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SYSTEMATIC TEXT-BOOK

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

ON A NEW PLAN;

WITH COPIOUS

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES.

BY SMITH B. GOODENOW,
LATE PRINCIPAL OF BATH ACADEMY.

PORTLAND:
WILLIAM HYDE.
1839.

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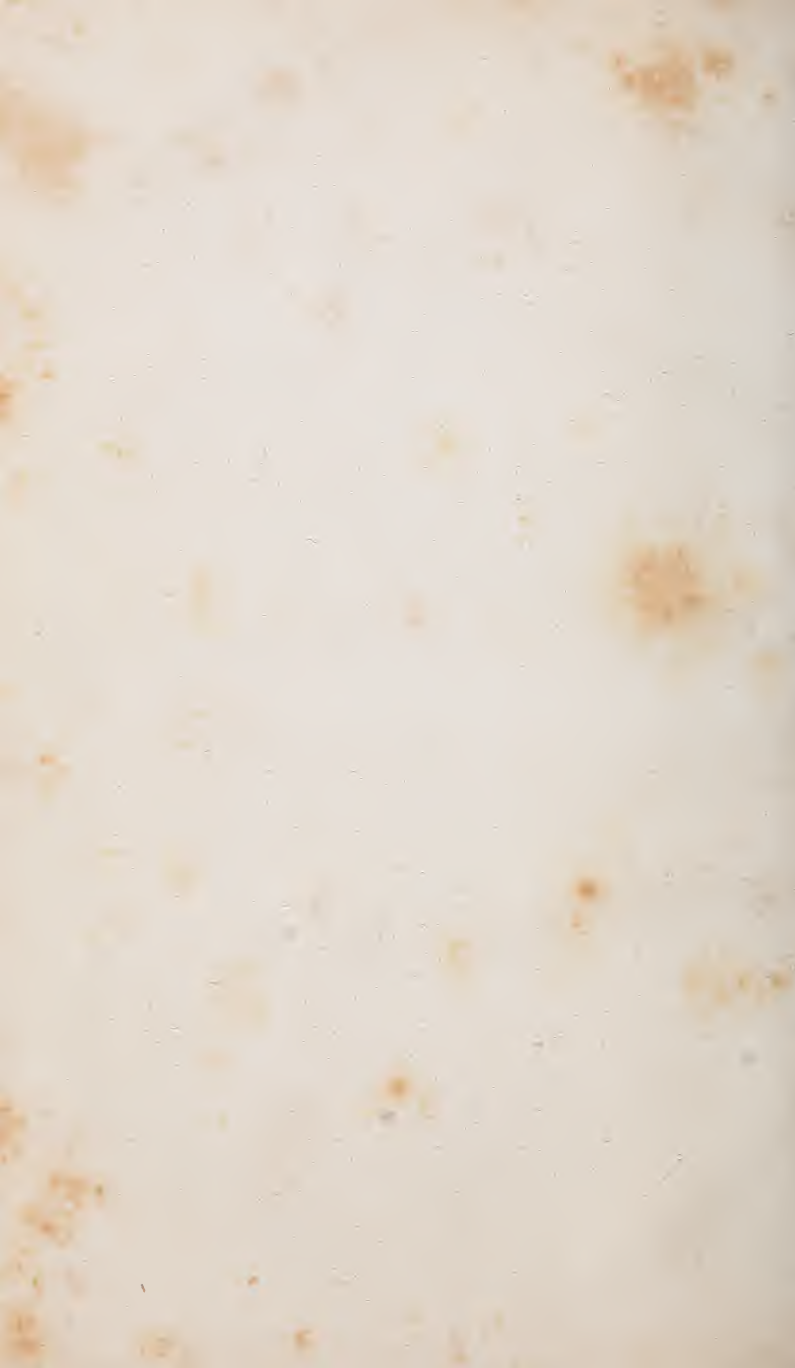
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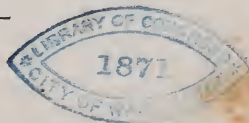






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P R E F A C E .

WHEN a new work is thrown upon the world, it is rightly expected of the projector, to show that there is need of such an addition to the mass of matter already in print. We will, therefore, introduce this book to the public, by mentioning a few of the important defects, which exist in the prevailing systems of English Grammar, and which render a new attempt upon this already hackneyed subject, at least excusable. Our limits will allow us barely to mention these defects, referring the reader, for further remarks, to the appendix.

1. *The prevailing systems contain many erroneous principles, which serve to disgust the scholar, and which increase the difficulty, while they diminish the usefulness of the study. Such are the following:—that Grammar is a mere art;—that such nouns as love, blessedness, &c. are common; that in the sentence, “What is there here?” there is an adverb of place; that in the sentence, “Whom the coat fits, let him put it on,” him is antecedent to whom;—that you is always plural;—that a noun may be of the first person;—that nouns connected by and, always require a plural verb; that there are three, and only three, distinctions in regard to sex;—that a is never to be used before a vowel, and an never before a consonant;—that first, second, &c. are numerals;—that the positive is a degree of comparison;—that an adverb forms part of an adjective;—that the participle is not a mode or manner of representing the verb;—that in the expressions, “He goes,” “If he goes,” the verb, although of the same form and meaning, is of different modes,—that a verb may be, at the same time, of two modes; as “If I could go;”—that tenses are merely distinctions of time, and therefore, there are six divisions of time;—that the imperative, infinitive, and participial modes, have distinctions of time;—that the potential mode has no futures;—that shall and will are always indicative;—that as, and other such conjunctions, show opposition of meaning;—that the subject of a verb always consists of a single word;—that there are but three cases or relations of substantives;—that the case independent is always of the second person;—that ours, yours, &c. are possessive cases;—that the possessive case is governed by*

the following word;—that the comparative always compares *two* things, and that the latter term of comparison should never include the former;—that infinitives are governed by nouns, conjunctions, &c.—that the infinitive loses its sign after the participles *made, seen, heard, &c.*—that in the sentence, “I wish you to ride,” *you* and *to ride* are governed separately;—that in the sentence, “It is to be,” *to be* is governed by *is*;—that verbs connected by conjunctions should *always* be of the same mode and tense;—that *dozen, hundred, &c.* are adjectives; that *a* may belong to plural nouns; as, “a men;”—that *like, unlike, near, up, down, off, &c.* are prepositions; &c. &c. &c. All these errors, and many others, are here corrected.

2. *The prevailing systems do not contain some important principles* and remarks, without which language cannot be analyzed. Every teacher will bear witness, that he finds many constructions, not noticed in our grammars. Most of these omissions, we think, are here supplied. To make this grammar complete, we have thoroughly examined every author on the subject, to whom we could gain access, such as Lowth, Horne Tooke, Murray, Blair, Perry, Prof. Coote, Webster 2, Ingersol 2, Fisk, Brown, Kirkham, Greene, Pond, Wilbur and Bryant, Parker and Fox, Sanborn, Clarke, Alexander, Parkhurst, Dearborn, Frost, Balch, Smith, Clagget, Cobbet, Greenleaf, and several others; and we have endeavored to combine and concentrate the excellencies of them all. We have also, from time to time, consulted some of the best teachers in the State upon doubtful points. Orthography and Prosody, as well as the other parts, are made much more full and practical, than in any of our books.

3. *The prevailing systems are too complex and diffuse.* Too many unimportant points are brought forward, and too many things are treated in the obscure and obsolete style of the dead languages. This fault we have labored to remove, especially in relation to the *verb*; while at the same time, we have aimed to avoid all unnecessary innovation.

4. *The prevailing systems are very deficient in classification and arrangement.* Critical discussions, notes, questions, and exercises, are all brought together on the same page with the first principles of the language, serving merely to confuse the mind. But here, all criticisms are thrown into the appendix, and the questions and exercises are made the second part of the book, which any teacher may use or not, as he pleases; leaving the principles of the language, arranged in the simplest and clearest manner, and covering but thirty-four small pages, to be studied and referred to at pleasure. These principles are numbered for convenient reference, and the most important are printed with a larger type. The exercises con-

tain two courses ; the first upon the large type, for beginners ; the other upon the whole grammar, for more advanced scholars. The language as thus treated, remains no longer, as some represent it, a Babel of confusion, filled up with anomalies and exceptions, and containing the dregs of every tongue ; but a fair and simple edifice, convenient in all its parts, and capable of a comparison with the proudest languages of modern times.

The work has been in progress for about five years, and has been taught to persons of all ages, to teachers and to pupils, by all of whom, as well as by those who have carefully examined it, it has been highly approved.

We suspect the first question with many will be—do you innovate ? We answer—we do *in some respects*. If we did not, if we followed exactly in the steps of our predecessors, we would not trouble the public with a book. As we profess to combine the excellencies of all systems, we can hardly be expected to agree exactly with any one of them. But it is believed, that in those points, upon which we differ most from the common methods, we have the sanction of the ablest critics who have written upon the language ; and experience has shown that those points need not cause the least confusion in the minds of those, who have already attended to other systems.

Great pains have been taken in the mechanical execution of the book. Yet a few unimportant typographical and verbal errors will be found in some of the copies ; but, less, it is believed, than are commonly found in such works. We do not profess to have attained perfection ; for we have found too many errors even in the most pretending systems, to imagine that we are free from defects.

With these remarks, the work is submitted to the public, in the hope that it may be of some service to the cause of common education.

S. B. G.

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TO TEACHERS.

As this work has some peculiarities, it is recommended to the instructor to examine it throughout, before he commences teaching it. If the second part is used, let beginners, and those little acquainted with the subject, commence at the first course, and, when they are familiar with this, proceed to the second. Those more advanced may begin at once upon the second course. Let each recitation be opened with a review of the previous lessons, particularly the last, and closed with a full explanation of the succeeding lesson. In recitation, let each point be carefully explained and illustrated to the comprehension of every pupil, and let nothing be passed over till it is perfectly understood. In parsing, it is far better to go through with a few sentences repeatedly, till the manner of parsing them is familiar, than to wander over a large number of exercises.

In the second course, questions are not given; because in this stage of the study, they are found to be, on the whole, a disadvantage to the teacher, and to the scholars. The teacher insensibly becomes confined to these printed questions, and the scholar often passes over his lesson, repeating a form of words, without any understanding of the subject. Let the teacher ask such questions as he thinks best, and as the circumstances require, and let the pupil be encouraged to give the answers, especially those from the smaller type, in his own language, rather than in the exact words of the book. Then let him parse the corresponding exercises of the first course, and those of the second; after which, he will correct the false grammar, stating fully his reasons at each step.

* * It is found very much to facilitate scholars, to cause them to recite, when it is possible, *simultaneously*. In this manner, the list of definitives, the conjugation of verbs, the declension of substantives, &c. may be very easily and pleasantly learned. The rules of Syntax also may be divided into measures, and repeated by the whole, the teacher beating the time, as in music. The author has even had a class of fifty, who would *parse* whole paragraphs simultaneously, according to the table on page 100, without the least discord or mistake.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the science which teaches the correct use of the English language.

2. It has four parts:—ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, ORTHOGRAPHY, and PROSODY.

3. Etymology treats of *words*, Syntax of *sentences*; Orthography teaches correct *writing*, and Prosody correct *utterance* and the laws of poetry.

I. ETYMOLOGY.

4. ETYMOLOGY treats of words, their different kinds, their changes, and their derivation.

5. All words may be divided into *four general classes*: SUBSTANTIVES, ADJECTIVES, VERBS, and PARTICLES.

6. (i.) Substantives are all words which represent *persons, places, or things*, including nouns and pronouns.

7. (ii.) Adjectives are all words *added to substantives* to show how far their signification extends, including Definitives and Descriptives. (59, 72.)

8. (iii.) Verbs are all words which serve to *make statements*, denoting either being or action.

9. (iv.) Particles are all less necessary words of different kinds, used to show the *nice distinctions of meaning*, including Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

10. Thus there are in all *nine* divisions of words, called *parts of speech*,—Nouns, Pronouns, Definitives, Descriptives, Verbs, Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections.

I. SUBSTANTIVES.

11. Substantives are all words which represent persons, places, or things, including Nouns and Pronouns.

12. Nouns are the *names* of all persons, places, and things; and Pronouns are words used *instead of* these names.

I. NOUNS.

13. Nouns are the *names* of all persons, places, and things: as, *George, Boston, man, multitude, mercy*.—They are of *three* kinds,—*Proper, Common, and Abstract*.

14. (I.) A *proper noun* is the name of some individual object; as, *George, Boston, April*.

15. (II.) A *common noun* is the name of a whole class of objects; as, *man, town, month*.

16. Some common nouns are called *collective*, because they denote a collection of objects considered together; as *crowd, herd, number, dozen, hundred*.

17. We may use a proper noun as common, or a common noun as proper, by prefixing to it some *definitive*; as, 'He is *the Cicero* of his age;' 'The *sun* has risen.'

18. (III.) An *abstract noun* is the name, not of a substance, but of a *quality*; as, *love, justice, weight*.

19. Many nouns are used sometimes as proper, sometimes as common, and sometimes as abstract; as, 'Thus spake *Reason*;' 'I gave my *reasons*;' 'He was deprived of *reason*.'

II. PRONOUNS.

20. Pronouns are words used *instead of names*, to avoid their too frequent repetition; as, 'George, ask John, if *he* will assist *you*.'—They are of two kinds, *Personal* and *Relative* pronouns.

21. (I.) Personal pronouns are such as show exactly what person is meant. They are six, *I, thou, you, he, she, it.* (Plurals, *we, ye, you, they.*)

22. The words *it* and *there* are frequently used in a rather indefinite manner, and may then be called *Indefinite Pronouns*; as, '*It* rains;' '*How is it* with you?' '*There* is no peace;' '*What need was there* of it?' They generally represent some word which comes after them.

23. (II.) Relative Pronouns are such as relate directly to other words, and serve to connect sentences. They are three, *who, which, and that.*

24. When *which* relates to the Adjective *that* or *those*, the two words are usually contracted into *what*, which is hence called a *compound* relative; as, '*He knows what* is right;' or, '*He knows that which* is right.'

25. *Who, which, and what*, frequently have the terminations, *so, ever, and soever* added to them. They are then called *compound* relatives, and are equivalent to *he who, that which, &c.*; as, '*Whoever* drinks must die;' or, '*He who* drinks must die.'

26. *Who*, when it asks a question, may be called an *Interrogative* pronoun. The word to which it relates is then in the answer; as, '*Who* comes here?' *John.*'

27. The word for which a pronoun stands, and to which it relates, if it comes before the pronoun, is called its *antecedent*; if after the pronoun, its *subsequent*.

PROPERTIES OF SUBSTANTIVES.

28. To substantives belong *person, number, and gender.*

I. PERSON.

29. (I.) A substantive which represents the *speaker* is said to be of the *first person*. The only word properly of this kind is *I*, (plural, *we.*)

30. (II.) A substantive which represents the person *spoken to*, is said to be of the *second person*. The only words properly of this kind are *you* and *thou*, (plural, *ye.*)

31. *You* is used in common style, and *thou* (plural *ye*.) in solemn style. (240.)

32. (III.) A substantive which represents the person or thing *spoken about*, is said to be of the *third person*. This includes all the nouns, and the pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, (plural *they*.) and *which*.

33. The pronouns *who* and *that* may be of any person, to agree with their antecedents or subsequents. (227.)

34. A noun is sometimes put in the second person to denote a *direct address*; as, '*John*, study your lesson.'

II. NUMBER.

35. Substantives have two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*. The singular number denotes *one* object, the plural *more than one*; as, *boy*, *house*, *tree*, singular; *boys*, *houses*, *trees*, plural.

36. Most *nouns* become plural by the addition of *s* to their singular; as, *boy*, *house*, *tree*, singular; *boys*, *houses*, *trees*, plural.

37. But nouns ending in *s*, *ss*, *x*, *sh*, *ch* soft, and *o* with a consonant before it, take *es* to form the plural, as, *miss*, *misses*; *box*, *boxes*; *lash*, *lashes*; *church*, *churches*; *hero*, *heroes*.

38. Nouns ending in *y* with a consonant before it, change the *y* into *ies*; as, *beauty*, *beauties*; *glory*, *glories*. But not so when preceded by a vowel; as, *day*, *days*.

39. Many nouns ending in single *f* or *fe*, change those terminations into *ves*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *wife*, *wives*; also, *staff*, *staves*.

40. The following are irregular plurals: *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *child*, *children*; *brother*, *brethren*; *ox*, *oxen*; *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *louse*, *lice*; *mouse*, *mice*; *penny*, *pence*; *die*, *dice*.

