no sufficient proof could be found. Virtue is bold, and Goodness never fearful. Frequent and loud were the maiden's cries. How gorgeous seems the setting sun! What evil is this, which he had committed?, Thomas Jefferson, who wrote the Declaration, was the third president. was taken prisoner. Religious instruction is very necessary in Vicious habits infallibly lead to ruin. In spring, the weather becomes warm. David the Psalmist was King of Israel. John the Baptist was the forerunner of Christ. John Smith was exploring Virginia, when he was taken prisoner. That office is considered by some a sinecure. The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want. Who is this King of glory? He that loveth pleasure, shall be a poor man. The wise in heart shall be called prudent.

The seed which was planted, has become a huge tree. Everything that we do often, we do easily Repeated acts thus become habits. Habit has been called "second nature." The memory of mischief is no desirable fame. We, who never were his favorites, did not expect these attentions. A crown of glory are his hoary locks! I would abt the same part if I were he. A lie is an intention to deceive. The scholar who plays truant, is guilty of falsehood; because he deceives his parents. Prompting during recitation is another example of falsehood.

EXERCISE II.—Parse each word in the above sentences as in the previous exercises; state in addition the class and modifications of the perbs.

CHAPTER VIII.—OF ADVERBS.

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? How long? How soon? or How often? including these which ask. 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.
 - 8. 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, etc.

- II. Adverbs of place, are those which answer to the question, Where ? Whither? Whence? or Whereabout? including these which ask. 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? How little? or, to the idea of more or less. Adverbs of degree may be subdivided as follows:

- 1. Of excess or abundance: as, Much, chiefly, fully. 2. 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, by affirming, denying, or doubting, show how a subject is regarded. Adverbs of manner may be subdivided as follows :--

- 1. Of quality: as, Well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, and many others formed by adding by to adjectives of quality.
- 2. Of affirmation: as, Yes, yea, verily, truly, indeed, surely.
- 3. Of negation: as, No, nay, not, nowise.
- 4. Of doubt: as, Perhaps, haply, possibly, perchance.
- 5. Of mode: as, Thus, so, somehow, like, else, otherwise.
 6. 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, etc.

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 adverbs more and most, less and least, before them: as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely,-culpably, less culpably, least culpably. But 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.



CHAPTER IX.—OF CONJUNCTIONS.

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."—Mur.

CLASSES.

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes, copulative and disjunctive; and some of each of these sorts are corresponsive.

I. 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."

II. 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.

III. The corresponsive conjunctions are those which are used in pairs, so that one refers or answers to an other: as, "John came neither eating nor drinking."—Matt., xi, 18.

The following are the principal conjunctions:

1. Copulative; And, as, both, because, even, for, if, that, then, since, seeing, so.

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

3. Corresponsive; Both—and; as—as; as—so; if—then; either—or; neither—nor; whether—or; though, or although—yet.

CHAPTER X.—OF PREPOSITIONS.

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.

The following, are the principal prepositions: Aboard, about, above, 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;—notwithstanding;—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 class of conjunctions also.

CHAPTER XI.—OF INTERJECTIONS.

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! ah! eh! +6. Contempt; pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! tut!—7. Aversion; foh! fie! off! begone! avaunt!—8. Calling aloud; ho! soho! hollo!—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!

ANALYSIS.

The principal parts of a sentence are the SUB-JECT, the PREDICATE, and the OBJECT OF ATTRIBUTE, if there be either.

The other parts may be, 1. Primary or secondary adjuncts; 2. Words used to express relation or connection; 3. Independent words.

Adjuncts, as to their nature, are adjective, ad-

verbial, or explanatory.

Adjuncts are adjective or adverbial when they are used as adjectives or adverbs.

Explanatory adjuncts are those used to explain

a preceding noun or pronoun; as, "The emperor Napoleon."—"Paul the Apostle."—"We, the people of the United States.

Adjuncts, as to their form, are words, phrases,

or clauses.

A phrase is two or more words which express some relation of ideas, but no entire proposition; as, "Of a good disposition."—"By the means appointed."—"Having loved his own."

A phrase may be used in three ways; namely, 1. As one of the principal parts of a sentence;

2. As an adjunct; 3. It may be independent.
When a phrase is used as an adjunct, it is ad-

jective, adverbial, or explanatory.

A phrase, used in the place of a noun, is called a substantive phrase; as, "To do good is the duty of all."

An independent phrase is one the principal part of which, is not related to, or connected with, any word in the rest of the sentence; as, "He failing, who shall meet success?"

The principal part of a phrase is that on which all the others depend; as, "Under every misfortune."—"Having exhausted every expedient."

Obs. 1.—A preposition that introduces a phrase, serves only to express the relation between the principal part, and the word of the sentence, on which the phrase depends.

Obs. 2.—Phrases are also classified as to their form, depending upon the introducing word, or the principal part; thus:

1. A phrase, introduced by a preposition, is called a prepositional phrase; as, "By doing good."-" Of great learning.

2. A phrase, the principal part of which is a verb in the infinitive mood, is called an infinitive phrase; as, "To be good."

3. A phrase, the principal part of which is a participle, is called a participial phrase; as, "A measure founded on justice."

Obs. 3.—A phrase, used as a subject or object, can, with strict adherence to grammatical rules, be only infinitive in form; as, "To disobey parents is disgraceful."-" William loves to study grammar." (See Obs. 4, Rule XIV.)

Obs. 4.—A phrase, used as an attribute, may be substantive or adjective in its nature, and may be, in form,

1. Infinitive; as, "The object of punishment is to reform the guilty."-" His conduct is to be admired." In the second example it is adjective, being equivalent to admirable.

2. Prepositional; as, "He is in good health."-"The train was

behind time." These are adjective phrases.

Obs. 5.—An adjective phrase may have the following forms:

1. Prepositional; as, "Carelessness in the use of money is a vice."

2. Infinitive; as, "The desire to do good is praiseworthy."

3. Participial; as, "Seeing the danger, he avoided it."

Obs. 6.—An adverbial phrase may have the following forms:

1. Prepositional; as, "He was industrious in study."

2. Infinitive; as, "Be swift to hear, and slow to speak."
3. Idiomatic; as, "In vain."—"Day by day."—"By and by."

Obs. 6.—An explanatory phrase is substantive in its nature, and infinitive in form; as, "It is pleasant to see the sun."

Obs. 7.—The independent phrase is various in form and character-It may be distinguished as.

1. Infinitive: as, "To be candid, I was in fault."

2. Participial; as, "Considering the circumstances, much creditis due."

8. Vocative; as, "Boast not, my dear friend, of to-morrow."

4. Pleonastic; as, "The blessing of the Lord, it maketh rich."

5. Absolute; "The sun rising, the mists were dispersed."

Obs. 8.—The last form of this phrase is generally advertial in meaning, being independent only in construction.

EXERCISE.—Analyze the following sentences, and point out the explanatory adjuncts and the phrases; parse each word as in the preceding exercises.

Example.—"Diogenes, the Greek philosopher, lived in a tub."

This is a simple declarative sentence; the subject is *Diogenes*; the predicate, *Used*; *philosopher* is an explanatory adjunct of the subject; the and Greek are adjuncts of *philosopher*. The adjunct of *Used* is the adverbial phrase, in a tub. The principal part of the phrase is tub, of which a is an adjunct.

The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters among the flowers. Mahomet was a native of Mecca, a city in Arabia. The Cabots, natives of Venice, were the first discoverers of North America. Spain was, at one time, the wealthiest country of Europe. In the path of life, no one is constantly regaled with flowers. Industry is needful in every condition of life: the price of all improvement is labor. In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, in-The book which William has lost, was a present vaded France. from his brother Henry. When Alfred the Great ascended the throne of England, he was greatly harassed by the Danes, a piratical people from Scandinavia. A brave man, he would not wantonly injure others.

PART III.