41. Many nouns from other languages form their plurals as in the original. Thus, *um* and *on* are changed into *a*, *is* into *es*, *x* into *icis*, *us* into *i*; as, *stratum*, *strata*; *axis*, *axes*; *index*, *indices*; *focus*, *foci*. The following also are foreign plurals: *cherub*, *cherubim*; *seraph*, *seraphim*; *genus*, *genera*; *stamen*, *stamina*; *lamina*, *laminae*; *beau*, *beaux*; *bandit*, *banditti*.

42. Some of the foregoing words have also regular plurals; as, *brothers*, *pennies* (coins,) *dies* (for coining,) *appendixes*, *enco-*

miums, indexes (pointers, tables of contents,) *geniuses* (persons of genius,) *memorandums, cherubs, seraphs, bandits*.

43. In compound nouns, that part which is most distinguishing should take the plural; as, *basketful, basketfuls; Miss Jones, Misses Jones; son-in-law, sons-in-law*.

44. A *collective* noun has a regular plural number. But when the individuals included are to be taken separately, the singular too has the meaning and construction of a plural; as, 'The *crowd* raise their voices.'

45. Some nouns have no plural; as, *butter, wheat, pitch, gold, news, sloth*. This is the case with proper and abstract nouns, used as such.

46. Some nouns have no singular; as, *bellows, scissors, tongs, embers, oats, clothes, calends, nones, ides, matins, vespers, orgies, amends, lungs, riches, pains, alms, nuptials, optics, &c.*; and some from the Latin; as, *antipodes, credenda, literati, minutia*.

47. The *relative pronouns* have the same form in both numbers. Also some nouns; as, *deer, sheep, swine, means, hiatus, apparatus, series, species, hose, wages*. A pronoun's number is known by that of its antecedent. (227.)

48. Such nouns as the following frequently have the same form in both numbers: *dozen, hundred, thousand, fish, herring, head, cannon, sail*; as, 'Two *hundred barrel of fish*;' 'Twenty *head of cattle*;' 'Ten *sail of vessels*.'

49. The *personal pronouns* form their plurals thus: *I, we; thou, ye; you, you; he, she, and it,—they*.

50. Two or more singulars connected by *and* form one plural, unless they mean the same thing, or are to be separately considered; as, 'He and she are *two*;' 'That *philosopher and poet* was *one*;' 'Each doctor and lawyer is *one*.'

III. GENDER.

51. (I.) A substantive which denotes a *male*, is said to be of the *masculine gender*; as, *king, man, brother*.

52. (II.) A substantive which denotes a *female*, is said to be of the *feminine gender*; as, *queen, woman, sister*.

53. (III.) A substantive which denotes *neither* a male

nor a female, is said to be of *neuter gender*; as, *house, tree, month*.

54. (IV.) A substantive which denotes *either* a male or a female, is said to be of *common gender*; as, *parent, child, cat*.

55. The pronoun *he* is masculine, *she* feminine, *it* neuter. *I, thou, you,* and *who,* are common, and *which* and *that* may be of any gender. But a pronoun is always of the same gender as its antecedent. (227.)

56. A collective noun, when the individuals are taken separately, is of the same gender as they are; but when they are taken collectively, it is neuter.

II. ADJECTIVES.

57. Adjectives are all words added to substantives, to show how far their signification extends, including Definitives and Descriptives.

58. Definitives are words which *define*, and descriptives are words which *describe*.

I. DEFINITIVES.

59. Definitives are words which *define* or limit the meaning of substantives; as, *a man, the dog, every day, that horse*.

60. The following are the principal definitives; *an, one, another, much, this, that, each, every, either,* and *neither*, singular; — *these, those, both, few, many, several, two, three, (&c.)* plural; — *the, former, latter, own, very, same, some, any, other, all, such, no, none, which, what, first, second, (&c.)* of both numbers.

61. *An* becomes *a* before a *consonant sound*;* as, *a house, a union (yunion,) a one (wun.)*

62. But not before a word beginning with *h* and accented on the second syllable; as, *an heroic action, an historical poem.*

63. *These* is formed from *this*, *those* from *that*, *another* from *an other*, *neither* from *not either*, *none* from *no one*; yet this last may be used as plural; as, 'None other men.'

64. Like *which* and *what*, their compounds are often used as adjectives; as, 'Whichever way you go;' 'Whatever things are lovely.'

65. (I.) ARTICLES. This name is given to the words *a* or *an* and *the*, which are very much used to limit nouns. *A* or *an* means the same as *one*, and is called the Indefinite article. *The* means something like *that*, and is called the Definite article.

66. (II.) DEMONSTRATIVES. This name is given to the words *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*, &c., on account of their definite meaning.

67. (III.) INDEFINITES. This name is given to the words *some*, *one*, *any*, *other*, *all*, *such*, &c., on account of their indefinite meaning.

68. (IV.) DISTRIBUTIVES. This name is given to the words *each*, *every*, *either*, and *neither*, because they represent things taken one by one. The word *many* is sometimes so used; as, 'Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.'

69. (V.) NUMERALS. This name is given to the words *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c., because they denote *number*.

70. (VI.) ORDINALS. This name is given to the words *first*, *second*, *third*, &c., because they denote *order*.

71. Most definitives may be used with the substantive understood; as, 'Some [*people*] think that one [*thing*] is as good as another.' [*thing*] (147.) (287.)

II. DESCRIPTIVES.

72. Descriptives are words which *describe* or qualify the meaning of substantives; as, *good men, tall trees, eternal wisdom.*

* A *consonant sound* is the sound of any letter except *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u*.

73. There are a few words which may be called either definitives or descriptives, such as *few*, *many*, *much*, *enough*.

74. Many descriptives, especially short ones, have *three forms* to represent different degrees of the quality; as, *great*, *greater*, *greatest*. (83.)

75. (I.) The *positive* form represents the quality in its positive or simple state; as, *the tall tree*, *the wise man*.

76. (II.) The *comparative* form represents the quality in its comparative or increased degree; as, *a taller tree*, *a wiser man*.

77. (III.) The *superlative* form represents the quality in its superlative or highest degree; as, *the tallest tree*, *the wisest man*.

78. The comparative and superlative are formed from the positive, by adding *er* and *est*, (or *r* and *st* if the positive end in *e*); as, *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*; *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*.

79. If the positive end in *y*, that letter in the other forms is changed to *i*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*.

80. Some superlatives are formed by adding *most* to their positives, which resemble comparatives; as, *former*, *foremost* or *first*; *hinder*, *hindmost* or *hindmost*; *inner*, *innermost* or *inmost*; *outer*, *outermost* or *outmost*; *utter*, *utmost* or *utmost*; *upper*, *uppermost*; *under*, *undermost*; *nether*, *nethermost*; so *topmost*, *headmost*, &c.

81. The following words have their forms irregular; *good*, *better*, *best*; *bad*, *worse*, *worst*; *little*, *less*, *least*; *much* or *many*, *more*, *most*. *Next* and *last* are superlatives of *near* and *late*. *Elder* and *eldest* mean the same as *older* and *oldest*.

82. The termination *ish* is sometimes added to words, forming what may be called the *imperfect* form; as, *whitish*, *reddish*.

83. Another common way of expressing the degrees of quality, is by means of adverbs prefixed to the descriptive; as, *gentle*, *more gentle*, *most gentle*, *less gentle*, *very gentle*, &c. But double degrees should be avoided; such as, *most wisest*, *betterer*.

84. Descriptives which in themselves denote fixedness, do not admit of degrees, or of the adverbs *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, which express degrees. Thus we should say *nearer perfect*, not *more perfect*; *nearest round*, not *rounder*.

III. VERBS.

85. Verbs are all words which serve to *make statements*, denoting either being or action; as, 'I *am*;' 'He *studies*.' They are of two kinds, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.

86. (I.) A *transitive* verb is one which *affects* (or plainly may affect) *an object*; as, 'He *studies his lesson*.'

87. (II.) An *intransitive* verb is one which does *not affect an object*; as, 'I *am*;' 'George *walks*.'

88. The intransitive verb *be*, (of which *am, art, is, are, was, were, been*, are variations,) is sometimes called the *substantive verb* or *copula*, since it denotes simple existence, and serves to couple terms together.

89. Some verbs may be used either as transitive or as intransitive; as, 'She *faded the cloth* in the sun;' 'The cloth *faded* in the sun.'

90. Some verbs, otherwise intransitive, may affect an object signifying the same as themselves or their subjects; as, 'To *run a race*;' 'He *ran himself* to death;' 'The curfew *tolls the knell* of parting day.'

91. Auxiliary or helping verbs are those by the help of which the meaning of other verbs is varied, they being considered as parts of those verbs. They are *do, have, may, can, shall, will, must*; (with their variations *did, had, might, could, should, would*;) as, 'I *do* move;' 'I *have* moved;' 'I *shall have* moved.'

92. The verbs *do, have, and will* are used also as simple verbs; as, 'I *have* it;' 'I *did* it;' 'He *willed* away his property.'

MODES.

93. Modes are particular forms of the verb, showing the *mode* or *manner* in which the being or action is represented. There are five modes, the *Indicative, the Po-*

tential, the *Imperative*, the *Infinitive*, and the *Participial*.

94. (I.) The *indicative* mode simply *indicates* or *declares*; as, 'I *move*;' 'I *do move*.'

95. (II.) The *potential* mode implies possibility, power, will, or obligation; as, 'I *may move*;' 'I *can move*;' 'I *will move*;' 'I *must move*.'

96. There are *four* ways in which the *indicative* and *potential* modes may be used;—1, the *affirmative*; as, 'I *come*;' 'I *can come*.'—2, the *negative*; as, 'I *come not*;' 'I *cannot come*.'—3, the *interrogative*; as, 'Come I?' 'Can I *come*?'—4, the *subjunctive*, or *doubtful*; as, 'If I *come*;' 'If I *can come*.' (188.)

97. (III.) The *imperative* mode *commands*, *exhorts*, or *permits*; as, '*Move* thou;' '*Do* thou *move*.'

98. (IV.) The *infinitive* mode represents the verb in a *general* and *indefinite* manner; as, '*To move*;' '*To have moved*.'

99. (V.) The *participial* mode represents the verb as *participating* of the nature of an adjective, and is either *active* or *passive*.

100. A participle *active* represents a thing as *really being* or *acting*; as, 'A body *moving*, or *having moved*.'

101. A participle *passive* represents a thing as *being acted upon*; as, 'The body *being moved*.' It belongs only to *transitive* verbs.

102. But an *intransitive* participle, by the addition of a particle, may become a *compound passive participle*; as, 'You are *smiled upon*.'

103. Infinitives may generally be known by their sign *to*, and participles by their termination *ing*. These two modes always have the nature of substantives or of adjectives, and the same relations in sentences. (248, 257.) The other modes are called *finite*, because their meaning is always limited to particular substantives.

TENSES.

104. Tenses are particular forms of the verb, showing the *time* and completeness with which the being or action is represented.

105. There are three divisions of time, *present*, *past*, and *future*. Each of these divisions has two tenses, a *perfect* and an *imperfect*.

106. Thus there are *six* tenses, the *imperfect present*, the *perfect present*; the *imperfect past*, the *perfect past*; the *imperfect future*, and the *perfect future*.

107. The imperfect tenses represent the being or action as *unfinished*, and the perfect tenses represent it as *finished*.

108. The perfect tenses may be known by their auxiliary *have* or *had*, which shows perfection. Thus, *I have moved*, *I had moved*, *I shall have moved*, are perfect; *I move*, *I did move*, *I shall move*, are imperfect.

109. The indicative and potential modes have all the six tenses. The other modes have no distinctions, except as *perfect* or *imperfect*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

110. Every verb has *three principal parts*, (marked 1, 2, 3, in the table,) from which all the other parts are formed.

111. From the first principal part the imperfect tenses are formed, from the third part the perfect tenses.

112. The second and third parts generally are alike. When they are formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the first part, the verb is said to be *regular*; as, *move*, *moved*; *walk*, *walked*. Otherwise the verb is called *irregular*; as, *find*, *found*; *bleed*, *bled*.

113. Naming all the parts of a verb in their regular order, is called *conjugating* it.

114. CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB MOVE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PAST,	IMPERFECT.	PERFECT.
PRESENT,	<i>did move (1.) or moved. (2.)</i>	<i>had moved. (3.)</i>
FUTURE,	<i>do " or move.</i>	<i>have " "</i>
	<i>shall or will " "</i>	<i>shall or will have " "</i>

POTENTIAL MODE.

PAST,	<i>might, could, would, should " "</i>	<i>might, could, would, should have " "</i>
PRESENT,	<i>may, can, or must " "</i>	<i>may, can, or must have " "</i>
FUTURE,	<i>shall or will " "</i>	<i>shall or will have " "</i>

IMPERATIVE MODE.


do " or move.

INFINITIVE MODE.

to " " to have " "

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

ACTIVE,	<i>moving.</i>	<i>having " "</i>
PASSIVE,		<i>moved, or being " "</i>

[ For numbers and persons, see 240, 241.]

Remarks.

115. Any verb may be conjugated by putting it instead of *move* in the foregoing table; as, *love* or *do love*, *loved* or *did love*, &c.

116. But the verb *be* has several forms in the first two tenses:—Past, *was*, *were*; Present, *am*, *art*, *is*, *are*.

117. The tenses are frequently variable as to time, especially in the potential mode; as, 'You must go to-night;' 'If I should go;' 'We leave next week.'

118. The auxiliaries *shall* and *will*, when they denote simple futurity, belong to the indicative mode; when they denote determination, they belong to the potential mode; as, 'I shall go;' 'He will go;' *indicative*; 'I will go;' 'He shall go;' *potential*.

119. The conjugation of the verb as exhibited in the table, is the common form. It will be perceived that the first two tenses have an additional form with *do*, *did*, called the *emphatic* form of expression.

120. To denote *continued* being or action, we join the imperfect participle to different parts of the verb *be*; as, 'I am moving;' 'To be moving.' This is sometimes called the *participial* form of expression.

121. To denote the *receiving of an action*, we join the *passive* participle to different parts of the verb *be*; as, 'I am moved;' 'To be moved.' This is sometimes called the *passive* form of expression.

122. The passive participle is generally united to the verb *be*, but should be parsed separately. It is perfect in form, but is often imperfect in meaning. An active participle is sometimes used as passive; as, 'The house is *building*.' But this is best avoided.

123. List of Irregular Verbs.

- (1.) The following have all the parts alike: *rid*, *burst*, *cast*, *cost*, *thrust*, *cut*, *shut*, *put*, *hit*, *spit*, *split*, *hurt*, *let*, *set*, *read*, *shed*, *shred*, *spread*, *knit* r, *heat* r, *beat* [en], *bid* [den.]
- (2.) The following change the last letter to *t* to form the second and third parts: *lose*, *lend*, *rend*, *send*, *spend*, *bend* r, *build* r, *gild* r, *gird* r.
- (3.) The following add *t*: *deal*, *mean*, *dream* r.
- (4.) The following change the vowels to *e* and add *t*: *creep* [crept,] *sleep*, *keep*, *weep*, *feel*, *kneel*.
- (5.) The following change the vowels to *e*: *bleed* [bled,] *breed*, *feed*, *speed*, *lead*, *meet*, *hold*, *sweat* r.

- (6.) The following change the vowels to *o*: *shoot* [shot,] *win*, *abide*, *shine* r, *choose* [en,] *freeze* [en,] *weave* [en,] *tread* [en,] *get* [en,] *forget* [en.]
- (7.) The following change the vowels to *o* and add *e*: *break* [broke-n,] *speak*, *steal*.
- (8.) The following change the vowels to *u*: *spin* [spun,] *cling*, *fling*, *slung*, *sting*, *swing*, *wring*, *slink*, *shrink*, *dig*, *stick*, *strike*, *string* r, *hang* r. But the following have *a* instead of *u* in the second part: *run* [ran, run,] *begin*, *drink*; and the following *a* or *u*: *sink* [sank or sunk, sunk,] *swim*, *sing*, *ring*, *spring*.
- (9.) The following change the vowel to *ou*: *bind* [bound,] *find*, *grind*, *wind*.
- (10.) The following drop *e*: *chide* [chid-den,] *hide* [en,] *stride* [en,] *slide* [en,] *bite* [en.]
- (11.) The following change the termination to *ought*: *buy*, [bought,] *besech*, *bring*, *fight*, *seek*, *think*, *work* [wrought.]
- (12.) The following also are irregular: *catch*, *caught* r; *teach*, *taught*; *pay*, *paid*; *lay*, *laid*; *say*, *said*; *leave*, *left*; *reave*, *reft*; *bereave*, *bereft*; *sell*, *sold*; *tell*, *told*; *shoe*, *shod*; *flee*, *fled*; *have*, *had*; *hear*, *heard*; *make*, *made*; *sit*, *sat*; *stand*, *stood*; *clothe*, *clad* r.
- (13.) The following have all the parts different:
Drive, *drove*, *driven*; so — *ride*, *rise*, *arise*, *smite*, *write*, *stride*, *strive* r.
Swear, *swore*, *sworn*; so — *tear*, *wear*, *bear*, (*bore*, *borne*, to carry; but *bare* or *bore*, *borne*, to bring forth.)
Fly, *flew*, *flown*; so — *grow*, *know*, *blow*, *throw* r.
Take, *took*, *taken*; so — *shake*, *forsake*. *Come*, *came*, *come*. *Do*, *did*, *done*. *Go*, *went*, *gone*. *BE*, *WAS*, *BEEN*.
Lie, *lay*, *lain*. *Slay*, *slew*, *slain*. *See*, *saw*, *seen*. *Fall*, *fell*, *fallen*; *Eat*, *eat* or *ate*, *eaten*. *Draw*, *drew*, *drawn*.
Cleave, *clove* or *cleft*, *cloven* or *cleft* (to split.) *Bid*, *bade*, *bidden*. *Give*, *gave*, *given*.
- (14.) Some reg. verbs have an irregular third part sometimes used, ending in *n*; as, *Show*, *shown*; *lade*, *laden*; *wax*, *waxen*; *strow*, *strown*; *mow*, *mown*; *sow*, *sown*; *swell*, *swollen*; *grave*, *graven*; *load*, *laden*; *rive*, *riven*; *saw*, *sawn*; *shape*, *shapen*; *shave*, *shaven*; *shear*, *shorn*. Thus also *crow* sometimes has its second part *crew*, *awake* has *awoke*, *dare* has *durst*.
- (15.) In regular verbs *ed* is frequently, though improperly, contracted into *t*; as, *spelt* for *spelled*, *spilt* for *spilled*. It is most allowable in the passive participle.
- (16.) Some verbs have irregular forms not now in good use; as, *holpen*, *bounden*, *gat*, *brake*, *ware*, *swang*, *holden*, *molten*, *quod*.

(17.) A few verbs are *defective*, that is, have no third part. Such are the auxiliaries *may, might; can, could; shall, should; will, would*; and the verb *ought, ought*. *Quoth* is used only in the second part, *must* in the first part, and *wont* as a passive participle.

NOTE. Those words in the foregoing list which have an *r*, admit also of the *regular* form. Those with [*en,*] have that termination added to the *third part*, either always, or in some cases.

IV. PARTICLES.

124. Particles are all less necessary words of different kinds, used to show the nice distinctions of meaning, including Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections,

I. ADVERBS.

125. Adverbs are words *added to verbs*, and sometimes to other words, to qualify their meaning; as, 'It now rains *very violently*.'

126. Adverbs may be divided into different kinds, thus:

- (1.) Of time; as, *now, before, already, presently, often, when, ever, &c.*
- (2.) Of place; as, *here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, &c.*
- (3.) Of number; as, *once, twice, thrice, again, first, secondly, &c.*
- (4.) Of assertion; as, *not, truly, indeed, perhaps, &c.*
- (5.) Of cause; as, *why, wherefore, therefore, whence, how, &c.*
- (6.) Of manner; as, *well, ill, how, prudently, wisely, greatly, &c.*
- (7.) Of degree; as, *very, quite, exceedingly, so, too, much, rather, &c.*

127. Many adverbs are formed from other words; as, *wisely, herein, whenever, afoot, &c.*

128. A few adverbs have degrees like descriptives; as, *much, more, most; soon, sooner, soonest; little, less, least, &c.* But double degrees should be avoided,

II. CONJUNCTIONS.

129. Conjunctions are words which *conjoin* or connect words and sentences; as, 'You *and* he did it, *but* not properly.'

130. The following are the principal conjunctions:—*and, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore; but, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, except, save, either, neither, whether, yet, notwithstanding, nevertheless.*

131. When a word in a sentence has the effect both of a conjunction, and of an adverb, it may be called an *adverbial conjunction*, and qualifies both sentences; as, 'He did it *when* he pleased.'

III. PREPOSITIONS.

132. Prepositions are words *placed before* substantives to show their relation to other words; as, 'He sat *with* a book *in* his hand.'

133. The following are the most common prepositions:—*of, by, at, for, from; in, to, into; on, upon; with, within, without; over, above; under, below, beneath; through, between, among; before, behind, after, beyond; about, beside, against, across.*

134. The following also are prepositions:—*amid or amidst, amongst, round or around, athwart, betwixt, concerning, during, except, excepting, maugre, notwithstanding, since, till or until, touching, toward or towards, throughout, underneath.*

IV. INTERJECTIONS.

135. Interjections are words which express sudden emotions of the mind; as, *O! oh! ah! alas! pish! avaunt! lo! hark! yes! no! hail! &c.*

136. Interjections were the first cries of man, before speech was invented; so that in proportion as language becomes full and perfect, they disappear. They should be used very seldom and with care.

Phrases.

137. A phrase is the union of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single word, thus ;

138. (I.) A *substantive phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single substantive ; as, 'That you are guilty is evident.' 'She is handsome, and she knows it.' 'I wish you to ride.'

139. (II.) An *adjective phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single adjective ; as, 'A light blue color.' 'The first two stanzas.'

140. (III.) A *verbal phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single verb ; as, 'It is to be.' 'It appears to be.'

141. (IV.) An *adverbial phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single adverb ; as, at least, not at all, by and by, the more, the better, methinks.

142. (V.) A *conjunctive phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single conjunction ; as, as if, as though.

143. (VI.) A *prepositional phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single preposition ; as, out of, over against, nearly in.

144. (VII.) An *interjectional phrase* consists of two or more words having the nature and construction of a single interjection ; as, 'Alas to me ! I am undone.'

Different uses of the same word.

145. Many words may be used either as substantives, as adjectives, or as verbs ; as, 'A great calm.' 'A calm day.' 'To calm a storm.'

146. Substantives, when they describe, become adjectives ; as, *waterpail*, *sugar-loaf*.

147. Adjectives, when their substantives are understood, may become substantives ; as, 'The aged are sedate.' 'All is over.'

148. When thus used, *descriptives* are generally plural, and preceded by *the* ; *few*, *many*, and all *numerals*, have a collective sense ; and *one*, *other*, *former*, *latter*, and *comparatives*, are

varied like substantives; as, '*The good* are beloved.' '*Six* is the half of *twelve*.' '*The many* are led on by *the few*.' '*The little ones*.' *Others, betters, superiors.*

149. Any word, when used as the name of itself, becomes a noun; as, '*To* is a preposition.'

150. An adverb or other part of speech, may become an interjection; as, *how! really! strange!*

151. A preposition without a substantive becomes an adverb; as, '*To ride about*.' '*To give over* all effort.'

152. A participle sometimes becomes a preposition; as, *concerning, notwithstanding, bating, touching.*

153. An adverb is sometimes used as a noun; as, '*From there to here*.' '*It comes from above*.'

154. The relative *who* is used as an interrogative; and the preposition *to* is used as the sign of the infinitive.

155. The words *which, what, whichever, whatever, &c.*, may be either relative pronouns or adjectives; as, '*The thing which*.' '*Which thing*.'

156. The word *that* may be either a relative pronoun, an adjective, or a conjunction; as, '*He said that* he should punish *that* boy *that* did it.'

157. The words *else, only, ill, well, much, little, near, &c.* may be either adjectives or adverbs; as, '*Who else* was there?' '*How else* could I do?'

158. The words *either, neither, and both*, may be either adjectives or conjunctions; as, '*Both* men.' '*He both* eat and slept.'

159. The word *no* may be either an adjective or an interjection; as, '*Can no* person go? *No!* it is impossible.'

160. The word *needs* may be either a verb or an adverb; as, '*He needs* your help.' '*He must needs* go through *Sa-maria*.'

161. The words *but, as, well, yet, still, since, then, therefore, consequently, &c.*, may be either adverbs or conjunctions; as, '*He could but* go, *but* he came back.'

162. The words *for* and *but* may be either conjunctions or prepositions; as, '*I shall not strive for* it, *for* it is wrong.'

Derivation.

163. All words are either *primitive* or *derivative*. A primitive word is one which cannot be reduced to any simpler word in the language; as, *good, content*. A derivative word is one which is derived from another word; as, *goodness, contentment*. Words are derived from others in three ways, viz.

164. (I.) Many words are formed by uniting together other words; as, *penknife*, *notwithstanding*, *another*, *neither*, *none*, *myself*, *whoever*, *whenever*. Such words are called *compounds*, and when the parts are inseparable are called *permanent compounds*.

165. Thus when a substantive is used to describe another substantive, the two words are sometimes united by a *hyphen* into one; as, *pen-knife*, *ink-stand*.

166. Thus also many adverbs are formed by uniting words; as, *hereof*, *thereto*, *whereby*, *therefore* [*there for*.] Many of these are not much used.

167. Thus also many adverbs are formed by prefixing *a*, (meaning *at*, *on*, &c.,) to nouns; as, *ashore*, *afoot*, *asleep*.

168. Thus also many words are formed by adding *so*, *ever*, and *soever* to other words; as, *whoso*, *whichever*, *whenever*, *wheresoever*.

169. Thus also many verbs (and other words,) are formed by prefixing prepositions to other words; as, *uphold*, *intend*, *overlook*. The same effect is produced by putting the preposition (as an adverb,) after the verb; as, *to fall on*, *to cast up*. The prepositions are frequently inseparable; as, *unthinking*, *predispose*.

170. (II.) Many words are formed by adding new terminations to other words, or by changing the original terminations; as, *grand*, *grandeur*; *splendor*, *splendid*.

171. Thus many feminine substantives are formed from masculines by changing the termination, generally into *ix* or *ess*; as, *administrator*, *administratrix*; *priest*, *priestess*.

172. Thus also many substantives are formed by adding *ness*, *ment*, *dom*, *ric*, *hood*, *ship*, *age*, *ity*, *ite*, *ate*, *ret*, *cy*, to other words; as, *goodness*, *contentment*, *kingdom*, *bishopric*, *piesthood*, *friendship*, *hermitage*.

173. Thus also many adjectives are formed from substantives by adding *some*, *ly*, *y*, *full*, *less*, and *ous*; as, *gladsome*, *manly*, *healthy*, *joyful*, *joyous*, *joyless*. In this case, *ful*, *y*, *ous*, and *some*, imply *abundance*; *less*, *want*; and *ly*, *likeness*.

174. Thus also some verbs are formed from other words by adding a termination; as *short*, *to shorten*; *like*, *to liken*; *glad*, *to gladden*.

175. Thus also some nouns are formed from verbs by changing the termination; as, *to visit*, *visiter*; *to love*, *lover*; *to walk*, *walker*.

176. Thus also many adverbs of manner, and some others, are formed from adjectives, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly*; as, *wisely*, *gently*.

177. (III.) Many words are formed by changing very much the shape of other words; as, *long, length; strong, strength; grass, graze; glass, glazier*. In this manner words are formed from other languages; as, *Etymology* from the Greek *etymon logos*, *pronoun* from the Latin *pro nomen*, *parlance* from the French *parler*. Thus also, a great part of our present English words, are derived from the ancient Saxon and other languages from which ours originally sprung; as, *an* from *ane* (one,) *if* from *gifan* (grant.) So that, though many words are now considered primitive, very few will be found to be really so, when traced to their origin.

178. NOTE. Derivative words often differ much from the meaning to which their primitives would seem to lead; as, *therefore, understand, cast un*

II. SYNTAX.

179. SYNTAX treats of sentences, and the proper relation of words in them.

SENTENCES.

180. A sentence consists of any number of words properly arranged.

181. (I.) The *subject* of a sentence is that which is said to be or to act, and consists of a single substantive, or of two or more substantives connected by *and*; as, 'The *boy* studies.' 'The *boy and girl* are diligent.' (50.)

182. (II.) The *attribute* of a sentence is the being or action which is *attributed* or applied to the subject, and consists of a single finite verb, (or sometimes of the verb *be* with another word;) as, 'The *boy* studies.' 'The *boy and girl* are diligent.'

183. (III.) All the words and clauses in a sentence which describe the subject, may together be called the *description* of the subject; as, 'The *diligent* boy studies.' 'The *man of true honor* is always respected.'

184. (IV.) All the words and clauses in a sentence which explain the attribute, may together be called the *explanation* of the attribute; as, 'The *boy* *carefully* studies *his lesson*.' 'It is *very* unhealthy *in the city* the *present season*.'

185. Thus all the parts of a sentence are four; the

subject with its *description*, and the *attribute* with its *explanation*. But any sentence is *perfect*, if it have only a subject and an attribute. If either of these is wanting, the sentence is called *imperfect*. Thus,—‘*The dog barks,*’ is perfect; ‘*The towering hills of my native land,*’ is imperfect.

186. A perfect sentence is either *simple* or *compound*.

187. (I.) A *simple* sentence is one which has but one subject and one attribute; as, ‘*The boy studies.*’ ‘*The boy and girl are diligent.*’

188. A sentence may assume five forms, *affirmative, negative, interrogative, subjunctive, imperative.* (96, 97.)

189. (I.) A *affirmative* sentence simply affirms. (II.) A *negative* sentence denies, and is formed by inserting a *not* in an affirmative sentence; as, ‘*I can go.*’ ‘*I cannot go.*’

190. (III.) A *interrogative* sentence is used to ask a question, and its subject follows the attribute; as, ‘*Can I go?*’ ‘*Whither goest thou?*’

191. (IV.) A *subjunctive* sentence is *subjoined* to another sentence. It generally expresses uncertainty, and contains a conjunction *if, though, &c.*; as, ‘*If I could go.*’

192. (V.) A *imperative* sentence commands, exhorts, or permits; and its subject generally follows the attribute, which is in the imperative mode; as, ‘*Go thou.*’ ‘*Come ye.*’ All the other kinds of sentences may be either indicative or potential.

193. (II.) A *compound* sentence consists of two or more simple sentences united, usually by conjunctions; as, ‘*Life is short and death draws near.*’

194. One sentence is sometimes contained within another, as a *description* or *explanation* of it; as, ‘*The man who did this, ought to suffer.*’ This constitutes what may be called a *complex* sentence.

195. The *members* of a sentence are the longer portions separated by colons or semicolons, *clauses* are smaller portions separated by commas; as, ‘*The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master’s crib; but Israel doth not know, my people doth not consider.*’ Here are two members, each of which consists of two clauses.

196. Separating a sentence into its parts, as above, is

called *analyzing* it, and should precede the *parsing* of a sentence.

197. *Parsing* consists in stating all that we know concerning the grammar of a word, and its relation to other words.

RELATIONS OF WORDS.

198. In uniting words into sentences, we should give them such relations to each other as to convey exactly the idea intended. These relations, being founded upon the nature of the human mind, are nearly the same in all languages, and are established by the usage of the best writers in each particular tongue. The following are the principles derived from the established practice of *English* writers.

I. RELATIONS OF SUBSTANTIVES.

199. The relation of a substantive in a sentence is called its *case*. There may be reckoned in English *four* different cases, or relations of a substantive, called the *subjective*, the *possessive*, the *objective*, and the *absolute* cases.

RULE I.

200. THE SUBJECTIVE CASE DENOTES THE SUBJECT OF A VERB; as, 'The *boy* studies.' 'The *boy* and *girl* are diligent.'

RULE II.

201. THE POSSESSIVE CASE DENOTES A POSSESSOR, AND DESCRIBES THE THING POSSESSED; as, '*Joseph's* hat.' '*Your* book.'

RULE III.

202. THE OBJECTIVE CASE DENOTES THE OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION OR TRANSITIVE VERB; as, 'George studied his lesson in school.'

RULE IV.

203. THE ABSOLUTE CASE DENOTES A SUBSTANTIVE WHEN ALONE, OR INDEPENDENT OF OTHER WORDS; as, 'The crops failing, the farmers — what will become of them?'

Of this case there are four uses:

204. (I.) With a participle, to denote some attending circumstance; as, 'He failing, who shall succeed?'

205. (II.) To denote a direct address; as, 'Come here, John.'