Da Horry

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 another, to cause it to assume some particular modification.

The arrangement of words, is their collocation,

or relative position, in a sentence.

The leading principles to be observed in the construction of sentences, or to be applied in their analysis by Syntactical Parsing, are embraced in the following twenty-six Rules of Syntax.

CHAPTER I.—OF RELATION AND AGREEMENT.

RULE I.—ARTICLES.

Articles relate to the nouns 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 the 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 articles ever relate to one and the same noun.

Obs. 8.—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 sheep. Here also the article relates only to the adjective; unless few, hundred, etc., 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 a, 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 finite 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."—Johnson. "What

is written in the law."-Bible.

Obs. 3.—But, in the following nine 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?"—Hooke.
 - 2. When the verb is in the imperative mood; as, "Go thou."
- 8. 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."—Bible.

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

" Echo the mountains round."—Thompson.

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 stranger, 'is Hassan.'"—Johnson.

9. When the adverb there precedes the verb; as, "There lived a

man."-Montgomery. "There needs no proof of this."

RULE III.—Apposition.

A Noun or a personal Pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in 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. Inparsing, the rule of apposition should be applied only to the explanatory term; for the case of the principal word depends on its relation to the rest of the sentence, and comes under some other

rule.

Obs. 2.—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."—Isciah, 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. "Righteousness 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. 3.—The explanatory word is sometimes placed first, espe-

cially among the poets; as,

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

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

Obs. 4.—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 Tooks.

Obs. 5.—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 im-

plied, and the apposition is destroyed.

Obs. 6.—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."

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 having the force of nouns. 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."—Pops.

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 parsing, 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 reciprocal expression, one an other, should not be applied to two objects, nor each other, or one the other, to more than two: because reciprocity between two is some act or relation of each or one to the other, which is an objective definite, and not of one to an other, which is indefinite; but reciprocity among three or more is of one, each, or every one, not to one other, solely, or to the other, definitely, but to others, a plurality, or to an other, taken indefinitely and implying this plurality.

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 often 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, by a sort of 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. Gramm., pp. 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 the third person, singular, neuter: as, "She is

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

Obs. 5.—The pronoun it is often used without a definite reference to any antecedent; and, still more frequently, it refers to something mentioned in the subsequent part of the sentence. This pronoun is a necessary expletive 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 singular, 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 favour 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 finite 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 ap-

purtenances, 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, don't, won't, can't, shan't, and didn't, in preaching.

Obs. 5.—The nominative to a verb in the imperative mood, is generally omitted; as, "Guide [thou] my lonely way." With the verb in all the other personal tenses, the nominative must be expressed: except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction; as, "They bud, blow, wither, fall, and die."

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,

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 save; as, "Casar, 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 auxillary, 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 to my father and me." But in confessing a fault he may assume the first 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 at

tended 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 and 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 oan destroy."—Pope.
"Some are, and must be, greater than the rest."—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 else 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 "nlawful."—"Rebellion is rising against government." This mon-

el 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 unskillfully laid it down as a 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

negatives 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 meaning: "He hath grieved me but in part."

Obs. 6.—We sometimes find adverbs used after the manner of nouns; as, "The Son of Man hath not where to lay 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 now does always last." -Oowley.

RILE 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 units 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 ap-

position; 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, etc."—"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.

Obs. 7.—When two corresponding conjunctions occur, in their usual order, the former should be parsed as referring to the latter, which is more properly the connecting word; as, "Neither sun nor

stars in many days appeared."—Acts, xxvii, 20.

Obs. 8.—Either, corresponding to or, and neither, corresponding to nor or not, are sometimes transposed, so as to repeat the disjunction or negation at the end of the sentence; as, "Where then was their capacity of standing, or his either."—Barclay. very tall, but not too tall neither."—Spectator.

RULE XVII.—PREPOSITIONS.

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

Obs. 1.—In parsing any ordinary preposition, the learner should name the two terms of the relation, and apply the foregoing rule. 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."—Hebrews, 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 dignified, and, in general, more graceful, to place the preposition before the pronoun; as, "To whom did he sneak?"

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

against Westminster-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!"

CHAPTER II.—OF 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; 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 conjunctions, or put in apposition, the sign of possession must al-

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

ways 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 sometimes omitted, and the apostrophe only retained; as, "For conscience' sake."—"Moses' minister."—"Felix' room."—"Achilles' wrath." But in prose this ellision 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 unpleasant repetition of either.

RULE XX.—OBJECTIVES.

Active-transitive verbs, and their imperfect and preperfect 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."—Cowper.—"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 fore 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 3d.]

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 2d; and the other nominative, however placed, belongs after the verb, by Rule 21st.

Obs. 8.—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 preperfect: as, "On opening

the trial, they accused him of having defrauded them."

Obs. 2.—Prepositions are sometimes elliptically construed with adjectives; 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 4th.]

Obs. 3.—In a few instances, prepositions precede adverbs; as at once, from above, for ever. These should be united if the terms are 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 [40] yender copse."—" Nigh [40] 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 dollar."—"It is worth mentioning." But, after a careful examination of the term, we know no reason why worth should be called an adjective, rather than a preposition governing the word which follows it.

Obs. 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, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition To; as, "If he bade thee depart, how darest thou stay?"

Obs. 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, hear, make, and see; as, "I heard the letter read."

not. "be read."

BULE 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.

Obs. 1.—A noun or 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,

Shame to be overcome or overreach'd, Would utmost vigor 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 pleonasm, 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;

88,

"Oh! deep enchanting prelude to repose,
The dawn of bliss, the twilight of our woes!"—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

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.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

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

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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."

CHAPTER III.—EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

Designed to exercise the pupil in applying practically the Rules of Syntax liable to be violated. To be corrected orally.

LESSON I.—UNDER RULE II.—NOMINATIVES.

1. Thee must have been idle.

[FORMULE.—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 finite verb, must be in the nominative case." Therefore, thee should be thou; thus, Thou must have been idle.]

- 2. Him that loiters by the way, may be belated.
- 3. Them that labour, should be rewarded.
- 4. Us who are spared, ought to be thankful.
- 5. You and me are equally concerned.
- 6. Are not thee and him related?
- My brother is older than me.
 He cannot read so well as thee.
- 9. Who fastened the door? Me.
- 10. Whom do you suppose did it?

LESSON II.—Under Rule III.—Apposition.

1. I have heard from my cousin, she that was here last week.

[Formule.—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.]

- 2. That was the tailoress, her that made my clothes.
- 3. I saw your friend, he that was here last winter.
- 4. Dennis, the gardener, him that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

LESSON III.—Under Rule V.—Prònouns.

1. Ought not every man to be careful of their reputation?

[FORMULE.—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, "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?

2. Every one must judge of their own feelings.—Byron.

8. We may be displeased with a person without hating them.

4. I poured water on the embers to quench it.

5. Ask her for the scissors, and bring it to me.

6. He had sown the oats, and it had already sprung up.

LISSON IV.—UNDER RULE VI.—PRONOUNS.

1. The jury will be confined until it agrees on a verdict.

[FORMULE.—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.]

2. The people will not relinquish its rights.

8. The clergy had declared its intention.

4. The party disagreed among itself.

5. The committee were unanimous, and this is its award.

6. The company then renewed its claims.

\nearrow Lesson V.—Under Rule VII.—Pronouns.

1. Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.

[FORMULE.—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.]

2. Avoid lightness and frivolity: it is allied to folly.

8. Truth ard honesty cannot fail of its reward.

4. Learning and good sense always adorn its possessor.

Banis 1 envy and strife, lest it utterly destroy your peace.

6. Cherish love and unity: it is the life of society.

LESSON VI.—Under Rule VIII.—Pronouns.

1. Neither wealth nor honour can satisfy their votaries.

[FORMULE.—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 antecedents 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.]