206. (III.) With an *exclamation*; as, 'Oh horrors!' 'Oh deep enchanting prelude to repose.'

207. (IV.) To denote a mere *name* or *title*; as, 'Rule IV,' 'Gad, a troop shall overcome him.' *Bible*.

Form of the cases.

208. *Nouns* have the same form in all their cases, except the *possessive*, which is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* ['s] to them; as, subjective, &c., *man*, possessive, *man's*; plural, subjective, &c., *men*, possessive, *men's*.

209. But if the plural end in *s*, or the singular in *ss*, *ce*, and sometimes *s*, the apostrophe alone is generally added; as, *horses' heads*, *for peace' sake*, *Achilles' wrath*.

210. A complex possessive, or different possessives connected, have the sign upon the last word only; as, '*William, Henry, and Edward's* boat.' '*The king of England's* crown.'

211. Sometimes we find the possessive of a possessive; as, '*My wife's brother's* son.' But it is better avoided; thus, 'The son of my wife's brother.'

212. When the adjectives *one*, *other*, *former*, and *latter*, are used as substantives, they may have the possessive case; as, *one's interest*; *others' concerns*.

213. The *'s* is a contraction of *his*, and was formerly written in full; as, 'William Russell *his* book.'

214. Most of the *pronouns* have their possessive and objective cases irregular in form, as follows :

		Singular.			Plural.			
		SUB. & AB.	POS.	OBJ.	SUB. & AB.	POS.	OBJ.	
Personal.	{	1.	—	<i>I,</i>	<i>my,</i>	<i>me ;</i>	<i>we, our, us.</i>	
		2.	{	COM. <i>you,</i>	<i>your,</i>	<i>you ;</i>	<i>you, } your, you.</i>	
			SOL. <i>thou,</i>	<i>thy,</i>	<i>thee ;</i>	<i>ye, }</i>		
Relative.	{	3.	{	MAS. <i>he,</i>	<i>his,</i>	<i>him ;</i>	<i>they, their, them.</i>	
			FEM. <i>she,</i>	<i>her,</i>	<i>her ;</i>			
			NEU. <i>it,</i>	<i>its,</i>	<i>it ;</i>			
		{	COM. GEN. <i>who,</i>	} whose,	<i>whom ;</i>	<i>who,</i>	} whose,	<i>who.</i>
		ANY GEN. <i>which,</i>	<i>which ;</i>		<i>which,</i>	<i>which.</i>		
		ANY GEN. <i>that,</i>	<i>that ;</i>		<i>that,</i>	<i>that.</i>		

NOTE.—Telling all the different forms of a substantive, as above, is called *declining* it.

215. Instead of repeating a possessive case, and the noun it describes, we generally use the words *mine, thine, hers, ours, theirs*, to represent both. These may therefore be called *compound possessive pronouns*, in the subjective or objective case ; as, ‘This is my book, and that too is *mine,*’ (*my book.*)

216. *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used for *my* and *thy*, before a vowel sound ; as, *mine honor.*

217. When the possessive cases *my, our, &c.*, come before the noun *self*, the two words are united into one, which may be called a *compound personal pronoun* ; as *myself, ourselves, &c.* But we always write *himself, itself, themselves*, instead of *hissself, itssself, theirselves*.

R U L E V .

218. SUBSTANTIVES IN THE SAME RELATION MUST BE IN THE SAME CASE.

219. (I.) Substantives connected by conjunctions are in the same relation ; as, ‘The *boys* and *girls* study ;’ ‘*He* or his *friend* did it.’

220. But we always use *whom* after *than* ; as, ‘Washington, *than whom,*’ &c.

221. (II.) Substantives applied to the same thing, and introduced in the same manner, are in the same relation; as, ‘*Cicero, the orator, lived in Rome;*’ ‘*I, John, study.*’

222. Substantives thus coming together in the same case, are said to be in *apposition*.

223. Substantives connected by conjunctions sometimes are in apposition; as, ‘*That philosopher and poet was banished;*’ ‘*Love, and love only, is,*’ &c.

224. A singular is sometimes in apposition with a plural, to explain it; ‘*They every one were there;*’ ‘*They love each other;*’ ‘*Ye are one another’s joy.*’

225. A substantive in the possessive case may be in apposition without the sign; as, ‘*His brother Philip’s wife.*’

226. (III.) Substantives applied to the same thing, and connected by an intransitive verb, are in the same relation; as, ‘*He is the Cicero of his age;*’ ‘*Man walks a slave.*’

R U L E V I.

227. A PRONOUN MUST AGREE WITH ITS ANTECEDENT OR SUBSEQUENT IN PERSON, NUMBER, AND GENDER; AS, ‘*He who did it, knew his duty.*’

228. *Who* relates only to persons, *which* to animals and things; but *that* may relate to persons, animals, or things; as, ‘*The man who;*’ ‘*The dog which;*’ ‘*The thing that.*’

229. Animals and things are frequently *personified*, or represented as persons; and then the pronouns must be applied accordingly; as, ‘*The sun rises in all his splendor.*’

230. As there is no personal pronoun of *common gender* in the third person singular, the other genders are made to supply its place; as, ‘*Whoever does his duty will prosper;*’ ‘*Doth the hawk stretch out her wings?*’ ‘*We saw the deer, and killed it.*’

231. When a pronoun is preceded by different persons, it may agree with either, according to the sense; as, ‘*I am the man who command, or who commands.*’

232. Throughout a sentence, the same pronoun should be applied to the same person or thing; as, ‘*If thou wilt come, thou wilt be well received.*’

II. RELATIONS OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE VII.

233. EVERY ADJECTIVE MUST AGREE (in number) WITH ITS SUBSTANTIVE, EXPRESSED OR UNDERSTOOD; as, 'A *large, sweet* apple;' 'Each (individual) loves its *like*' (individual.)

234. Adjectives sometimes belong to other adjectives; as, 'A *light blue* color;' 'The *first two* stanzas.'

235. *Much* never refers to number, and *such* never to degree. The following expressions are incorrect: '*Much* men were present;' '*Such* great houses.' *Either* and *neither* always refer to one of *two* things, *every* to one of *more than two*, and *each* to one of *any number*. The following are incorrect; 'Either of the three;' 'Every one of the two.'

236. *This, these, and latter*, always refer to the things nearest or last mentioned; *that, those, and former*, to the things farthest or first mentioned; as, '*Self-love* is ruled by *reason*; *that* makes men active; *this*, active to some good purpose.'

237. The comparative compares two things, the superlative more than two, and they are both connected by *of* to the latter term of comparison, which must include the former; as, 'He is the *taller of the two*, but you are the *tallest of all*.' Otherwise the comparative compares any number of things, and is connected by *than* to the latter term of comparison, which must not include the former; as, 'He is *shorter than all the rest*.'

238. Definitives are joined only to *common nouns*, or to nouns used as such, because other substantives are sufficiently definite without them. But definitives which do not imply number, may be joined to *abstract nouns*; as *much virtue, such virtue*. Judgment and practice must teach when nouns are to receive a definitive.

III. RELATIONS OF VERBS.

RULE VIII.

239. EVERY VERB MUST AGREE (in person and number) WITH ITS SUBJECT; as, 'The boy *studies*;' 'The boy and girl *are* diligent.'

240. (I.) To agree with *thou*, the indicative and potential modes (or their first auxiliary) must be made to end in *st* or *t*; as, 'Thou dost or didst walk;' 'thou hast or hadst walked;' 'thou shalt, wilt, must, mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst walk, or have walked.'

241. (II.) To agree with the *third person singular*, the indicative present (or its auxiliary) must be made to end in *s* or *th*; as, 'He (&c.) walks, or walketh, does walk, or doth walk, has walked, or hath walked.'

242. But the verb *ought* does not vary for the third person; nor does the verb *need* always; as, 'He ought to go;' 'He need not go.'

243. But the verb *be* has its first two imperfect tenses irregular, thus: Past, *I was, thou wast, he (&c.) was*, in other cases *were*; Present, *I am, thou art, he (&c.) is*, in other cases *are*. The *emphatic* form is not used, and the rest of the imperfect is regularly *be*.

244. *Had* is sometimes used for *would have*, and *were* for *would be*, or *should be* if doubt is implied; as, 'It had been well for us, had we gone;' 'It were a pity were he thus disgraced.'

245. Every subject should have an attribute, and every attribute a subject, expressed or plainly implied. The following is incorrect: 'He, where is he?'

246. If a verb have a subject before, and another after it, it may sometimes agree with the latter instead of the former; as, 'A great cause were the restraints,' &c. When a verb follows several subjects, it should agree with the nearest; as, 'I or thou didst it.' (293.)

247. Always in the use of verbs, the relations of *time* must be duly observed; thus, 'The Lord gave, and the Lord hath taken away;' not, 'The Lord hath given, and the Lord hath taken away.'

RULE IX.

248. INFINITIVES ARE USED AS SUBSTANTIVES, BUT MAY HAVE OBJECTS LIKE OTHER MODES; as, 'To injure others is wrong.'

249. (I.) An infinitive may be a singular *subject*; as, 'To lie is base.'

250. (II.) An infinitive, with or without a substantive, may be the *object* of a transitive verb; as, 'I wish to ride;' 'I wish you to ride.'

251. When an infinitive is the object of *bid, feel, hear, let, make, see, dare*, (to venture,) and a few other verbs, the sign *to* is generally omitted; as 'I bade him do it.' But after the passive participle the *to* should be used; as, 'He was bidden to do it.'

252. When an infinitive refers to a time subsequent to that of the preceding verb, it should be *imperfect* not perfect; thus, 'I expected you to go;' not, 'I expected you to have gone.'

253. (III.) An infinitive may be the *object* of a preposition, expressed or understood; as, 'He went for to worship;' 'I wish for you to ride;' 'He is about to go;' 'I will labor (for) to do it.'

254. Infinitives which follow intransitive verbs, nouns, or adjectives, are generally the objects of prepositions expressed or understood. The preposition *for* was formerly expressed before the infinitive, but is now generally understood.

255. (IV.) An infinitive may be in the *absolute* case; as, 'To tell the truth, I was there.'

256. The copula *to be* may describe the subject of an intransitive verb, thus forming a *verbal phrase*, (140,) which agrees with that subject; as, 'It appears to be right;' 'He thinks to be respected.' (See also 298.)

R U L E X.

257. PARTICIPLES ARE USED AS SUBSTANTIVES OR DESCRIPTIVES, BUT MAY HAVE OBJECTS LIKE OTHER MODES; as, 'I am studying grammar.'

258. When an active participle is followed by *of*, it should be preceded by a definitive or possessive case, but not otherwise; as, 'The taking of the city;' 'Much depends on observing this rule.'

259. Some passive participles, like their active, may have an object; as, 'He was asked his opinion;' 'I was desired to go.'

IV. RELATIONS OF PARTICLES.

R U L E X I.

260. ADVERBS QUALIFY VERBS; ADVERBS OF DEGREE MAY QUALIFY ADJECTIVES AND OTHER ADVERBS; as, 'Very good boys study *very diligently*.'

261. The verb which an adverb qualifies, is frequently understood; as, 'But [I say] *truly*, they will come;' 'Say first, of God [who is] above;' '*Away!* old man.'

262. An adverb sometimes qualifies a preposition; as *nearly in*, *almost across*; and sometimes a noun; as, 'He ran *almost* a mile;' 'The *almost* Christian;' 'Things *here* are mine.'

263. In poetry, the termination *ly* is frequently dropped from an adverb, making it like the adjective from which it is derived; as, '*Wild* play the winds about his mountain home.' This should not take place in prose. But *exceedingly* should always lose the *ly* before a word ending in *ly*; as, *exceeding wisely*.

264. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative; as, '*Nor* did he *not* do it;' that is, 'He did it.'

265. When *motion* is implied, the words *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, are preferable to *here*, *there*, *where*. The following are incorrect; 'Come *here*;' 'Go *there*.'

266. A verb which signifies merely *being*, or a state of being, should generally have an adjective rather than an adverb connected with it; as, 'He is *cold*;' 'He looks *cold*.' But we say, 'He looks *coldly* upon it;' as *looks* here denotes *action*.

R U L E X II.

267. CONJUNCTIONS CONNECT WORDS AND SENTENCES OF THE SAME KIND; as, 'John *and* William are coming, *but* they will soon return.'

268. *Both* is always followed by *and*, and *lest* by the potential mode. *Than* is always preceded by a comparative, or the word *else*, *other*, or *rather*. The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, *save*, *because*, *since*, &c. are generally prefixed to *subjunctive* sentences, to connect them to the main sentence, without which they cannot be used.

269. Some particles correspond to each other, so that if one is used, the other is expressed or understood; *whether*—*or*; *neither*—*nor*; *such*—*as*; *such*—*that*; *as*—*as*; *as*—*so*; *so*—*as*; *so*—*that*; *though*—*yet*; *both*—*and*. In this case, the two con-

junctions together connect, and, if possible, the same words must follow each; thus, '*Either the boy or the girl;*' not '*Either the boy or girl.*'

270. Verbs connected by conjunctions should *generally* be of the same mode and tense; or the subject should be repeated. The following is incorrect: '*Professing regard, and to act differently, discovers a base mind.*'

R U L E X I I I .

271. PREPOSITIONS SHOW THE RELATION BETWEEN THEIR OBJECTS AND OTHER WORDS; as, '*He sat with a book in his hand.*'

272. The prepositions *to, into, unto, &c.*, imply *motion*, and are opposed to *from*; *at, in, within, &c.*, imply *situation*; *of* implies *origin* or *possession*; *for* implies *purpose*; *with* implies *connection* or *means*; *by* implies *cause*; *between* has reference to two objects; *among* or *amidst* to a greater number.

273. Particular words require to be followed by particular prepositions, and generally the same preposition should follow a derivative word as follows its primitive. We should not say, '*Reconciling himself with the king,*' but, '*to the king.*'

R U L E X I V .

274. INTERJECTIONS, AND THE WORDS CONNECTED WITH THEM, ARE INDEPENDENT OF THE REST OF THE SENTENCE; as, '*Wo to me! I am undone.*'

Position.

275. In the common, natural position of words, the subject is placed before the attribute, the adjective before its substantive, the definitive before the descriptive, the pronoun after its antecedent, and the preposition before its object; as, '*The great oak which stands on the hill.*'

276. But in imperative and interrogative sentences, and in many other cases, the subject *follows* the verb or the first aux-

iliary; as, 'Will you go?' 'Go thou;' 'Were I there;' 'Here am I.'

277. In many other respects the common order may be deviated from; as, 'A number *large enough*;' 'Many a man;' 'Whom you see, *him* respect.'

278. When two qualities belong to the same noun, the more distinguishing should be made the nearer; as, 'A *good old* man;' not, 'An *old good* man.'

279. No word should ever be placed between the sign *to* and the infinitive mode. The following is incorrect: 'To *willingly* do it.'

280. Words nearly related should be placed as near to each other as possible; a relative pronoun to its antecedent, an adverb to the word qualified, a possessive case to the word described, a preposition to its object, &c. The following are incorrect: 'It is reported *to-morrow* that the king will come.' 'John's (that I spoke of) book.'

281. TRANSPOSITION is a change of arrangement in the parts of a sentence, and is very common, especially in poetry; as,

'Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring
Of woes unnumbered, Heavenly Goddess, sing.'

Transposed. 'Heavenly Goddess! sing Achilles' wrath, the direful spring of unnumbered woes to Greece.'

Ellipsis.

282. ELLIPSIS is the omission of any of the words necessary to the full construction of a sentence. The following are the most common cases:

283. To avoid repetition, many words are generally omitted in uniting sentences, and in similar cases; as, 'The boys read and [*the boys*] write.' 'A fine garden and [*a fine*] orchard.'

284. After the collective nouns *dozen, hundred, few, many, &c.*, *of* is frequently understood; as, 'A hundred [*of*] sheep;' 'Every hundred [*of*] years constitutes a century;' 'A great many [*of*] men.' But when a pronoun follows, the *of* is always expressed; as, 'A great many of them.' (148.)

285. The *time, place, direction, quantity, &c.*, are frequently in the objective, with a preposition understood; as, 'He is coming [*to*] home [*on*] to-day.'

286. A transitive verb is frequently followed by two objectives, one of them being the object of a preposition understood; as, 'He lent [*to*] me some money;' 'He asked [*from*] me the news.'

287. The antecedent of a pronoun is sometimes understood; as, '[*He*] who steals my purse steals trash.'

288. Adjectives and possessive cases frequently belong to substantives understood; as, 'The [*river*] Thames;' 'Turn to the right' [*hand*]; 'At the Alderman's [*house*.]' (147.)

289. There are generally many words understood in the answer to a question; as, 'Who was there?' 'John' [*was there*.]

290. After the adjectives *worth* and *worthy*, a preposition is frequently understood; as, 'It is worthy [*of*] your regard;' 'It is worth [—] a dollar.'

291. After the words *like, unlike, and near*, *to* is frequently understood; 'This is like [*to*] that, but it is not near [*to*] it.'

292. The subject of the imperative mode is generally understood; as, 'Guide [*thou*] my lonely way.'

293. When subjects are connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb is generally understood after all but the last; as, 'He *or* she *did* it.'

294. The auxiliaries *may, can, should, &c.*, are frequently understood; as, '[*May*] soon dawn the day of peace.' The mode of the verb should not then be mistaken.

295. In subjunctive sentences, the conjunction or the auxiliary is frequently understood; as, 'Were I there;' that is, '*If* I were there;' 'If thou [*shalt*] go.' The auxiliary is best omitted when both *doubt* and *futurity* are implied, but not otherwise.

296. When a substantive is absolute with a participle, some of the words may be understood; as, '[*We*] generally speaking, they are poor;' '[*He being*] conscious of his strength, nothing was feared.'

297. After the adverbs *off, up, down, &c.*, a preposition is frequently understood; as, 'He jumped off [*from*] the fence, and went up [*over*] the hill.'

298. After the conjunctions *than, as, but, &c.*, some words are generally understood; as, 'I am as tall as you' [*are*]; 'I am taller than he' [*is*]; 'Will you be so good as *to come*?' [*implies*]; 'He knew better than *to do that*' [*is*]; 'Such as [*those are who*] prefer it;' 'We have more than [*that is which*] will suffice;' 'He acted as [*he would act*] if he were mad.'

299. Adverbs frequently qualify verbs understood. (261.) The sign *to* of the infinitive is frequently understood. (251.)

The Three Errors.

300. (I.) Using *too few* words, or improper ellipsis, especially of words which serve to connect; as, 'Who is not convinced [*that*] he must die?' 'I scarcely know of anything [*which*] would suit me better.'

301. (II.) Using *too many* words, or tautology; as, 'A board of six feet long;' 'But and if that evil servant,' &c.

302. Thus one word is sometimes improperly used with another which implies that word; as, *from* whence; *to* whither; return *back*; converse *together*; fall *down*; enter *in*; first of *all*; *new* beginning; 'They returned *back* again to the same city *from* whence they came *forth*.' This last sentence should be, 'They returned to the city whence they came.'

303. (III.) Using the *wrong* words; as, *had* rather, for *would* rather; *had* better, for *would* better; go *past*, for go *by*; ruler, for *rule*; *them*, for *those*; *lest*, *what*, or *how*, for *that*; *firstly*, for *first*; *good deal*, for *great deal*; *to let*, for *to be let*, &c. Thus also, some confound *ever* and *never*, *later* and *latter*, *such* and *so*, *further* and *farther*, *no* and *not*, *effect* and *affect*, &c.

304. Thus also, adjectives and adverbs are sometimes confounded; as, 'A *far* country;' for, 'A *distant* country.'

305. Thus also, transitive and intransitive verbs are sometimes confounded; as, *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*, *learn* and *teach*, *grow* and *cultivate*.

306. Thus also, errors are committed in the use of the different parts of irregular verbs; as, 'He *begun*,' for 'He *began*;' 'I *done* it,' for 'I *did* it.'

307. When different methods of expression may be used, that should be adopted which will sound best, and most clearly convey the sense. We should say, 'The severe distress of the king's son;' not, 'The severity of the distress of the son of the king.' We should say, 'He reads [and writes, but does not cipher];' not, 'He *readeth* and *writeth*, but *doth* not cipher.'

III. ORTHOGRAPHY.

308. ORTHOGRAPHY teaches the correct writing of the language by means of established signs.

L E T T E R S .

309. A *letter* is a written sign used to represent some simple sound of the human voice.

310. Human or *articulate* sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, modified in many cases by the action of the lips, teeth, tongue, &c., which are called the *organs of speech*.

311. There are in the English language about thirty-five simple sounds, and by different combinations of these, all words are expressed.

312. These thirty-five simple sounds are represented by twenty-four letters only, as some letters represent more than one sound.

313. These thirty-five simple sounds may be divided into *vowel* and *consonant* sounds.

314. (I.) The *vowel* sounds are those which can be perfectly uttered by themselves. They are thirteen in number, and are represented by the letters *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

315. The vowel sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, without any interruption in its course. They may be divided into *long, short, and open* vowels.

316. (I.) The *long* vowels are uttered with the mouth nearly closed, the sound being prolonged. They are four, *ā, ē, î, ū* long, as heard in the words *fāte, mēte, nōte, tūbe*.

317. (II.) The *short* vowels are uttered with the mouth nearly closed, the sound being cut short. They are five, ä, ë, ï, ö, ü short, as heard in the words fät, mët, pĭn, nöt, tüb.

318. (III.) The *open* vowels are uttered with the mouth opened more widely, the sound being somewhat prolonged. They are four â, ê, ô, û open, as heard in the words fâr, êrr, ôr, füll. They are frequently followed by the letter *r*, into whose sound they slide.

319. (II.) The *consonant* sounds are those which cannot be uttered unless joined to a vowel. They are twenty-two in number, and are represented by the letters *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

320. The *consonant* sounds are produced by an emission of voice through the mouth, with more or less interruption from the organs of speech. They may be divided into *labials, dentals, palatals, nasals, linguals*, and the *asperate*.

321. The *labials* are produced by the interruption of the lips, and are six in number, *b, p, f, v, m*, and *w*, as heard in the words *bib, pap, fife, valve, mum, wo*.

322. The *dentals* are produced by the interruption of the teeth, and are eight in number, *d, t, th* soft, *th* hard, *sh, zh, s, z*, as heard in the words *did, trot, this, thin, shape, azure, stress, craze*.

323. The *palatals* are produced by the interruption of the tongue against the palate, and are three in number, *g* hard, *k, y*, as heard in the words *gag, kick, yet*.

324. The *nasals* are produced by the interruption of the voice so as to pass through the nose, and are two in number, *n* and *ng*, as heard in the words *nun* and *sing*.

325. The *linguals* are produced by the interruption of the tongue bent upwards, and are two in number, *l* and *r*, as heard in the words *lull* and *roar*. They have a peculiar facility of uniting with other vowels before them; as, *bl, cl, fl, gl, pl, rl, sl, br, cr, dr, fr, gr, pr, tr*.

326. The *aspirate* is the letter *h*, which is produced by simply breathing hard before other sounds; as, *at, hat*.

Remarks.

327. *W* and *y* are consonants at the beginning of syllables, and vowels elsewhere. *W*, when a vowel, is silent or sounds like *u*, and *y* sounds like short *i* or long *e*.

328. Such consonants as can be sounded imperfectly without a vowel, are called *semi-vowels*; such as cannot be sounded at all without a vowel, are called *mutes*.

329. A *compound* sound is the union of two or more simple sounds. Such are the following: Compound *i* or *y* has the sound of *â-ê*, as in *pine*, *rhyme*—compound *u* has the sound of *ê-û*, as in *mute*—*oi* or *oy* has the sound of *ô-ê*, as in *boil*, *boy*—*ou* or *ow* has the sound of *â-û*, as in *sound*, *bow*. *Qu* (which are always together,) have the sound of *kû* or *k*, as in *queen*, *opaque*. *X* has the sound of *ks* or *gs*, as in *six*, *example*—*Ch* has the sound of *tsh* or *k*, as in *church*, *chorus*—*J* or soft *g*, has the sound of *dz*, as in *judge*.

330. Some letters sometimes have the sound of others. Thus *a* sometimes sounds like *ô*, as in *call*; *au* like *ô*, *ô*, as in *hautboy*, *laurel*; *c* like *k*, as in *can*; *c* like *s*, as in *cent*, (this is always the case with *c* before *e*, *i*, or *y*;) *ch* like *sh*, as in *chaise*; *d* like *t*, as in *stuffed*; *e* like *â*, *î*, *û*, as in *sergeant*, *England*; *eau* like *ô*, as in *beau*; *ei*, *ey*, like *â*, as in *vein*, *convey*; *eo* like *û*, as in *dungeon*; *f*, *ph*, like *v*, as in *of*, *Stephen*; *g* like *j*, as in *giant*, (this is generally the case with *g* before *e*, *i*, or *y*;) *gh*, *ph*, like *f*, as in *laugh*, *Philip*; *i* like *ê*, *û*, as in *machine*, *first*; *ia* like *ya*, as in *filial*; *n* like *ng*, as in *thank*; *o* like *û*, *û*, as in *move*, *son*; *oo* like *û*, *û*, *û*, as in *room*, *blood*, *good*; *p* like *b*, as in *cupboard*; *s* like *z*, as in *his*; *t* like *ch*, as in *nature*; *t*, *s*, *c*, like *sh*, as in *nation*, *invasion*, *ocean*; *u* like *ê*, *î*, as in *bury*, *busy*; *ue* like *eu*, as in *hue*; *wh* like *hw*, as in *when*; *x* like *z*, as in *Xanthus*.

331. Letters are sometimes entirely *silent*; thus, *i*, *u*, *w*, *y*, silent after *a*, as in *pail*, *taught*, *bawl*, *pay*; *a*, *o*, *i*, silent before *e*, as in *ænigma*, *fatus*, *grief*; *e* silent in a final syllable, as in *open*; *e* silent always at the end of a word, unless it is the only vowel, as in *me*, and used thus to *lengthen* or *soften* the syllable, as in *rag*, *rage*, *pin*, *pine*; *a*, *i*, *o*, *y*, silent after *e*, as in *appear*, *people*, *seize*, *key*; *e* silent before *a*, as in *bear*; *a*, *e*, silent after *i*, as in *carriage*, *die*; *ie* silent before *u*, as in *lieu*; *a*, *e*, *u*, *w*, *o*, silent after *o*, as in *boat*, *broad*, *doe*, *though*, *cough*, *brought*, *snow*, *door*; *o* silent before *u*, as in *enough*, *youth*; *i* silent after *u*, as in *juice*; *u* silent before *a*, *e*, *i*, *y*, as in *guard*, *guest*, *guide*, *buy*; *ue* silent after *q*, *g*, as in *antique*, *dialogue*; *b* silent with another consonant, as in *climb*, *debtor*; *c* silent, as in *victuals*; *ch* silent, as in *schism*; *g* silent before *n*, as in *gnash*; *h* silent after *g*, *r*, *t*, a vowel, and sometimes at the beginning of words, as in *ghost*, *rheum*, *Thomas*, *hah*, *hour*; *k* silent before *n*, as in *knell*; *n* final silent after *m*, as in *hymn*; *p* silent before *s*, *t*, as in *psalter*, *tempt*; *ph* silent, as in *phthisic*; *s* silent, as in *isle*, *viscount*; *w* silent before *r* and after *o* as in *wrist*, *grow*.

332. A *syllable* consists of one or more letters, forming a simple or compound sound, and pronounced by a single impulse of the voice; as, *a*, *an* *ant*.

333. Two vowels coming together in a syllable, are called a *diphthong*; as *hail*, *beat*. If both vowels are sounded, as *oi*, *ou*, *eu*, and a few others, it is called a *proper diphthong*, otherwise, an *improper diphthong*. Three vowels coming in the same syllable, are called a *triphthong*; as, *beau*.

334. When vowels come together, *not* in the same syllable, they may be distinguished by a *dieresis*, (") as, *aërial*, *coöperate*.

II. WORDS.

335. A *word* consists of one syllable, or more, pronounced in succession, and used, by common consent, as the sign of some idea.

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

337. It is sometimes required to divide words into their syllables. The syllables are then separated by a *hyphen* (-) according to the following rules:

(I.) Every *entire, simple word* should be separated; as, *ice-house*, *over-power*, *good-ness*, *in-stil*, *what-ever*.

(II.) *Grammatical terminations* are generally to be separated; as, *teach-est*, *teach-eth*, *teach-ing*, *teach-er*, *great-er*, *bless-ed*.

(III.) *Every syllable* must have a *vowel*, and no syllable more than *one*, unless there be a *diphthong*, or a *silent vowel*; as, *wis-er*, *cru-el*, *boil*, *tame*.

(IV.) Every *long syllable* should (if possible) end with the *vowel*, and every *short syllable* with *one consonant*; as, *de-light*, *fee-ble*, *da-ting*, *ra-ted*, *con-strain*, *dis-tract*, *noth-ing*, *nev-er*.

(V.) Double letters should be separated; as, *mel-low*, *mor-row*, *can-not*.

III. SPELLING.

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

339. English spelling is very irregular and difficult to be learned. But the following rules, well committed, will assist considerably.

R U L E I.

340. In monosyllables, *f*, *l*, or *s* final, preceded by a single vowel, is doubled; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*. Except *if*, *of*, *as*, *has*, *gas*, *was*, *yes*, *is*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *thus*.

341. Other final consonants are never doubled; except in *add*, *odd*, *ebb*, *egg*, *inn*, *bunn*, *err*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*.

342. Words of more than one syllable do not end with double *l*.

R U L E II.

343. A consonant preceded by a diphthong or a long vowel, is never doubled.

R U L E III.

344. A single consonant after a single, *accented* vowel, is doubled before an additional vowel; as, *wit*, *witty*; *rid*, *ridden*.

345. In other cases the consonant is not doubled; as, *toil*, *toiling*; *visit*, *visited*.

R U L E IV.

346. Double *l* generally becomes single before an additional consonant; as, *skill*, *skilful*, *skillless*. Except *illness*, *shrillness*, *stillness*.

347. Other letters do not become single; as, *oddly*, *stiffness*.

R U L E V.

348. *E* final must be added to a single consonant preceded by a single long vowel; as, *fate*, *ride*, *brave*. (337, IV.)

R U L E VI.

349. Final *e* is omitted before an additional vowel, but before a consonant it is retained; as, *rate*, *ratable*; *pale*, *paleness*.

350. Except *awful, duly, truly, wholly, agreement*, and sometimes *abridgment, judgment, lodgment, acknowledgment*.

351. *Ce* and *ge* are preserved before *a* and *o*, to keep the soft sound ; as, *peace, peaceable ; change, changeable*. *Ee* is preserved before *ing* or *able* ; as, *seeing, agreeable*. *Ie* is changed to *y* before *ing* ; as, *die, dying*.

R U L E V I I .

352. Final *y*, when preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i*, before any additional letter but *i* ; as, *pity, pities, pitied, pitiful, pitying*.

353. When preceded by a vowel, it is not changed ; as, *day, days*.

R U L E V I I I .

354. Compound words are spelled like their simples ; as, *hereof, recall*.

355. But in permanent compounds, double *l* generally becomes single ; as, *handful, always*.

Remark.

356. *H, i, j, k, q, u, v, w, x, y*, are never doubled. *Q* is always followed by *u* ; as, *queen*. *U* need not be placed between *o* and *r* ; as *candor, not candour*. *K* need not be placed after *c* final, except in monosyllables ; as *cambric, brick*.

I V . A B B R E V I A T I O N .

357. Abbreviation is the art of expressing words in a shorter than their usual form, for the sake of brevity and despatch.

358. *Abbreviations* are either *contractions* of the words, such as *Capt., Cr.*, or the *initial* letters, such as *N. S., P. M.*, or merely some arbitrary signs, such as *&, &c.*

359. Abbreviations should not be much used, and very seldom in writing to distinguished individuals.

CLASSES OF ABBREVIATIONS.

360. (I.) To represent *numbers* by Roman characters. I, *one*; V, *five*; X, *ten*; L, *fifty*; C, *one hundred*; D, *five hundred*; M, *one thousand*.

361. As many times as a letter is repeated, the value is repeated; as, II, *two*; XXX, *thirty*.

362. A letter before a greater, is to be taken from its value; as, IV, *four*; IX, *nine*; XC, *ninety*.

363. A letter after a greater, is to be added to its value; as, VI, *six*; XI, *eleven*; CX, *one hundred and ten*.

364. (II.) To represent *numbers* by Arabic characters. 1, *one*; 2, *two*; 3, *three*; 4, *four*; 5, *five*; 6, *six*; 7, *seven*; 8, *eight*; 9, *nine*; 0, *nought*.

365. An Arabic character is increased *tenfold* in value at every place it is removed toward the left; as, 3, *three*; 30, *thirty*; 300, *three hundred*.