- 2. Can justice or truth change their nature?
- 8. One or the other must relinquish their claim.
- 4. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow their neck to the yoke.
- 5. The horse or the ox will lend thee their strength.
- 6. Neither my father nor my master would give their concent.

LESSON VII.--UNDER RULE IX.--VERBS.

1. You was kindly received.

[FORMULE.—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 finite ve b must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number." I herefore, was received should be were received; thus, You were I indly received.]

- 2. Appearances is often deceptive.
- 3. 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.
- 6. What does all my exertions avail?

LESSON VIII.-UNDER RULE X.-VERBS.

1. The people rejoices in that which should cause sorrow.

[FORMULE.—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.]

- 2. The nobility was assured that he would not interpose.
- 8. The committee has attended to their appointment.
- 4. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure.
- 5. All the world is spectators of your conduct.
- 6. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound.—Bible.

LESSON IX.—UNDER RULE XI.—VERBS.

1. Industry and frugality leads to wealth.

[Formule.—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."]

CHAP. III.] SYNTAX.—CORRECTING.

2. Temperance and exercise preserves health.

8. My love and affection towards thee remains unaltered.

4. Wealth, honour, and happiness, forsakes the indolent.

5. My flesh and my heart falleth.—Bible.

6. In all his works, there is sprightliness and vigour.

LESSON X.—Under Rule XII.—Verbs.

1. Ignorance or negligence have caused this mistake.

[FORMULE.—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.

- 2. No axe or hammer have ever awakened an echo here.
- What the heart or the imagination dictate, flows readily.
 Neither authority nor analogy support such an opinion.
- 5. Either ability or inclination were wanting.
- 6. He comes—nor want nor cold his course delay.—Johnson.

LESSON XI.—UNDER RULE XIII.—VERBS.

1. They would neither go in, nor suffered others to enter.

[FORMULE.—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.

- Z. Does not he waste his time, and neglects his lessons?
 - 3. 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.

6. He was elected to the office, but would not serve.

LESSON XII .- UNDER RULE XX .- OBJECTIVES .

1. She I shall more readily forgive.

[FORMULE.—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 preperfect participles, govern the objective case." Therefore, she should be her; thus, Her I shall more readily forgive.

2. Thou only have I chosen.

3. Who shall we send on this errand?

4. My father allowed my brother and I to accompany him.

5. He that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

6. Who should I meet but my old friend!

LESSON XIII.—Under Rule XXI.—Same Cases.

1. We did not know that it was him.

[FORMULE.—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-intransitive, passive, and neuter verbs, and their participles, take the same case after as before them, when both words refer to the same thing." Therefore, him should be he; thus. We did not know that it was he.]

2. We thought it was thee.

3. I would act the same part, if I were him.

4. It could not have been her.

5. It is not me that he is angry with,

6. They believed it to be I.

LESSON XIV.—Under Rule XXII.—Objectives.

1. It rests with thou and me to decide.

[FORMULE.—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.]

2. Let that remain a secret between you and I.

3. I lent the book to some one, I know not who.

4. Let no quarrel occur among we three fellows.

5. Who did he inquire for? Thou.

6. From he that is needy, turn not away.

LESSON XV.—Under Rule XXIII.—Infinitives.

1. Ought these things be tolerated?

[FORMULE.—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?

- 2. Please excuse my son's absence.
- Cause every man go out from me.
 Forbid them enter the garden.
- 5. Do you not perceive it move?
- 6. Allow others discover your merit.
- 7. He was seen go in at that gate.

LESSON XVI.—Under Rule XXIV.—Infinitives.

1. They need not to call upon her.

[FORMULE.—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, usually take the infinitive after them, without the preposition to." Therefore, to should be omitted; thus, "They need not call upon her.]

- 2. I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me.
- 8. I have heard him to mention the subject.
- 4. Bid the boys to come in immediately.
- 5. I dare to say he has not got home yet.6. Let no rash promise to be made.

LESSON XVII.—UNDER RULE XXV.—Nom. ABSOLUTE.

1. Him having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.

[FORMULE.—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 a pronoun is put absolute in the nominative, when its case depends on no other word." Therefore, him should be he; thus, He having ended his discourse, the assembly dispersed.]

- 2. Me being young, they deceived me.
- 3. Them refusing to comply, I withdrew.
- 4. The child is lost; and me, whither shall I go?
- 5. Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew.6. Arise, and gird thyself, O thee that sleepest!
- 7. O wretched us! shut from the light of hope!
- 8. "Thee too! Brutus, my son!" cried Cossar overcome.

9. But him, the chieftain of them all, His sword hangs rusting on the wall.

LESSON XVIII.—UNDER RULE XXVI.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

1. He will not be pardoned, unless he repents.

[FORMULE.—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.
- 4. I knew thou wert not slow to hear.
- 5. Let him take heed lest le falls.
- 6. If thou castest me off, I shall be miserable.
- 7. I believed, whatever was the issue, all would be well.
- 8. If he was an impostor, he must have been detected.

CHAPTER IV.—ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Two or more subjects, connected by a conjunction, may belong to the same predicate; or two or more connected predicates may have the same subject. In this case, the sentence should be considered simple, with a compound subject or predicate.

Phrases are either simple, complex, or com-

pound.

A phrase, containing a phrase as an adjunct of its principal part, is called a *complex phrase*; as, "By the bounty of Heaven."

A phrase, composed of two or more coordinate phrases, is called a compound phrase; as, "Stoop-

ing down and looking in."

EXERCISE I.

Analyze the following sentences, pointing out the compound subjects and predicates, and distinguishing the different kinds of phrases.

EXAMPLE.—"The Gauls, a barbarous people, in the fourth century before Christ, invaded Italy and burned Rome."

This is a simple declarative sentence, having a compound predicate. The subject is Gaute; the compound predicate is invaded and burned; the objects are Italy

The adjuncts of the subject are the and people, a and barbarous being adjuncts of people; the adjunct, of the predicate, is the complex adverbial phrase, in the fourth century before Christ; the principal part of the phrase is century, the adjuncts of which are the, fourth, and the simple adjective phrase, before Christ; neither of the objects has any adjuncts.

Temperance and exercise preserve the health both of the body and the mind. The wild animals turned, looked, and ran away. The faculty of reasoning accurately, is possessed by very few.—The sun was pouring its meridian rays upon the Arabian desert, when a caravan halted for refreshment and repose. Obidah, the son of Abensina, left the caravansary early in the morning, and pursued his journey through the plains of Hindoostan. I went by the field of the slothful, and by the vineyard of the man void of understanding.—The Puritans rejected with contempt the ceremonious homage of other sects. Afflicted by this spectacle of suffering, he profilered immediate relief. By what authority doest thou these things? In the autumn of 1783, the war of the Revolution had closed with glory to the several States. The creation is a grand museum filled with wonders, and beauties, and glories. Fine writing is generally

the effect of spontaneous thoughts and a labored style. A large, branching, aged oak is, perhaps, the most venerable of all inanimate We should forgive freely, but forget rarely. Get justly, use soberly, distribute cheerfully, and live contentedly.

PARSING.

After analyzing each of the above sentences, let the pupil be required 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 the Rule 19th, which says, "A noun or a pronoun in the possessive case, is governed by the name of the thing possessed."

Highest is a common adjective, of the superlative degree; compared high, higher, highest: and relates to interest; according to Rule 4th, which says, "Adjectives relate to nouns or pronouns."

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 2d, which says, "A noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case."

Consists is a regular neuter verb from consists consisted consisting consistent consis

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 Bule 9th, which says, "A finite verb must agree with its subject, or nominative, in person and number."

In is a preposition: and shows the relation between virtue and consists; according to Rule 17th, which says, "Prepositions show the relation of things." Because the phrase in virtue modifies consists.

Virtue is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case: and is governed by in; according to Rule 22d, which says, "Prepositions govern the objective case."

EXERCISE II.—THE SUBJECT PHRASE.

In this, and each of the following exercises, let the pupil be required to analyze according to the example, and parse as in the preceding exercise.

Example.—"To be at once a rake and glory in the character, discovers a bad disposition and a bad heart."

This is a simple declarative sentence, having a compound subject. The subject is composed of the two coordinate phrases, To be at once a rake and to glory in the character, connected by and; the principal part of the first phrase is to be; and its adjuncts are the adverbial phrase at once and the indefinite attribute rake, (see Obs. 4, page 66.) modified by a; the principal part of the second phrase is, to glory; and its adjunct is the simple adverbial phrase, in the character, the principal part being modified by the. The predicate of the sentence is discovers; the objects, disposition and heart, each modified by the adjuncts a and bad.

To do good to all men, is the duty of a Christian. Riding on horseback is a beneficial exercise. To live soberly, righteously, and piously, comprehends the whole of our duty.-To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character. To have remained calm under such provocations, was a proof of remarkable self-control. To be continually subject to the breath of slander, will tarnish the purest reputation. To perceive nothing or not to perceive, is the same. To profess regard and act injuriously, discovers a base mind. To know one's own ignorance, is generally conducive to improvement. To be happy without the approval of conscience, is impossible. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

EXERCISE III.—THE OBJECT PHRASE:

Example.—"Pope professed to have learned his poetry from Dryden."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is Pope; the predicate is professed; the object is the complex phrace, to have learned his poetry from Dryden. The principal part of the phrase is, to have learned; its adjuncts, the object poetry and the simple adverbial phrase from Dryden; poetry is modified by the adjunct his. Neither the subject nor the predicate of the sentence, has any adjuncts.

We should always desire to obey the dictates of conscience. He who desires to be happy, should cultivate integrity and self-respect. We swear to preserve the blessings for which our fathers toiled and bled. The teacher enjoined upon his pupils, to be industrious in study, to cultivate a virtuous disposition, and especially to love truth. Seek earnestly to improve your talents. Cease to do evil, learn to do well. I dare not proceed so hastily, lest I give offence. Never attempt to conceal a fault, but confess it freely. We should love to do what God commands. Artaxerxes being thus entreated, could not refuse to pardon him. By the faults of others, wise men learn to correct their own. He began again to teach by the seaside.

EXERCISE IV.—THE ATTRIBUTE PHRASE.

Example.—" His object was not to surprise his readers."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is object, modified by the adjunct his; the predicate is voca, modified by the adverb not; the attribute is the phrase to surprise his readers; the principal part of the phrase is to surprise; its adjunct, the object readers, modified by his.

PThe object of punishment should be, to reform the wicked. To be good is to be happy. → To surrender without making resistance, would be, to submit to a base and inglorious death. To attempt further to illustrate so plain a truth, would be only to spend time uselessly. To smile on those whom we should censure, is to bring guilt upon ourselves. The tendency of evil is, to make men miserable. The highest art of the mind of man, is, to possess itself with tranquillity in the hour of danger. He was known to be kept in close custody at Oxford. My power is to advise, not to compel. Is life to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? The ship is to sail to-morrow. His conduct was greatly to be admired. My friend is in very good health. The train might have been off the track. The vessel was behind its usual time. To submit to insult, is, to give occasion for it. The silver age is reckoned to have commenced at the death of Augustus.

EXERCISE V.—ADJECTIVE AND ADVERBIAL PHRASES.

Example.—" Where there is no knowledge of the law, a man acting in opposition to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is, a man acting in opposition to it, cannot be properly said to transgress it; the dependent clause is, where there is no knowledge of the law. The connective is where.

The subject of the principal clause is man; the predicate, can be said; the attribute, to transgress it. The adjuncts of the subject are a, and the complex adjective phrase, acting in opposition to it; the principal part of the phrase is acting, modified by the complex adverbla phrase, in opposition to it, the principal part of which is opposition, modified by the simple adjective phrase, to it. The adjuncts of the predicate are not and properly, and the dependent clause; the adjunct of the attribute is the object it.

The subject of the dependent clause is knowledge; the predicate is is. The adjuncts of the subject are no and the simple adjective phrase, of the law; the adjunct

of the predicate is there.

Genius has often been discovered in persons/of a very humble condition in life. In summer the fervid sun darting his direct rays. oppresses us with heat. A man of integrity will never listen to any reason against conscience. The ambition to excel was manifest in all his acts. An old man was busily employed in planting and ingrafting an apple-tree. We should always strive to do right. Eliza's benevolence in relieving the poor was much to be commended. Christians should exhibit an ability to endure the various vicissitudes of life. Newton's ideas regarding the nature of comets, were quite fanciful. Honors bestowed on the illustrious dead, have in them no admixture of envy. A habit of sincerity in acknowledging faults, is a guard against committing them.

EXERCISE VI.—THE EXPLANATORY PHRASE.

Example.—"It is a Christian's vocation to do good to all."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is tt; the predicate is ts; the attribute is vocation. The adjunct of the subject is the explanatory phrase, to de good to dk; the principal part of the phrase is to do, its adjuncts are the object good and the simple adverbial phrase, to dk. The adjunct of the attribute is Christian's, modified by ds.

It is a great crime to deceive the innocent and confiding. It is good to sing praises unto our God. It is impossible to instruct those who have no desire to learn. It is of little use to form 'plans of life. It deserves our best skill, to inquire into those rules, by which we may guide our judgment. It is a sign of great prudence, to be willing to receive instruction. It is the duty of public speakers, in addressing any popular assembly, to be previously masters of their subject. It pleased Darius the King, to set over the kingdom a hundred and twenty princes, who should be over the whole kingdom.

Exercise VII.—The Independent Phrase.

EXAMPLE 1.—" Night coming on, the battle was discontinued."

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is battle; the predicate is, was discontinued. The adjunct of the subject is the. Night coming on, is an independent phrase; its principal part is night, the adjunct of which is the participle coming, modified by on.

EXAMPLE 2.—"To speak candidly, I did not quite understand the subject."

A simple declarative sentence. The subject is I; the predicate is did understand; the object is subject. The adjuncts of the predicate are not and quite; that of the object is the. To speak candidly is an independent phrase; the principal part being to speak, modified by candidly.

I To confess the truth, I was very much in fault. Generally speaking, the conduct of that man is unexceptionable. Theron and Aspasia took a morning walk into the fields; their spirits cheered, and their imaginations lively; gratitude glowing in their hearts, and the whole creation smiling around them. The Senate consented to the creation of tribunes of the people, Appius alone protesting against the measure. To be plain with you, your conduct is very much to be censured. Considering the circumstances, the degree of success which you have attained, is highly deserving of commendation. All obstacles having been overcome, he finally reached the goal of his ambition. My dear friend, how glad I am to see you! Pause for a while, ye travellers of earth, to contemplate the universe around you! Green be the turf above thee, friend of my better days! Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

EXERCISE VIII.—THE SUBJECT CLAUSE.

Example.—"That vice conducts to misery, is certain."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is the dependent clause, Vice conducts to misery; the predicate is is; the attribute is certain. The subject of the dependent clause is vice; the predicate is conducts, notified by the simple adverbial phrase, to misery. That is the connective of the two clauses.

I That you have wronged me, doth appear in this. Whence proceeded this sad calamity, has not been ascertained. Why he committed so dreadful a crime, is a mystery. Who wrote the letters of Junius, is not positively known. That it is our duty to be kind to our fellow-creatures, does not admit of a doubt. That I know not what I want, is the cause of my complaint. How this difficulty is to be solved, is beyond conjecture. That idleness leads to ruin, and that industry insures success, are certain truths. That Julius Cassar invaded Britain, is a well-known historical fact. That integrity is essential to success in life, ought to be continually inculcated on the young.

EXERCISE IX .-- THE OBJECT CLAUSE.

Example.—"Remember that indolence can lead to nothing but disgrace and misery."