366. (III.) To represent *Mathematical expressions*; as, (=) *equal to*; (—) *minus, less, or subtract*; &c.

367. (IV.) To represent *measure of capacity*; as, *Gi. gill*; *pt. pint*; *qt. quart*; *gal. gallon*; *pk. peck*; &c.

368. (V.) To represent *measure of length*; as, *na. nail*; *qr. quarter*; *yd. yard*; *Fl. e. ell Flemish*; *in. inch*; *ft. foot*; (°) *degree*; (′) *minute, or prime*; (″) *second*, &c.

369. (VI.) To represent *weight*; as, *wt. weight*; *oz. ounce*; *lb. pound*; *cwt. hundred weight*; *T. ton*, &c.

370. (VII.) To represent *time*; as, *s. second*; *min. minute*; *h. hour*; *d. day*; *mo. month*; *Y. year*, &c.

371. (VIII.) To represent *money*; as, *E. eagle*; \$ *dollar*; *ct. cent*; *d. dime*; *m. mill*; £ *pound*; *s. shilling*, &c.

372. (IX.) To represent *musical expressions*; as, *P. piano, soft*; *PP. pianissimo, very soft*; *F. forte, loud*, &c.

373. (X.) To represent *grammatical expressions*; as, *sing. singular*; *plu. plural*; *ind. indicative*, &c.

374. (XI.) To represent *names of persons*; as, *Jas. James*; *Jos. Joseph*; *Chs. Charles*; *Geo. George*, &c.

375. (XII.) To represent books of the Bible ; as, *Gen.* Genesis ; *Ex.* Exodus ; *Lev.* Leviticus ; *Jud.* Judges, &c.

376. (XIII.) To represent names of Countries, States, Cities, &c. ; as, *Me.* Maine ; *Vt.* Vermont ; *Oo.* Ohio, &c.

377. (XIV.) To represent titles and offices ; as, *A. A. S.* Fellow of the American Academy ; *Bart.* Baronet, &c.

V. PUNCTUATION.

378. Punctuation is the art of supplying writing with proper stops and marks, to assist in determining the sense.

379. The marks most used are those which denote *pauses*, viz. the comma, (,) a *short pause* ; the semicolon, (;) a *longer pause* ; the colon, (:) a *still longer pause* ; and the period, (.) a *full and perfect pause*.

R U L E. I.

380. Every *parenthetic* word and clause should be separated from the context by commas ; as, ‘ Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal ; ’ ‘ He, in his youth, was trained to labor. ’

381. By *parenthetic* words and clauses, is meant such as have anything of the nature of a *parenthesis*. Of this kind are the following :

382. (I.) A common *parenthesis*. The comma must be placed before the parenthesis marks, and sometimes semicolons may be used ; as, ‘ Charles, (that was his name,) did as I bade him. ’

383. (II.) Words and clauses in the *absolute* case ; as, ‘ He, his limbs being weary, sat down to rest ; ’ ‘ Continue, my friend, to do thus ; ’ ‘ I was, to tell the truth, in the house. ’

384. (III.) A clause in *apposition*, or a *word* in apposition, if it be quite distinct ; as, ‘ Napoleon, Emperor of France, died a slave. ’ But, ‘ George Ingalls, the tanner. ’

385. (IV.) All *descriptive* and *explanatory* clauses, unless quite short ; as, ‘ It is not the West, with her forest sea and her inland isles, with her luxuriant expanses, clothed in the verdant corn, with her beautiful Ohio, and her majestic Missouri. ’

386. (V.) Generally all such expressions as these ; *nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly, once more, above all, on the contrary, in the next place, in short, &c.*

R U L E II.

387. When more than two *particulars* are enumerated, they should be separated from each other by commas ; as, ‘ A free, educated, peaceful, Christian people ; ’ ‘ A man fearing, loving, and serving his Creator.’

388. *Two* particulars, if long, or if a conjunction is understood, must be separated ; as ‘ The glittering march of armies, and the reveling of the camp ; ’ ‘ That long, dark night.’

389. If the particulars are in *pairs*, the pairs only should be separated ; as, ‘ Truth is pure and artless, simple and sincere, uniform and consistent.’

390. A comma may be inserted after the *last* particular, if there is much of a pause ; as, ‘ The husband, wife, and children, all suffered severely.’

391. If the particulars be long, *semicolons* may sometimes be used.

R U L E III.

392. All *simple sentences*, unless short and closely connected, should be separated by *commas, semicolons, colons, or periods*, according to their distinctness ; as, ‘ He knew not what to do. He seized his hat, and rushed from the house ; for his spirit was troubled within him.’

393. Also, if the subject be far from the verb, a comma may be placed before the latter ; as, ‘ The everlasting hills of the imperial city, still tower aloft.’

394. Also, a long subjective or objective clause may be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma ; as, ‘ To be totally indifferent to praise, is a defect.’

395. Also, when words are omitted, or a contrast is expressed, a comma is inserted ; as, ‘ Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull.’

396. In separating sentences, *judgment* and *practice* must determine whether a comma, a semicolon, a colon, or a period, is to be used. The *colon* need seldom be employed, and only in long sentences. The colon or semicolon is usually put before an *example* or *quotation* ; as, ‘ There are twelve months, viz :—’

OTHER CHARACTERS.

397. Every *abbreviation*, *title* of a subject, and *number* of a division, should be followed by a period ; as, N. B. ; Geo. L. Rogers, Prov. R. I. ; Jan. ; iv.

398. An *Interrogation* mark (?) is placed at the end of a question ; as, ‘ Who will accompany me ? ’

399. This mark should not be used when it is merely *said* that a question was asked ; as, ‘ The Cyprians asked me, *why I wept.* ’

400. An *Exclamation* mark (!) is placed at the end of sudden exclamations and addresses ; as, ‘ Alas ! what a horrible fate ! ’

401. When an exclamatory expression is repeated, the mark may be doubled, tripled, &c. ; as, ‘ Raising his hands, he cried, lost ! lost !! lost !!! ’

402. When an expression has the nature both of a question and of an exclamation, the exclamation mark should generally be used ; as, ‘ How much vanity in the pursuits of men ! ’

403. A *dash* (—) is used at a sudden *pause* or *change* of subject ; as, ‘ Here lies the great—false marble, where ? ’

404. The dash, and other characters, are also used to denote an *omission* ; as, Mr. J— T—n, 1-18— ****. They must not be used too much.

405. The *Parentheses* () are used to enclose whatever does not properly belong to a sentence ; as, ‘ Charles, (that was his name,) did as I bade him.’

406. *Brackets* [] are used for nearly the same purpose, generally to enclose what is put in by another than the author.

407. *Quotation* marks (“ ”) are used to enclose whatever is quoted just as it was uttered ; as, “ The proper study of mankind is man.”

408. A quotation *within* a quotation should be denoted by single marks ; as, “ His words were—‘ I am a dying man.’ ” In this book quotations are thus denoted.

409. An *Apostrophe* (') is used when one or two letters are omitted, especially to mark the possessive case of nouns; as, 'tis for *it is*; tho' for *though*; e'en for *even*; man's, James'.

410. A *Hyphen* (-) is used to connect the parts of compound words, and to divide a word at the end of a line; as, 'lap-dog, self-love, to-day, labor-saving, commencement.

411. A word must be divided only between the syllables, and the hyphen placed at the *end* of the line. (337.)

412. A *Caret* (^) is used, in writing, beneath where an *omission* is supplied; as, 'To-day^{is} thine.'

413. A *Brace* () is used to connect different things under one head.

414. A *Dieresis* (¨) is used to distinguish two vowels which are not in the same syllable; as, aërial, coöperate. (334.) A *Cedilla* (,) is used to denote the soft sound of a letter; as, geïve.

415. The marks (˘˘˘) are used to denote the different sounds of vowels; ˘ the *long*, ˘ the *short*, ^ the *open* vowels; as, fâte, fât, fâr. (315.)

416. The marks (˘˘˘) are used to denote the different *slides* in reading; ' the *rising*, ` the *falling*, ˘ the *circumflex*, - the *monotone*. (477.)

417. The *Paragraph* (¶) and *Section* (§) denote a change in the subject.

418. A *Hand* (☞) points to some important passage.

419. The *star*, (*) the *dagger*, (†) the *double dagger*, (‡) the *parallels* (||) the *section*, (§) *paragraph*, (¶) &c., together with figures, and the letters of the Alphabet, are used to refer to *notes* at the margin or bottom of the page.

VI. CAPITALS.

It is necessary to begin with a *capital*,

420. (I.) The *first word* of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any piece of writing, and every line of poetry.

421. (II.) The first word after a *period*, and after an *interrogation* or *exclamation* mark, if the parts be quite distinct; and after a *semicolon* at the beginning of a quotation.

422. (III.) All *Proper names and Adjectives*, all words applied to the *Deity*, and the words *I* and *O*; as, *John, Rome, Roman, Red Sea, Esquire, Reverend, Congress, Baptist, Monday, Deity, O, here I am.*

423. (IV.) Every principal word in the heading of a book or article, and indeed any very *important* or *emphatic* word.

424. These words, in printing, are frequently expressed ~~entirely in~~ capitals.

VII. TYPOGRAPHY, &c.

425. English is *written* in the common round or square hand, sometimes in the perpendicular and back-slope hands.

426. English is *printed* commonly in Roman letters, (like the last line,) frequently in *Italic letters*, sometimes in **Old English**, sometimes in **German Text**, and sometimes in various **ORNAMENTAL** styles.

427. The common sizes of type are—

Pica, Small Pica, Long Primer, Bourgeois, Brevier, Minion, Nonpareil, Pearl.

428. Paper folded so as to make *two* leaves to a sheet, is called *folio*; *four* leaves, *quarto*; *eight* leaves, *octavo* or *8vo*; *twelve* leaves, *duodecimo* or *12mo*; *eighteen* leaves, *18mo*. This book is *duodecimo*.

429. The divisions and subdivisions of any work are in general nearly in the following order: Volumes, Books, Parts, Chapters, Divisions, Articles, Sections, Paragraphs.

430. When a writing contains divisions and subdivisions, they may be numbered as follows; the largest divisions by Roman characters, (I, II, III,) the next by Arabic characters, (1, 2, 3,) the next by capital letters, (A, B, C,) the next by small letters, (a, b, c.)

431. When there is an important turn in the thought, a new paragraph should be commenced, and only then.

432. Emphatic words are denoted in printing by Italic letters, or by capitals, and in writing by being underscored or written in back-slope.

433. A date should be written above the right hand, except in a *diary*, where it is written at the left, and in some billets and notes, where it is written beneath the left hand.

434. The title of a piece should be written over the middle. A name should be signed under the right hand.

IV. PROSODY.

435. PROSODY teaches the correct utterance of the language, and the laws of poetry.

I. UTTERANCE.

436. Utterance may be considered in two parts, *pronunciation* and *modulation*.

437. *Speaking* and *reading* depend upon the same principles, except that *action* is wanting in the latter; and the best general rule for reading is, *to read as we naturally converse*.

I. PRONUNCIATION.

438. Pronunciation teaches the proper utterance of single words, and may be treated under the heads of *Articulation*, *Stress*, and *Slides*.

I. ARTICULATION.

439. Articulation is the distinct utterance of sounds by the human voice.

440. Articulate, or human sounds are first produced by the forcing of wind through the *glottis*, a small opening in the upper part of the windpipe, and are afterwards modified by the action of the organs of speech in the mouth. (310.)

441. (I.) Sounds may be either *high* or *low*. This depends upon the width to which the glottis is opened, and gives rise to *melody*.

442. (II.) Sounds may be either *loud* or *soft*. This depends upon the force with which the wind is emitted, and is called the *force*.

443. (III.) Sounds may be either *long* or *short*. This depends upon the time during which the wind is emitted, and is called the *rate*.

444. Practising the voice will extend its power, as to *pitch*, as to *quantity*, and as to *length*; and will also serve to correct any defects of articulation which habit may have produced.

445. The elementary or simple sounds of the language, have been explained in Orthography. Upon these the voice should be frequently practised.

Defects of Articulation.

446. (I.) Defects in the organs of speech, such as the *palate*, *teeth*, *tongue*. Such defects can seldom be fully removed; but careful practice will, in most cases, do much towards it. The case of Demosthenes is familiar to all.

447. (II.) Stammering. This arises either from want of control over the nerves, from excitement, or from habit, and may generally be removed by some practice.

448. (III.) Difficulty in sounding some particular letter, as *s*, (called *lisp*ing.) This, in general may be easily corrected.

449. (IV.) Indistinctness, owing to the nose being too much closed, (improperly called '*speaking through the nose*.')

450. (V.) Indistinctness, owing to the mouth being too much closed.

451. (VI.) Weakness of voice, owing to want of effort in uttering sounds.

452. (VII.) Too great slowness, or a hesitating and blundering utterance, owing to want of practice in reading.

453. (VIII.) Too great rapidity, especially in pronouncing long words, so as to render a part of the syllables imperceptible; as, *p'rem't'r'ly*, for *peremptorily*.

454. (ix.) An obscuring of the sound of short vowels and syllables ; as, *pr'vent* for *prevent*, *reb'l* for *rebel*.

455. (x.) Giving too much importance to short vowels and syllables ; as, *ev-un* for *even*, *wick-ud* for *wicked*.

456. (xi.) Sounding more letters than are in a word ; as, *criticisum* for *criticism*, *lawr* for *law*, *perize* for *prize*.

457. (xii.) Neglect to sound consonants plainly, especially at the close of words ; as, *an'* for *and*, *inspec'* for *inspect*, *w'en* for *when*.

458. (xiii.) Neglect to repeat difficult sounds which occur in succession ; as, *the battle last till*, for *the battle lasts still*.

459. (xiv.) Giving an incorrect sound to letters and words ; as, *bile* for *boil*, *wust* for *worst*. This is to be corrected chiefly by means of the dictionary, and comes under the head of *Orthoepy*.

II. STRESS.

460. Stress is the peculiar force with which some syllables are pronounced, in order to distinguish them from others, and is either *accent* or *emphasis*.

I. Accent.

461. Accent is the stress which is laid upon one syllable of every word, by which it is made *louder* than the rest ; as, *dis-ap-pear'*.

462. The uses of accent seem to be—first, to distinguish words from each other—and secondly, to give an opportunity for new emissions of sound at suitable intervals from each other.

463. For this reason, when several monosyllables succeed each other, one or more of them must have an accent ; as, 'I shall go' to-day'.

464. Long words in many cases, besides the regular accent, have a *secondary* accent on some other syllable ; as, *referee'*, *rep'resent'ative*.

465. The syllable on which the accent shall be placed, is

determined by custom; but errors are frequently committed in the placing of the accent; as *de'tail* for *détail'*.

466. When the same word is of different parts of speech, they are frequently distinguished by different accent; as, *con'vert*, *convert'*; *des'ert*, *desert'*.

II. Emphasis.

467. Emphasis is the *strengthening* of the accent on particular words, to distinguish them from others less important.

468. An emphatic syllable should be pronounced not only *louder*, but generally *longer* than others. There are different degrees of emphasis, both as to loudness and as to length; and since it depends upon *relative* and not upon *absolute* sound, there may be emphasis, even in a *whisper*.

469. Want of sufficient emphasis on important words, is a common fault with readers and speakers, and often destroys the whole meaning of a passage; as, 'Paul had determined to sail by Ephesus,' instead of 'Paul had determined to sail *by* Ephesus.'

470. But in avoiding this fault, care must be taken not to emphasize too many and unimportant words, or to fall into a measured or singing emphasis; as, 'He is *the'* man *of'* all *the'* world, *whom'* I *re'*joice *to'* meet.'

471. Yet small words may sometimes become most important, and then require an emphasis; as, 'Then said the high priest, are these things *so'* ?'

472. RULE I. All words which are in *contrast* with each other, must be emphasized; as, 'It is not so difficult to *talk* well, as to *live* well.'

473. Sometimes one part of a contrast is understood; as, 'You wronged *yourself* to write in such a cause,'—'as well as *others*,' understood.

474. The contrast sometimes changes the proper place of the stress; as, 'He must *in'*crease, but I must *de'*crease.'

475. RULE II. Words not in contrast, when they are quite important to the sense, should be emphasized; as, '*Up*, comrades—*up*.'

476. Sometimes several words in succession are to be emphasized, forming an *emphatic clause*; as, '*If-Rome-must-fall*—yet we are innocent.' Sometimes several particulars follow each other, each of which is to be emphasized; as, 'They have *beaten* us, *openly*, *uncondemned*, being *Romans*.'