This is a complex imperative sentence. The subject is thou (understood); the predicate is remember; the object is the dependent clause, Indolonce can lead, &c. That is the connective. The subject of the dependent clause is indolonce; the predicate is can lead, which is modified by the complex adverbial phrase, to nothing but diagrace and misery; the principal part of this phrase is nothing, modified by the phrase, but diagrace and misery. [But—a preposition.]

The orator felt that every eye was upon him. John says that his brother is not well. Always bear in mind that you owe very

much to your parents. The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God. See! Aspasio, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind. He said, that he was well apprised of the obedience which he owed to the laws. She had now to learn what it is to be a slave. Consider well whether you are able to perform this great undertaking. Remember, Almet, that the world in which thou art placed, is but the road to another. And Nathan said unto David, Thou art the man. Then said Joab to Cushi, Go tell the king what thou hast seen. The scribes spake unto him, saying, Tell us by what authority doest thou these things? The eynic observed that the philosopher who could dine on herbs, might despise the company of a king.

EXERCISE X.—THE OBJECT CLAUSE —INFINITIVE FORM.

Obs.—In the infinitive form of this clause, the subject and predicate are connected indirectly. The predicate, instead of being a finite verb, is a verb in the infinitive mood, and its subject is in the objective case. Thus, in the sentence, "He commanded the army to march," army is the subject, and to march, the predicate; because it is indicated (although indirectly) that the act of marching is performed by the agent army, the sentence being equivalent to, "He commanded that the army should march."

Example.—"Conversation makes a man grow wiser."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is *Conversation*; the predicate is makes; the object is the infinitive clause, aman(to) grow wiser. The subject of the dependent clause is man, modified by a; the predicate is, to grow; the attribute, wiser.

I heard him relate the story of his wrongs. I heard a faint voice call my name. Let us then be up and doing. In this melancholy state, he commanded messengers to recall his eldest son, Abouzaid, from the army. Let the dead past bury its dead. We often see bad men intrusted with very important duties. The united testimony of many witnesses, proved him to be guilty of the crime with which he was charged. Forbid them to enter the garden. The Sovereigns requested Columbus to return, and be present at the Convention. It was the peculiar artifice of Habit, not to suffer her power to be felt at first.

EXERCISE XI.—THE ATTRIBUTE CLAUSE.

Example.—"His reply was, that he was sure of success."

This is a complex declarative sentence. The subject is reply; the predicate is una; the attribute is the dependent clause, He was sure of success. The connective is that.

My hope is, that you will regain your liberty. His decision was, that the culprit should be punished. The physician's directions were, that the patient should travel to the South, that he should avoid excitement, and that he should be careful in diet. Kepler's opinion with regard to the tides was, that they are caused by the

attraction of the moon. The general sentiment is, that the rebellion is entirely unjustifiable. The cause of so great an error might have been, that the subject had not been sufficiently studied. The cause of the defeat, was that the army had not been supplied with the means of transportation.

EXERCISE XII.—ADJECTIVE AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

Example.—" And when the king came in to see the guests, he saw there a man that had not on a wedding garment."

Complex declarative sentence.

Subject, he; predicate, scur; object, man. Adjuncts of predicate, there, and the adverbial clause, when the king came in to see the guests; adjuncts of object, a and the adjective clause, that had not on a weedding garment. (Let the pupil analyze each dependent clause as in the preceding exercises.)

When they arrived at the orchard, they commenced to gather the fruit which they found scattered on the ground. While you are striving to acquire knowledge, endeavor also to become virtuous and good. + Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also. He who talks loudly of qualities that he does not possess, is a boaster. The globe on which we live, is called the earth. What we are afraid to do before men, we should be much more afraid to think before God. The place in which this event occurred, is not mentioned by the geographers who wrote at that time. scholar who is attentive and persevering, is sure to excel. naturally look with strong emotion to the spot, where the ashes of those we have loved, repose. 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. What would dare to molest him who might call, on every side, to thousands enriched by his bounty? He who knows not what it is to labor, knows not what it is to enjoy. The promise that he should be rewarded, was kept. The merchant received intelligence that his ship had been wrecked.

EXERCISE XIII.—THE EXPLANATORY CLAUSE.

Example.—"It is an old saying that, 'Truth lies in a well."

Complex declarative sentence.

Subject, it; predicate, is; attribute, saying.

Adjunct of the subject the explanatory clause, truth lies in a well; adjuncts d attribute, an and old. That, a conjunction connecting the principal and the depend-

It is said by some, that Columbus had a haughtiness of manner. It has been conclusively proved, that the earth is not the centre of the universe. It has always been the earnest wish of parents, that their children should be well educated. It makes a great difference to us, whether death is a perpetual sleep, or the beginning of another and better life. And it was told Joab, Behold, the king weepeth and mourneth for Absalom. The question whether purity - mixture of race is most conducive to national greatness, appears to be fully settled. It is a source of astonishment to all his

friends, that he should have been guilty of so disgraceful an act. It was observed, that he derived no joy from the benefits which he diffused. It was in the spring of the year, that Xerxes commenced his march to the Hellespont. It was with the utmost difficulty, that our union was formed.

EXERCISE XIV.—THE PARENTHETICAL CLAUSE.

Example.—"'Life,' says Seneca, 'is a voyage, in the progress of which, we are perpetually changing our scenes."

A compound declarative sentence.

A compound decistative sentence.

Subject, life; predicate, is; attribute, voyage.

Adjunct of voyage is the simple adjective clause, in the progress of which we are perpetually changing our scenes. The subject is we; predicate, are changing; object, scenes. Adjuncts of predicate, perpetually, and, in the progress of which—a complex adverbial phrase; principal part, progress; adjunct, of which. Says Seneca, is a simple parenthetical clause. Subject, Seneca; predicate, says.

Obs.—Sentences of this form may be analyzed by considering the parenthetical clause, the principal one, and the rest of the sentence a dependent clause. The mode indicated above is, however, preferable; as, although the parenthetical clause is united in construction with the other part of the sentence, it is not necessary to complete the sense.

+ Study, I beseech you, to store your minds with useful knowledge. "Thirst for glory," says a great writer, "is often founded on ambition and vanity." "Son of affliction," said Omar, "who art thou and what is thy distress?" "Almet," said he, "remember what thou hast seen, and let this memorial be written upon the tablet of thy heart." How dangerous soever idleness may be, are there not pleasures, it may be said, which attend it? A man who cannot read, let us always remember, is a being not contemplated by the genius of the American constitution

Exercise XV.—Compound Sentences.

Obs. 1.—In analyzing compound sentences, the leading clause should be distinguished from the subordinate clause. It must also be understood that the dependence of the latter upon the former. is logical, not grammatical, differing in this respect altogether from the relation of the principal and the dependent clause of a complex sentence, which is grammatical, the latter being an adjunct, or used as one of the principal parts, in the principal clause.

Obs. 2.—Some clauses are simply connected without logical or grammatical dependence. They may then be called coordinate

In the following examples of analysis, for the purpose of abbreviation, and in order to furnish the pupil with a ready method of clearly representing, in written exercises, the parts of a sentence and their relations, the compound clauses or members are marked by Capitals; the simple clauses, by numerals; and the phases, by small letters. When these are all written out in their order, the general character of the sentence will be at once exhibited. S. stands for subject; P., for predicate; O, others, and the phase are all written out in their order; P., for predicate; O, others, and others are all written out in their order; P., for predicate; O, others, and object; Att., attribute; Ad., adjunct.

Example.—"The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue. the only lasting treasure, truth."

Compound declarative sentence, consisting of two coordinate clauses, without a

ennective.

1. The only amaranthine flower on earth is virtue; The only amaranthine power on ear
 The only lasting treasure (is) truth.

1. Simple declarative clause.
S. flower; P. is; Att. virtue.
Ad. S. the, only, amaranthine, on earth (a)

a. Simple adjective phrase.