III. SLIDES.

477. Slides are the peculiar inclinations of the voice with which syllables with a stress are uttered.

478. These slides are of different lengths, according to the length of the stress. In accent they are hardly perceptible, in common emphasis they are quite plain, and in intense emphasis they are very long and distinct.

479. There are four slides, the *rising*, *falling*, *circumflex*, and *monotone*.

480. The *rising* slide, (marked ´) begins at the usual pitch, and turns the sound upwards; as, ‘Did you speak

to *mé?* *mé?* *mé?*

481. The *falling* slide (marked `) begins above the usual pitch, and turns the sound downward; as, ‘Yes, I

spoke to *you.* *you.* *you.*

482. The *circumflex* (marked ~) unites the falling and rising in the same syllable; as, ‘*You, you, you, are very wise.’*

483. The *monotone*, (marked -) continues the sound on the same tone throughout; as, ‘He *rode upon a cherub and did *fly.*’*

484. When short syllables follow a slide, they are continued upon the same tone on which the slide ends; as, *peremp'torily.*

Use of the Slides.

485. RULE I. When words are in *contrast*, the first has the *rising*, and the last the *falling* slide; as, ‘It is not so difficult to *talk well, as to live well.’*

486. RULE II. A *question* that can be answered by *yes* or *no*, ends with the rising slide, other questions with the falling; as, ‘Is it *you?*’ ‘Who are *you?*’

487. RULE III. *Tender emotion* inclines to the rising slide; and *strong emotion*, such as exclamation, denun-

ciation, command, to the falling slide ; as, ‘ Jesus saith unto hér, Máry.’ ‘ Hènce ! hence, you idle créatures.’

488. RULE IV. The *pause of suspènsion*, denoting that the sense is unfinished, requires the rising slide ; but the *final pause*, denoting that the sense is finished, requires the falling slide ; as, ‘ His father dying, he took possession of the estàte.’

489. RULE V. The falling slide is to be used in many cases, besides at the end of sentences ; especially in emphatic *repetition*, or *succession* of particulars ; as, ‘ Charity suffereth long, and is kind ; charity ènvieth not ; charity vaùnteth not itself,’ &c.

490. RULE VI. For the sake of variety, the last pause but one in a sentence usually has the rising slide ; as, ‘ Charity seeketh not her òwn ; is not easily provóked, thinketh no èvil.’ This is sometimes the case with the final pause.

491. RULE VII. The *circumflex* is used in *doubtful* and *sarcastic* expressions ; as, ‘ They tell ùs to be moderate ; but thèy, thèy, are to revel in profusion.’

492. RULE VIII. The *monotone* is used in solemn and dignified discourse, but must not be employed too frequently.

II. MODULATION.

493. Modulation teaches the proper management of the voice in the utterance of whole sentences and discourses, and may be treated under the heads of *melody*, *force*, and *rate*.

I. MELODY.

494. Melody is founded on the distinction of sounds as *high* or *low*, and teaches a proper modulation in this respect.

and gradually descending towards the close of the clause, or sentence, and then commencing high again ; as,

vain here false, fair.
 'How are be and
 all things low; yet
 how how

Compass and Pitch.

503. *Compass of voice* is the distance which it can move from the highest to the lowest tone, and is different in different persons. In nothing will practice effect more than in this, and in nothing do delivery and singing more assist each other.

504. *Pitch of voice* is the prevailing tone on which any performance is uttered, and may be divided into three kinds; the *high pitch*, used in calling to a person at a distance, or in very earnest utterance; the *middle pitch*, used in common conversation, and in most delivery; and the *low pitch*, used in soft or solemn discourse. We may use any of the melodies on any of these pitches.

505. RULE I. A subject should usually be begun with the middle pitch, so that the voice may rise and fall as it proceeds.

506. But if a subject commence remarkably bold or solemn, a higher or lower pitch may be adopted.

507. RULE II. As the sentiment changes, especially at the beginning of new subjects, the pitch should be changed.

Cadence.

508. At the close of a complete thought, whether there be a period or not, the voice should fall below its usual pitch. This is called *cadence*.

509. But in interrogative sentences, and in a few other cases, the voice rises; as, 'You were paid to *fight* against Alexander, not to *raïl* at him.'

510. There are different kinds of *cadences*. Sometimes the voice comes down gradually, *as the steps of a ladder*; and sometimes it comes down suddenly upon the last syllable; and sometimes in other ways.

511. At the close of a whole subject, the cadence should be lower and fuller than usual.

512. It is a common fault, not to make full and complete cadences.

II. FORCE.

513. Force in delivery is founded on the distinction of sounds, as *loud* or *soft*, and teaches a proper modulation in this respect.

514. Persons are apt to confound *force* with *melody*, and if they are told to speak *loud*, they think they must speak *high*. But there is a great difference.

515. It will be remembered that *accent* and *emphasis* are a louder utterance of particular syllables and words.

516. But in putting a force upon sounds, there must be a *fulness* and *clearness*, as well as *loudness* of tone, to make it agreeable and affective.

517. There should be constant variety of force in different parts of the same performance, and the sound should be adapted to the sense.

518. Plaintive delivery requires soft tones; bold and declamatory discourse requires full and swelling tones.

III. RATE.

519. Rate of delivery is founded upon the distinction of sounds, as *long* or *short*, and the *pauses* between the sounds—and teaches a proper modulation in these respects.

I. Length of Sounds.

520. It will be remembered that syllables with a *slide* are sounded longer than others. The sound may be prolonged to any extent, and often great force is added by dwelling on a single syllable.

521. In prolonging syllables, the vowels are the parts to be dwelt upon, and long or open vowels are peculiarly adapted to this purpose; as, *hate*, *harm*.

522. In solemn and dignified discourse, the sounds should be prolonged ; in lively and brisk discourse, they should be cut short.

II. Pauses.

523. Pauses answer two purposes ; first, to give the speaker opportunity to take his breath ; and secondly, to make the sense more obvious to the hearers. The breath should be drawn after every four or five words, so that it may be slight and not perceptible.

524. A pause must be made at all *periods, colons, semicolons, commas, interrogation and exclamation marks, and dashes* ; but the exact length depends upon the sense.

525. Many pauses must be made where there are no marks, but short, and not between words closely connected by Syntax.

526. Plaintive emotions either suppress the voice entirely, or cause it to be uttered with many pauses.

527. A pause should frequently be made after *emphatic* words, and in some cases a *long suspension* of voice will produce great effect.

528. At a change in the subject, a pause should be made longer than usual, to denote the change, and to rest the voice.

529. The effect of delivery depends much more upon *melody* and *rate*, than upon *force* ; and with proper management the *softest tones* will command attention.

II. POETRY.

530. Poetry in its construction differs from *prose*, in having its *accents* placed at regular intervals, so that it may be adapted to singing, and *measured* in beats.

531. Poetry is of two kinds, *blank verse* and *rhyme*.

532. Rhyme is a correspondence in the sound at the close of different lines. It is generally more stiff, and less adapted to forcible and sublime sentiments than blank verse.

533. In all poetry, the accents are made to fall either upon every *second* or upon every *third* syllable. Hence there are two kinds of poetic measure, *double* and *triple* measure.

534. Two or three syllables together are sometimes called a *foot*, because in measuring, they may be denoted by a *beat of the foot*. There are reckoned *eight* different kinds of feet, or ways of reckoning syllables, viz :

FOUR OF TWO SYLLABLES.

<i>Trochee</i> ,	accent on the first syllable ;	as,	<i>hateful</i> .
<i>Iambus</i> ,	“ “ “ last “	as,	<i>betray</i> .
<i>Spondee</i> ,	“ “ both “	as,	<i>pale moon</i> .
<i>Pyrrhic</i> ,	“ “ neither “	as,	<i>on the</i> .

FOUR OF THREE SYLLABLES.

<i>Dactyl</i> ,	accent on the first syllable ;	as,	<i>possible</i> .
<i>Amphibrach</i> ,	“ “ “ second “	as,	<i>delightful</i> .
<i>Anapest</i> ,	“ “ “ last “	as,	<i>contravene</i> .
<i>Tribrach</i> ,	“ “ none ;	as,	<i>numerable</i> .

I. DOUBLE MEASURE.

535. Double measure has every *second* syllable accented. If the *even* syllables are accented, it is called *Iambic* measure ; if the *odd* syllables are accented, it is called *Trochaic* measure.

536. These names are taken from the feet to which they correspond.

I. IAMBIC MEASURE.

537. Iambic measure has all the *even* syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths as follows:—

Of 3 syllables ; as, ‘Disdaining, Complaining, Consenting.’

Of 4 ; as, ‘What place is here ! What scenes appear !’

Of 5 ; as, ‘Upon a mountain, Beside a fountain.’

- Of 6; as, 'Once móre beforé we párt.'
 Of 7; as, 'When sháll the vóice of sínging?'
 Of 8; as, 'Loud swéll the peáling órgan's nótes.'
 Of 9; as, 'Tis swéet to thínk of óne abóvè us.'
 Of 10; as, 'A héap of dúst alóne rémáins of théé.'
 Of 11; as, 'The Lórd is góod, His mércy névèr énding.'
 Of 12; as, 'For thóu art bút of dúst; be húmble ánd be wíse.'

II. TROCHAIC MEASURE.

538. Trochaic measure has all the *odd* syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, as follows:—

- Of 3 syllables; as, 'Túmult céase, Sínk to peáce.'
 Of 4; as, 'On' the móuntain, By' a fóuntain.'
 Of 5; as, 'Sáve me fróm my fóes.'
 Of 6; as, 'Whén our héarts are móurníng.'
 Of 7; as, 'Bíd my ánxíous féars subsíde.'
 Of 8; as, 'Whén I tread the vérgè of Jórdan.'
 Of 9; as, 'I'dle áfter dínnèr ín his cháír.'
 Of 10; as, 'All' that wálk on fóot or ríde ín cháríots.'
 Of 11; as, 'Spléndíd ín the glóríous árch of héav'n abóvè.'
 Of 12; as, 'On' a móuntain, strétched benéáth a hóary wíllow.'

II. TRIPLE MEASURE.

339. Triple measure has every *third* syllable accented. If the accent begin with the *first* syllable, the measure is called *Dactylic*; if with the *second* syllable, it is called *Amphibric*; if with the *third* syllable, *Anapæstic*.

I. DACTYLIC MEASURE.

540. Dactylic measure has the *first, fourth, seventh, &c.*, syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus:—

- Of 3 syllables; as, 'Wíllíngly, Kíllíngly.'
 Of 4; as, 'Wíllíngly hé.'
 Of 5; as, 'Hígh on the móuntáíns.'
 Of 6; as, 'Hígh ó'er the héavéns abóvè.'
 Of 7; as, 'Sólítúde whére are thy chárms.'
 Of 11; as, 'Fróm the low pléásúres of thís fallén náture.' &c.

II. AMPHIBRIC MEASURE.

541. Amphibric measure has the *second, fifth, eighth,* &c., syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus:—

- Of 3 syllables; as, 'Disdáining, Compláining.'
 Of 4; as, 'Disdáiningly, Compláiningly.'
 Of 5; as, 'Disdáiningly hé.'
 Of 6; as, 'Disdáiningly smíling.'
 Of 7; as, 'Disdáiningly éyeing him.'
 Of 8; as, 'Oh, sólitude, wére are thy chárms.' &c.

III. ANAPÆSTIC MEASURE.

542. Anapæstic measure has the *third, sixth, ninth,* &c., syllables accented. Its lines are of different lengths, thus:—

- Of 3 syllables; as, 'But in váin They compláin.'
 Of 4; as, 'On the móuntain.'
 Of 6; as, 'But no árts could aváil.'
 Of 7; as, 'But no árts could aváil him.'
 Of 9; as, 'Oh ye wóods, spread your bránches apáce.'
 Of 12; as, 'May I góvern my pássions with ábsolute swáy.' &c.

Remarks.

543. The different kinds of *Triple* measure are very much alike, and may be changed into each other quite easily.

544. Short syllables are frequently slurred over, an *apostrophe* being generally inserted; as, 'Innum'erable before th' Almighty's throne; *murm'ring, 'tis, many'a.*

545. In *Iambic* measure, *Trochees, Spondees,* and *Pyrrhuses* sometimes take the place of *Iambuses*, especially at the beginning; as,

- 'Murm'ring and with him fléd the shádes of night.'
 'That on weak wings from fár pursúes his flight.'

546. Many monosyllables may be either accented or unaccented, according to their situation. But some cannot be accented at all; as, *a, the, of.*

547. It is a defect in English, that many long words cannot be used in poetry, on account of the accent; as, *impetuosity, magnanimity.*

548. In music a line of *four* syllables is sometimes called

4's; of *five* syllables, 5's; of *six* syllables, 6's, &c. *Ten* syllable Iambics are called *heroic* lines, and *twelve* syllable Iambics are called *Alexandrines*.

549. Different kinds of measure are suited to different subjects. The *Triple* is more flowing and easy than the *Double*. Short lines are more lively than long ones. *Iambic* measure, especially *heroic* is more used than any other.

STANZAS.

550. A *stanza*, (sometimes called a *verse*,) is any number of lines, containing all the different kinds of lines in the piece.

551. A *couplet* is two adjacent lines, in rhyme with each other. A *triplet* is three such lines.

552. Stanzas are of different kinds, according to the kind and arrangement of the lines. The most common are called *common*, *short*, *particular*, *hallelujah*, &c.

553. *Common* metre stanzas consist of four Iambic lines; one of eight, the next of six syllables. They were formerly written in two fourteen syllable lines.

554. *Short* metre stanzas consist of four Iambic lines; the *third* of eight, the rest of six syllables.

555. *Particular* metre stanzas consist of six Iambic lines; the *third* and *sixth* of six syllables, the rest of eight.

556. *Hallelujah* metre stanzas consist of six Iambic lines; the *last two* of eight syllables, and the rest of six.

557. *Long* metre stanzas are merely the union of four Iambic lines. They sometimes consist of six lines.

THE READING OF POETRY.

558. Poetry should generally be read in a more swelling and flowing manner than prose.

559. In common lines a pause should be observed, as near as possible to the middle, which is called the *cæsural* pause; as,

' Warms in the sun, || refreshes in the breeze,
Glow in the stars, || and blossoms in the trees.'

560. But the pause must be so placed as not to injure the sense ; as,

‘ I sit, || with sad civility I read.’

561. In most lines, a slight pause should be observed at the end, even if there is no mark ; as,

‘ ————— Thus with the year

Seasons return ; || but not to me returns

Day, || or the sweet approach of even or morn.’

562. A stress should not be placed on syllables which do not allow it, merely to mark the measure ; as,

‘ False eloquence, like *the* prismatic glass,’ &c.

563. Vowels which are slurred over should be pronounced in reading, but it should be *slightly*.

APPENDIX;

CONTAINING

NOTES, CRITICAL AND EXPLANATORY.

THE FIGURES REFER TO THE PRECEDING TEXT-BOOK.

GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR, like arithmetic, is both a *science* and an *art*. As an art, it consists in the *right use* of language. But as a science it consists of a system of *principles and rules* which teach that art, but are not the art *itself*. *Philosophical Grammar* explains the principles which are common to all languages, and which, being founded on the very nature of the mind, are more extensive than is frequently supposed. *Particular Grammar* applies these general principles to a particular language, adapting them to the practice of the best writers by whom it is used. It is with the particular grammar of the English language that we have now to do.

“Grammar is the *science* of language.”—*Kirkham’s Grammar*.

The English language was originally formed from the Saxon, which, with other tongues, was founded upon the ancient Gothic. The Saxons, coming from Germany in the fifth century, took possession of the South of England, and gave rise to the present language. In the ninth century, the Danes, from Denmark, began to trouble England; and from that time we can trace the progress of the language by writings which remain. In the eleventh century, the Danes gained possession of the country, and, though they reigned but a short time, produced some effect upon the language. In the same century, the Normans took the country, and endeavored to introduce their language, (the Norman-French.) They did not succeed in this, but a large number of Norman words and phrases were thus incorporated into the previous Saxon language; and it continued to improve, till at about the thirteenth century, it may be called English, though so different from the modern

English, as to be scarcely intelligible to us. Since that time it has gradually improved, by the addition of words from the Greek, Latin, French, Italian, Spanish, and German, and by the more regular arrangement of its disorderly parts. It is now probably as copious and forcible a language as any that is spoken, and is still receiving constant accessions from those foreign sources.