2. Simple declarative clause.

S. treasure; P. is (understood); Att. truth; Ad. S. the, only, lasting.

EXAMPLE 2 .- "If you study diligently in youth, you will be happy and prosperous in manhood."

Compound declarative sentence; consisting of
1. (Leading.) You will be happy and prosperous in manhood;
2. (Subordinate.) You study diligently in youth; Connective, if.

1. Simple declarative clause. S. You; P. will be; Att. (compound) happy and prosperous; Ad. P. in manhood (a)

. Simple adverbial phrase.

2. Simple declarative clause.

8. you; P. study; Ad. P. diligently, in youth (b)

b. Simple adverbial phrase.

The clouds of sorrow gathered round his head; and the tempest of hatred roared about his dwelling. The tree was so crooked, that the farmer cut it down. Happiness is more equally divided among mankind, than some suppose. The meeting was so respectable, that the propriety of its decision can hardly be questioned. Science may raise thee to eminence, but religion alone can guide thee to felicity. Cecrops, who founded Athens, is thought to have been No man of sense ever took any pains to appear an Egyptian. wise: as no honest man ever used any tricks to display his own integrity. A reply is properly a return to an answer: to answer and to reply are therefore not always equivalent expressions. Others sometimes appear to us more wrong than they are, because we ourselves are not right in judging them.

EXERCISE XVI.—MISCELLANEOUS SENTENCES.

Example 1.—"To learn is to proceed from something that is known to something that is unknown."

Complex declarative sentence.

S. to learn; P. is; Att. to proceed......unknown. (a)

a. Complex phrase. — Priu. part, to proceed; Adjuncts, from something that is known, (b); to something that is unknown, (c)

b. Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, something;

Ad. that is known. (1)

Simple adjective clause.
 S. that; P. is; Att. known.
 Complex adverbial phrase.—Prin. part, something;
 Ad. that is unknown. (2)

2. Simple adjective clause.

Example 2.—"I was now so confident of a miraculous supply of food, that I neglected to walk out for my repast, which, after the first day, I expected with an impatience which left me little power of attending to any other object."

Compound declarative sentence.

1. I wis......food; A. I neglected......object; connective, that. 1. Simple clause.

S. I; P. was; Att. confident. Ad. P. now; Ad. Att. so, and of a miraculous supply of food. (a)

a. Complex adverbial purase. - Prin. part, supply; Ad. a, miraculous, of food.

A. Compound member. 2. I neglected repast; B. which object; connective, which.

2. Simple clause.
S. I; P. neglected; O. to walk out for my repast. (b)

b. Complex objective phrase .- Prin. part, to walk ; Ad. out, for my repast.

B. Complex member. 8. I; P. expected; O. which. Ad. P. after the first day, with an impa-

8. Simple adjective clause.
S. which; P. left; O. power; Ad. P. (to) me; Ad. O. little, of attending to any other object. (d)
d. Complex adjective phrase.—Prin. part, attending; Ad. to any other object. (e)
e. Simple adverbial phrase. Prin. part, object; Ad. any, other.

EXAMPLE 3.—"Order is Heaven's first law; and this confessed, Some are, and must be, greater than the rest, More rich, more wise; but who infers from hence That such are happier, shocks all common sense."

Compound sentence; consisting of two coordinate members.

A. Order......wise; B. who......sense; Con. but.
A. Compound declarative member. 1. Order......luw; C. this.....wise; Con. and.

1. Simple declarative clause.
8. order; P. is; Att. law; Ad. Att. heaven's, first.

C. Compound declarative member.

2. Some are, and must be greater, more rich, more wise; 8. The rest (are); Con. thun; This (being) confessed, is an independent

phrase.

B. Complex declarative member.

S. He (understood); P. shocks; O. sense;
Ad. S. Who infers......happier; (D); Ad. O. all, common.

D. Complex adjective member,
B. who; P. infers; O. that such are happier. (4)
Ad. P. from hence.

Simple object clause.

S. such; P. are; Att. happier; Con. that.

Obs.—It will be perceived from the examples analyzed in this and in the foregoing exercises, that complex sentences may be analyzed in two ways; 1. By dividing the sentence immediately into the principal and dependent clauses, explaining their connection, and then analyzing them separately; and 2. By treating the sentence as a whole, pointing out the subject, predicate, &c., and analyzing the dependent clause in its proper place, as one of the principal parts, or an adjunct to either. The former method is perhaps preferable for beginners, but for more advanced students should give place to the latter, which is more logical and easier for intricate sentences.

Let the pupil analyze orally, or prepare a written analysis of the sentences in the following paragraphs, according to the preceding examples, and parse each word syntactically.

1. It is an empty joy to appear better than you are; but a great blessing to be what you ought to be.

- 2. Take counsel of the oracle in thine own heart, for there is not a more faithful monitor than that which speaks in secret there.
- 3. It is said that some thieves who once robbed a traveller, very gravely charged him with dishonesty for concealing a part of his money.
- 4. 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.

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

6. Sometimes, a distant sail, gliding along the edge of the ocean, would be another theme of idle speculation. How interesting this fragment of a world, hastening to rejoin the great mass of existence! What a glorious monument of human invention, that has thus triumphed over wind and wave; has brought the ends of the world into communion; has established an interchange of blessings, pouring into the sterile regions of the north, all the luxuries of the south; has diffused the light of knowledge and the charities of cultivated life; and has thus bound together those scattered portions of the human race, between which nature seemed to have thrown an insurmountable barrier.

7. His story shows how one lapse from duty may counterbalance the merits of a thousand services; how one moment of weakness may mar the beauty of a whole life of virtue; and how important it is for a man, under all circumstances, to be true not merely to others, but to himself.

8. When Education delivered up those for whose happiness she had been so long solicitous, she seemed to expect that they should express some gratitude for her care, or some regret at the loss of that protection which she had hitherto afforded them. But it was easy to discover, by the alacrity which broke out at her departure, that her presence had been long displeasing, and that she had been teaching those who felt in themselves no want of instruction.

9. Disguise thyself as thou wilt, still, Slavery! still thou art a bitter draught; and though thousands in all ages have been made to drink of thee, thou art no less bitter on that account.

10. See, Aspasio, how all is calculated to administer the highest delight to mankind! Those trees and hedges, which skirt the extremities of the landscape, stealing away from their real bulk, and lessening by gentle diminutions, appear like elegant pictures in miniature. Those which occupy the nearer situations, are a set of noble images, swelling upon the eye, in full proportion, and in a variety of graceful attitudes; both of them ornamenting the several apartments of our common abode, with a mixture of delicacy and grandeur.

11. "My friends," said he, "I have seriously considered our manners and our prospects; and I find that we have mistaken our own interest. Let us therefore stop, while to stop is in our power."—They stared awhile in silence, one upon another, and at last drove

him away by a general chorus of continued laughter.

12. Vexed at so untimely a disturbance, and disappointed of news from Spain, the duke frowned for a moment; but chagrin soon gave way to mirth, at so singular and ridiculous a combination of circumstances, and yielding to the impulse, he sunk upon the bed in a violent fit of laughter, which was communicated in a moment to the attendants.

13. Let us not confide presumptuously in the sufficiency of a national education; for though ignorance may destroy us, knowledge alone cannot save. Knowledge is, indeed, power; but it is power to kill as well as to make alive, as it is wielded by the mad-

ness of the heart, or by moral principle.

- 14. There is not in this wide world a safe deposit for liberty, but the hearts of patriots, so enlightened as to be able to judge of correct legislation, and so patient and disinterested, as to practice self-denial and self-government for the public good.
 - 15. The Spring—she is a blessed thing! She is mother of the flowers; She is the mate of buds and bees, The partner of their revelries, Our star of hope through wintry hours.
 - 16. Tell me not in mournful numbers, Life is but an empty dream! For the soul is dead that slumbers, And things are not what they seem.

PART IV.

PROSODY.

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

CHAPTER I.—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 Semicolor. [;], the Colon [:], the Period [.], the Dash [—], the Eroteme, or Note of Interrogation [?], the Ecphoneme, or Note of Exclamation [!], and the Curves, or Marks of 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.

SECTION I .- 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.

SECTION II .-- 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 forever 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.

SECTION III .-- 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.

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.

SECTION IV .-- 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.

SECTION V.—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.

SECTION VI.-OF THE EROTEME.

The Eroteme, or 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.

SECTION VII.—OF THE ECPHONEME.

The Ecphoneme, or 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.

SECTION VIII .-- OF THE CURVES.

The Curves, or Marks of Parenthesis, are used to distinguish a clause or hint that is hastily thrown in between the parts of a sentence to which it does not properly belong.

EXAMPLES.

To others do (the law is not severe) What to thyself thou wishest to be done.—Beattis. 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.

SECTION IX .--- OF THE OTHER MARKS.

There are also other marks that are occasionally used for various purposes, as follow:—

1. ['] The Apostrophe usually denotes either the possessive case of a noun, 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 diphthong; as, aërial.

4. ['Î The Acute Accent marks the syllable which requires the principal stress in pronunciation; as, équal, 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. ['] 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 either the broad sound of a, or an unusual and long sound given to some other vowel; as in colât, âll, hêir, machîne, môve, bûll.

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 yowel 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. [] The Caret shows where to insert words that have been accidentally omitted.

11. [] The Brace serves to unite a triplet, or to connect sev-

eral terms with something to which they are all related.

- 12. [8] The Section marks the smaller divisions of a book or chapter; and, with the help of numbers, serves to abridge references.
- 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 Guillemets, or 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, or Brackets, generally inclose some correction or explanation, or the subject to be explained; as, "He [the speaker] was of a different opinion."

16. [] The Index, or Hand, points out something remarkable.

17. [*] The Asterisk, [†] the Obelisk, [‡] the Double Dagger, and [||] the Parallels, refer to marginal notes. The letters of the alpha-

bet, or the numerical figures, may be used for the same purpose. 18. [**] The Asterism, or Three Stars, a sign not very often used, is placed before a long or general note, to mark it as a note,

without giving it a particular reference.

19. [c] The Cedilla is a mark which is sometimes set under a letter to show that its sound, in the given word, is soft; as in façade, where the c sounds as s.

CHAPTER II.—UTTERANCE.

Utterance is the art of vocal expression. It includes the principles of pronunciation and elocution.

SECTION I .--- 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 and above 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 atterance of the unaccented syllables, distinguish the

elegant speaker.

SECTION II. -- OF ELOCUTION.

Elocution is the utterance of words that are arranged into sentences, and that form discourse. Elocution requires a knowledge, and right ap-

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 distin-

guished from the rest as being more especially significant.

2. Pauses are cessations in utterance, which serve equally to relieve 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, key, or pitch, 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 graver 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 falling.

"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

uttered with the falling inflection.

4. Tones are those modulations of the voice, which depend upon the feelings of the speaker. They are what Sheridan denominates "the language of emotions." And it is of the utmost importance that they be natural, unaffected, and rightly adapted to the subject and to the occasion; for upon them, in a great measure, depends all that is pleasing or interesting in elecution.

CHAPTER III.—FIGURES.

A figure, in grammar, is an intentional deviation from the ordinary spelling, formation, construction, or application of words. There are accordingly, figures of Orthography, 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.

SECTION I .- FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

A figure of Orthography is an intentional deviation from the ordinary or true spelling of a word.

The principal figures of Orthography are two; namely, Mi-me'-size and Ar'cha-ism.

- 1. Minesis is a ludicrous imitation of some mistake or mispronunciation of a word, in which the error is mimicked by a false spelling, or the taking of one word for an other; as, "Maister, says he, have you any very good veal in your vallet?"—Columbian Orator, p. 292. "Ay, he was porn at Monunouth, Captain Gower." —Shak. "I will description the matter to you, if you be capacity of it."—Id.

 "Perdigious! I can hardly stand."—Lloyd.
- 2. An Archaism is a word or phrase expressed according to ancient usage, and not according to our modern orthography; as "Newe grene chese of smalle clammynes comfortethe a hotte stomake."—T. PAYNEL: Tooke's Diversions, ii, 132.

"With him was rev'rend Contemplation pight, Bow-bent with eld, his beard of snowy hue."—Beattie.

SECTION II.—FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

A figure of Etymology is an intentional deviation from the ordinary formation of a word.

The principal figures of Etymology are eight; namely, A-phoresis, Pros-the-sis, Syn'-co-pe, A-poc-o-pe, Par-a-go'ge, Di-ar-e-sis, Syn-ar-e-sis, and Tme-sis.

1. Apharesis 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, medicine, for medicine; e'en, for even; o'er, for over.

4. Apocope is the elision of some of the final letters of a word; as, tho, for though; th, for the; tother, for the other.

5. Paragoge is the annexing of an expletive syllable to a word:

as, withouten, for without; my deary, for my dear,

6. Diarresis is the separating of two vowels that might form a diphthong; as, coperate, not cooperate; orthospy, not orthopy.

7. Synarcsis is the sinking of two vyllables into one; as, seest,

for seëst; tacked, for tack-ed.

- 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 s is made vocal.
- 8. Thesis is the inserting of a word between the parts of a compound; as, "On which side soever;"—" To us ward;"—" To God ward"—Bible.

SECTION III.-FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

A figure of Syntax is an intentional deviation from the ordinary construction of words.

The principal figures of Syntax are five; namely, El-lip'-no, Ple-

o-nasm, 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 meaning; as, "'Who did this?' 'I' [did it.]" Such words are said to be understood; because they are received as belonging to the sen-

tence, though they are not uttered.

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 speak this."-Shak.

"They fall successive [ly,] and successive [ly] rise."—Pops. "Than whom [who] none higher sat."—Milton.

"So furious was that onset's shock,

- Destruction's gates at once unlock."—Hogg.
- 5. Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "He wanders carth 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.

SECTION IV .-- 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 some similitude or relation of things, which, by the power of imagination, is rendered conducive to ornament or illustration.

The principal figures of Rhetoric are fourteen; namely, Sim'-i-le, Met'-a-phor, Al'-le-go-ry, Me-ton'y-my, Syn-ec'-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.
- 8. An Allegory is a continued narration of fictitious events designed to represent and illustrate important realities. Thus the Paslmist 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

^{*} Deviations of this kind are, in general, to be considered solecisms; otherwise the rules of grammar would be of no use or authority. Despreader, an ancient Latin grammarian, gave an improper latitude to this figure, under the name of Antiposts; and Behourt and others extended it still further. But Sanctius say, "Antipost grammatistoorum nitial imperitius, quod figmentum et esset corum, frustra quareretur, quem casum corba regerent." And the Messieure De Port Royal reject the figure altogether. There are, however, some changes of this kind, which the grammarian is not competent to condemn, though they do not accord with the ordinary principles of construction.

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."—Psalms, lxxx, 8.

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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 rlace 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 a 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 intelligence and personality to unintelligent beings or abstract qualities.

ities; 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. Eophonesis 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.

CHAPTER IV.—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.

SECTION I .-- OF 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 short, as 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.

SECTION II.—OF RHYME.

Rhyme is a similarity of sound, between the last syllables of different 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 anapestic verses.

SECTION III.—OF POETIC FEET.

A line of poetry consists of successive combinations of syllables, called feet. A poetic foot, in English, consists either of two or of three syllables.

The principal English feet are the Iambus, the Troches, the Ana-

pest, and the Dactyl.

1. The *Iambus*, or *Iamb*, is a poetic foot consisting of a short syllable and a long one; as, betray, conjust.

2. The Troches is a poetic foot consisting of a long syllable and a

short one; as, hateful, pettish.

8. The Anapest 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; Immbic, Trochaic, Anapestic, and Dactylic.

SECTION IV .-- OF SCANNING.

Scanning, or Scansion, is the dividing of verses into the feet which compose them.

I. In Iambic verse, the stress is laid on the even syllables, and the

odd ones are short.

EXAMPLES.

"För präise | töo dëar|-ly lov'd | ör wärm|-ly sought, Enfee|-bles all | inter|-nal strength | of thought."

"With soll-emn ad -ora -tion down | they cast

Their crowns | inwove | with am |-arant | and gold."

II. In Trochaic verse, the stress is laid on the odd syllables, and the even ones are short. Single-rhymed trochaic omits the final short syllable, that it may end with a long one. This kind of verse is the same as iambic would be without the initial short syllable.

EXAMPLES.

"Round a | holy | calm dif|-fusing, Love of | peace and | lonely | musing." Single Rhyme.

"Rēstless | mortals | toil for | naught; Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sought."

III. In Anapestic verse, the stress is laid on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapestic line, may be an iambus.

EXAMPLE.

"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 an apestic would be without its initial short syllables. Dactylic measure is rather uncommon; and, when employed, is seldom perfectly regular.

EXAMPLE.

Höly and | pure are the | pleasures of | plety,
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 exact and 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 rhythmical pulsations.

APPENDIX.

AKEY

TO THE

EXAMPLES OF FALSE SYNTAX.

[To task the learner, is right to puzzle him, is wrong. All embarrassment is a bar to progress; all stopping or fattering in rehearsal, is a disagreeable waste of time. These, therefore, should be prevented as fully as they can be; and the reciter, sepecially if he be in a school-class, should be prompted to go always through his part with a free, unhesitating, and manlike utterance. Instruction and exercise, in due rotation, are the young grammarian's carriage-wheels, both fore and hind; but his progress in the course, like that of him who rides the velociped, depends nainly on his own efforts. If any one need this Key, let him use it; those who do not need it, will not care to turn to it. will not care to turn to it.

will not care to turn to it.

The examples of False S ntax, of which the following sentences are the full amended readings, should be corrected orally by the pupil, according to the formules which are given in the fifth chapter of Part Third; and afterwards these corrections may be used as examples for parsing, if more taxts for that sort of exercise be desired. The first example of each lesson is not inserted here, because it is fully corrected in the for-

mule.

LESSON I.-UNDER RULE II.-NOMINATIVES.

2. He that loiters by the way, may be belated. 3. They that labour, should be rewarded. 4. We who are spared, ought to be thankful. 5. You and I are equally concerned. 6. Are not thou and he related? 7. My brother is older than I. 8. He cannot read se well as thou. 9. Who fastened the door? I. 10. Who do you suppose did it?

LESSON II.—Under Rule III.—Apposition.

2. That was the tailoress, she that made my clothes. 3. I saw your friend, ... that was here last winter. 4. Dennis, the gardener, he that gave me the tulips, has promised me a piony.

LESSON III.—Under Rule V.—Pronouns.

2. Every one must judge of his own feelings. 8. We may be displeased with a person without hating him. 4. I poured water on the embers to quench them. 5. Ask her for the scissors, and bring them to me. 6. He had sown the oats, and they had already sprung up.

LESSON IV .- UNDER RULE VI .- PRONOUNS.

2. The people will not relinquish their rights. 8. The clergy

had declared their intention. 4. The party disagreed among themselves. 5. The committee were unanimous, and this is their award. 3. The company then renewed their claims.

LESSON V.-UNDER RULE VII.-PRONOUNS.

3. Avoid lightness and frivolity: they are allied to folly. 3. Truth and honesty cannot fail of their reward. 4. Learning and good sense always adorn their possessor. 5. Banish envy and strife, lest they utterly destroy your peace. 6. Cherish love and unity: they are the life of society.

LESSON VI.—UNDER RULE VIII.—PRONOUNS.

2. Can justice or truth change its nature? 3. One or the other must relinquish his claim. 4. Neither the lion nor the tiger will bow his neck to the yoke. 5. The horse or the ox will lend thee his strength. 6. Neither my father nor my master would give his consent.

LESSON VII.-UNDER RULE IX.-VERBS.

2. Appearances are often deceptive. 3. The propriety of such restrictions is doubtful. 4. There are windows on three sides of the room. 5. Thou seest the difficulties with which I am surrounded. 6. What do all my exertions avail?

LESSON VIII.-UNDER RULE X.-VERBS.

2. The nobility were assured that he would not interpose. 3. The committee have attended to their appointment. 4. The majority were disposed to adopt the measure. 5. All the world are spectators of your conduct. 6. Blessed are the people that know the joyful sound.

LESSON IX.—UNDER RULE XI.—VERBS.

2. Temperance and exercise preserve health. 3. My love and affection towards thee remain unaltered. 4. Wealth, honour, and happiness, forsake the indolent. 5. My flesh and my heart fail. 6. In all his works, there are sprightliness and vigour.

LESSON X .- UNDER RULE XII .- VERBS.

2. No axe or hammer has ever awakened an echo here. 3. What the heart or the imagination dictates, flows readily. 4. Neither authority nor analogy supports such an opinion. 5. Either ability or inclination was wanting. 6. He comes—nor want nor cold his course delays.

LESSON XI.—Under Rule XIII.—Verbs.

2. Does not he waste his time, and neglect his lessons? 3. Did not she send, and give you this information? 4. Their honours are departing, and coming to an end. 5. He had retired to his farm, and he appeared to be happy there. 6. He was elected to the office, but he would not serve.

LESSON XII.—Under Rule XX.—Objectives.

2. Thee only have I chosen. 3. Whom shall we send on this errand? 4. My father allowed my brother and me to accompany him. 5. Him that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply. 6. Whom should I meet but my old friend!

LESSON XIII.—Under Rule XXI.—Same Cases.

2. We thought it was thou. 3. I would act the same part, if I were he. 4. It could not have been she. 5. It is not I, that he is angry with. 6. They believed it to be me.

LESSON XIV.—Under Rule XXII.—OBJECTIVES.

2. Let that remain a secret between you and me. 3. I lent the book to some one, I know not whom. 4. Let no quarrel occur among us three fellows. 5. Whom did he inquire for? Thee. 6. From him that is needy, turn not away.

LESSON XV.—Under Rule XXIII.—Infinitives.

2. Please to excuse my son's absence. 3. Cause every man to go out from me. 4. Forbid them to enter the garden. 5. Do you not perceive it to move? 6. Allow others to discover your merit. 7. He was seen to go in at that gate.

LESSON XVI.—Under Rule XXIV.—Infinitives.

2. I felt a chilling sensation creep over me. 3. I have heard him mention the subject. 4. Bid the boys come in immediately. 5. I dare say he has not got home yet. 6. Let no rash promise be made.

LESSON XVII.-UNDER RULE XXV.-Now. ABSOLUTE.

- 2. I being young, they deceived me. 3. They refusing to comply, I withdrew. 4. The child is lost; and I, whither shall I go? 5. Thou being present, he would not tell what he knew. 6. Arise, and gird thyself, O thou that sleepest! 7. O wretched we! shut from the light of hope! 8. "Thou too! Brutus, my son!" cried Casar overcome.
 - "But he, the chieftain of them all, His sword hangs rusting on the wall."—W. Scott.

LESSON XVIII.—UNDER RULE XXVI.—SUBJUNCTIVES.

2. I shall walk out in the afternoon, unless it rain. 3. If thou felt as I do, we should soon decide. 4. I knew thou wast not slow to hear. 5. Let him take heed lest he fall. 6. If thou cast me off, I shall be miserable. 7. I believed, whatever were the issue, all would be well. 8. If he were an impostor, he must have been detected.