Most of the words of a language have no real connection with the ideas which are attached to them, but are merely used by common consent as *signs* of these ideas. The same word has many ideas attached to it; so that the number of words is far less than the number of ideas to be conveyed. In English the number, after deducting proper names, and variations of other words, does not exceed forty thousand.

ETYMOLOGY.

5—10. Words have been generally divided into the *nine parts of speech* merely. Pursuing very nearly this arrangement, we have added another and more general classification into *four* classes, the benefits of which will be obvious. It brings together parts of speech which are similar, and thus produces clearness and comprehensiveness in the study. It simplifies the language of Syntax, and is a principle means of reducing the common number of general rules, (from *twenty-three* to *sixty*,) down to *fourteen*. Upon the propriety of the *names* adopted, we offer the following—

6. "*Substantive*, in grammar, the part of speech which *expresses something that exists*, whether material or immaterial."—*Webster*.

7. "*Adjective*, in grammar, a word *used with a noun*, to express a quality of the thing named, or something attributed, or to *limit* or *define* it, or to specify or define a thing as distinct from something else."—*Webster*. "*Adjective*, a word *added to a substantive*," &c.—*Murray et al.* Such, too, is the Etymology of the word. *Adjective pronouns*, (as they are commonly called,) are certainly *adjectives*. But why should the *articles* be excluded? Are they not *added to substantives*? Is not *the* as much an adjective as *that*? Accordingly, we reckon adjective pronouns and articles as one kind of *adjectives*, under the name of *definitives*, and other adjectives are called *descriptives*, to distinguish them. "*The*, an adjective or *definitive adjective*."—*Webster*. "*An* is a mere adjective."—*Webster*. "*That* is a word used as a *definitive adjective*."—*Webster*. And so of all other words. "*Definitive*, in grammar, an *adjective* used to

define or limit the extent of the signification of an appellative or common noun."—*Webster*. See also *Fisk's Murray*. "In a scientific arrangement of grammatical principles, *a* and *the* belong to that class of adjectives denominated *definitives* or *restrictives*.—*Kirkham's Grammar*.

9. "*Particle*, in grammar, a word that is not varied or inflected."—*Webster*. "The parts of speech which are not inflected, are called by the general name of particles. They are adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections."—*Andrews' Latin Exercises*.

If we suppose men to have formerly existed entirely without language, it is natural to imagine that they invented words very nearly in the order in which we have arranged them. Their first business would be to apply names to the objects around them, then to point them out, then to make statements in relation to them, and finally to use other words to abbreviate their expressions, and to show delicate turns of thought. Thus, in looking at the stars, a beginner in language would exclaim "*stars!*" and this would answer his present purpose; but an individual more advanced would cry, "*bright stars!*" and one still further acquainted with language would pronounce, "*bright stars shine;*" while one thoroughly skilled in the communication of thought, would say, "*The bright stars shine beautifully above.*" This will be found to be nearly the way in which children learn to talk.

SUBSTANTIVES.

13—19. Many reckon *abstract* nouns, like collective nouns, as a subdivision of the common. But can such words as *mercy*, *loveliness*, *meekness*, be brought under any regular definition of *common* nouns? By forming a separate class, we make the definitions more accurate, we give an opportunity for the distinction at 45, and we may exercise the scholar in judging between common and abstract nouns, and modes of expression. "Nouns are either *proper*, *common*, or *abstract*."—*Andrews' Latin Exercises*. The proper and common name of an object are frequently associated; as, *Cowper, the poet*.

20. What are sometimes termed *adjective pronouns* we place under the head of *adjectives*, rather than under that of *pronouns*. The reason is, that their appropriate use is that of adjectives, and when they are not so used, a substantive is properly understood. See *Brown's and Kirkham's Grammars*.

22. When *it* is so used, it seems not to relate to any particular thing, but to a *state of existence*. When *there* is so used, it has a shorter pronunciation and a very different meaning from the adverb *there*. It is used with the verb *be*, only.

26. *Whether* was formerly used as an interrogative, referring to one of two things; as, "*Whether* is greater, the gold or the temple?" We now use the adjective *which* instead of it.

27. "The word for which a *pronoun* stands, is called its antecedent. But some have limited the term *antecedent* to the word represented by a *relative*."—*Brown's Grammar*. A pronoun is sometimes antecedent to another pronoun; as, "*He that* comes." Some call the word an *antecedent*, even if it comes *after* the pronoun; but this is evidently wrong.

28. *Person* is that property of a substantive which shows its relation to the discourse itself, whether as author, hearer, or mere subject of the discourse. *Number* is that property which has reference to unity and plurality. *Gender* is a distinction in regard to sex. *Case* is the relation of a substantive in a sentence; it therefore properly belongs to Syntax, under which head it is treated. How often has the learner been puzzled to understand case, merely because it was brought before him out of its proper place!

30, 31. *You* was formerly confined to the plural number, but is now used in common discourse as singular also, the original singular thou, (with its plural *ye*,) being reserved for solemn and dignified discourse. The solemn style is used in the scriptures and some solemn writings, in our addresses to the Deity, in most poetry, and universally by the *Friends*. Is it not a palpable defect in our grammars, to overlook this distinction, and compel us still to parse *you* as always plural? "Some grammarians consider the pronoun *you* to be always of the plural number; and the reason which they give, is this, that the pronoun *you* always requires a plural verb; but I consider that there is no more impropriety in saying that *are* is singular when it agrees with *you*, (*you* meaning but one person,) than there is in saying *were* is singular, when it agrees with *I, thou, he, she, or it*, of the third person singular."—*Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar*.

32—34. "Nouns have two persons, the second and third. In sentences like the following, 'I *Jonas Taylor*, give,' &c., it is evident that the speaker, in introducing his own name, speaks of himself; consequently the noun is of the *third person*.—*Kirkham's Grammar*. "All nouns and pronouns whatever, except *I, thou, we, ye, or you*, are, in grammatical construction, of the third person.—*Alexander's Grammar*."

35. In the Greek and some other languages, there are *three* numbers; the *singular*, to represent one; the *dual*, to represent two; and the *plural* to represent more than two. This probably originated from an ignorance of counting in the first ages. Thus the savage would count *one, two*, and being able to go

no farther, would call all other numbers *many* or *plural*. Something of the *dual* sense is seen in our *either*, *neither*, *both*, and the ancient *whether*.

36, 37. The addition of *s* or *es* sometimes produces an additional syllable, and sometimes it does not; as, *house*, *houses*, *box*, *box-es*, *cargo*, *cargoes*.

38. *Y* with a vowel before it, is sometimes changed into *ies* by good authorities; as, *attornies*, *journies*. But this is best avoided.

41. The following are the principal words which have foreign plurals according to this rule; Antithesis, apex, appendix, arcanum, automaton, axis, basis, calx, crisis, criterion, datum, dieresis, desideratum, effluvium, ellipsis, emphasis, encomium, erratum, genius, hypothesis, ignus fatuus, index, magus, media, memorandum, metamorphosis, parenthesis, phenomenon, radius, stimulus, stratum, thesis, vertex, vortex.

43. There are different opinions as to these expressions. Some think they should be *baskets-ful*, *Miss Thompsons*.

50. It is generally said that words connected by *and* require a plural verb, *without exception*. But it is evident that there are many exceptions.

55. It will be perceived that all nouns are properly of the third person, and that the third person only has the distinctions of sex. The reason is, that the first and second persons being present, their *names* and their *sex* are supposed to be known, and therefore no nouns or genders are needed for these persons.

Males and females are distinguished by words in three principal ways:

(1.) By the use of different names; as, *boy*, *girl*; *father*, *mother*; *brother*, *sister*.

(2.) By the use of different terminations; as, *abbot*, *abbess*; *hero*, *heroine*.

(3.) By prefixing another word; as, *man-servant*, *maid-servant*.

ADJECTIVES.

57. For the propriety of the words *adjective* and *definitive* as here used, see note 7. 60. At the end of this paragraph, for "*both numbers*," read "*either number*."

61. The original article is *an* from the Saxon *ane* one. Hence its meaning. When we say *a house*, we mean in fact *one house*. Thus in French, the number *une*, one, answers both purposes; and hence a Frenchman learning English, says *one book*, *one man*, for *a book*, *a man*. *An* was formerly used before all words beginning with *h*; as, *an house*, *an hundred*.

63. The uniting of *an* and *other* seems to be unnecessary, and sometimes leads to the repetition of the article ; as, *another such a man*.

65—70. It will be perceived that the distinctions of articles, demonstratives, &c. are not brought before the mind of the *beginner*, to confuse it, but are reserved for a later period of the study. The distinction of *definitive* is sufficiently minute for the novice in grammar, and answers all *practical* purposes. How much better this, than to fill his mind in the outset with unimportant names and useless distinctions.

65. It is generally said that *the* shows exactly what is meant, and *a* or *an* does not. But that no such general rule can be laid down will be evident from the following examples; *He played the gentleman. Lions roam in the forest. Solomon built a temple. Washington was a patriot.* It is also generally said that a noun without an article is taken in its widest sense. That this rule is not general will be seen from the following cases; *Boys, come in. Air is in this room.* All that can properly be said of the articles, is, that *a* is used to mean *one*, and *the* is used when an article is needed and *a* would not do. *The* is sometimes used before a singular to designate the whole class; as, *the beasts of the forest.* When *the* is prefixed to adverbs, adverbial phrases are formed; as, *the better*, (that is, *in the better manner*.)

The importance of the proper use of articles will be seen from the different meanings of the following expressions; 'the son of a king,' 'the son of the king,' 'a son of a king,' 'a son of the king,' 'thou art a man,' 'thou art *the* man.'

67. The words *which* and *what* are generally reckoned as a distinct kind of definitives, under the name of *interrogatives*. But they are used as often without asking a question as with. They are therefore properly reckoned among the *indefinites*.

68. *Every* was formerly used apart from its substantive, but is not now, except in legal language; as, 'Each and every of them.'

69, 70. Both numerals and ordinals are sometimes called *numerals*, the first kind being distinguished as *cardinal*. But this makes unnecessary confusion; and besides, the words *first*, *second*, &c. do not express *number*.

71. Definitives when alone may be parsed, either as agreeing with their substantives understood, or as definitives used as pronouns.

72. Descriptives are sometimes divided into *common*; as, *good*, *bad*;—*proper*; as, *American*, *English*;—and *compound*; as, *nut-brown*, *laughter-loving*, *four-footed*.

74. There seems to be an impropriety in the use of the word *degree*, as applied to the positive. Hence we use the word *form*. For the same reason, we avoid the expression *degrees of comparison*, since comparison is not always implied. "The degrees of comparison are two; the comparative and superlative."—*Alexander's Grammar*.

Most qualities have an infinite number of degrees. But as these could not all be expressed by different forms, we use but a few different shapes of the descriptive, and denote the degree of quality more exactly by the use of adverbs. It is only words of one syllable, and those of two syllables which end in *y* or *le*, that generally have these different forms. The adverb prefixed to an adjective should be parsed separately. "This can hardly be called a variation of the adjective. The adverbs may with more propriety be parsed separately." *Brown*.

VERBS.

85. Verbs which denote action, are called *active* verbs; and verbs which denote being, are called *neuter* verbs. But this distinction need not be made in parsing, since it is rather *logical* than *grammatical*. Indeed, it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a verb does denote action or simply being. Thus the verb *stand* seems at first view to represent merely a state of being, but examination will show that there is action in it; for we must exert our muscles to keep from falling, so that *standing*, in this sense is an act. Yet what purpose does it answer in grammar to decide whether it denotes being or action? This will not effect the relations of words, or the manner of expressing a sentence. The only necessary distinction here, seems to be that of *transitive* and *intransitive*, for this is what affects the construction. This is the only distinction made by Noah Webster, and some other eminent grammarians, and answers every practical purpose. Most *transitive* verbs, of course, express action. "Verbs are of two kinds, transitive and intransitive."—*Kirkham's Grammar*. So also *Alexander's Grammar*.

Some grammarians say that all verbs denote *action*; but as we have shown, this point is unnecessary to be decided in grammar, although there may be some ground for the assumption. Others say that all verbs are *transitive*, affecting objects expressed or *understood*. Thus, if we say "I stand;" we mean "I stand or support myself." If we say "we are," we mean "we air *ourselves!*" How philosophical this may be, we will not now decide; but we leave it to plain common-sense men, to say if it is proper to be taught to children. Yet this is the result of boasted modern improvement, and is even now taught in some places in this country.

Some verbs really *affect* their objects ; as, "The man *makes* shoes ;" others merely *have reference* to their objects ; as, "John *resembles* George ;" "I *have* a book."

Some persons speak of *impersonal verbs* ; as, *it rains, it snows*. But the verbs are as evidently personal in this case, and have as regularly a subject, as in any other, and thus do not resemble Latin Impersonal verbs. All the indefiniteness of such expressions, arises from the use of the word *it*. See 22.

93. If modes be the *manner of representing* the verb, we see no good reason why *participles* should not be reckoned a mode. Are they not a manner of representing the verb ? And why should we have a certain number of modes, and then a nameless appendage, neither mode nor tense, under the name of participle ? "Participles are, in one sense, but a mere *mode or form* of the verb."—*Prof. Pond's Grammar*.

96. It will be seen, that we consider the *subjunctive* not a mode, but a *way of using* the other modes. A neglect of this principle has involved grammarians in many difficulties. They are at a loss how to dispose of such expressions as, "If I can come," "Though he should go," &c. because they are both subjunctive and potential. They have been obliged to exhibit *two forms* of the subjunctive mode. The first of these forms is the *Indicative form of the Subjunctive mode!* How much more simple to say that it is the indicative mode *used subjunctively* or in a doubtful sense. The second of these forms is the *Elliptical form of the Subjunctive mode*, about which, Green in a note of his grammar says ; "This form of the subjunctive mode has *should*, or some other auxiliary understood." (p. 77.) Kirkham calls it the *elliptical future*, and says an auxiliary is always understood. How much more simple to say that it is the potential mode *with the auxiliary understood*. Thus we are freed entirely from the useless trumpery of a subjunctive mode, and are still left with *three* finite modes, which are as many as the Latin, French, and other languages possess. For further illustration of this point, see § 188—192, & 295.

We say that the *subjunctive* is as much a *kind of sentence* as the *affirmative*, the *negative*, or the *interrogative*. And we say further, that if one is a *mode*, then the whole are modes ; if there is a subjunctive mode, then there is an affirmative mode, a negative mode, and an interrogative mode. If placing the conjunction *if* in the sentence, changes "I did go," to another mode ; then placing the adverb *not* in the same sentence, changes it to yet another mode. But every purpose is answered with far greater simplicity, by calling the *sentence* affirmative, negative, interrogative, or subjunctive, as the case may be, and parsing the *verb* as indicative or potential, the

auxiliary of the latter being sometimes understood. For the cases when the auxiliary is best omitted, see 295.

97. Though *imperative* implies a demand, yet this mode is used also for the humblest kind of entreaty ; as, "*Forgive us our trespasses.*"

104. Tenses are generally said to represent *time* merely. But if so, there could be but *three* tenses, as there are but three divisions of time.

The common arrangement of *tenses* is very obscure and complicated. But here, the very terms used explain themselves ; the meaning of all the tenses is clearly exhibited in a single sentence ; the conjugation of the verb is made short and plain ; the formation of the tenses is seen at a single view ; and the whole subject occupies two or three pages, instead of fifteen or twenty. We leave it for teachers and pupils to say if this method does not furnish the advantages which we ourselves have derived from it, in our instruction of the young.

109. What propriety is there in attributing time to the imperative, infinitive, and potential modes ? Yet this is the common method. Is not the accurate distinction of these modes *perfect* and *imperfect*.

"Participles do not, of themselves, express any particular time ; but they denote the state of being, action, or passion, in regard to its progress or *completion*. The participle in *ing* has been called *present* and *active* ; but its distinguishing character is that it denotes an *unfinished* and progressive state ; it is, therefore, properly called the *imperfect participle*. This name is adopted and defended by several of the most respectable grammarians ; as, *Dr. Crombe, J. Grant, and T. D. Churchill*. The particle in *ed* denotes completion, and is therefore denominated the *perfect participle*."—*Kirkham's Grammar*. "The most unexceptionable distinction which grammarians make between the participles, is, that the one points to the *continuation* of the action, &c., and the other to the *completion* of it. Thus, the present participle signifies *imperfect* action, or action begun and not ended ; the past participle signifies action *perfected* or finished."—*Murray*. The same reasoning will apply to all other parts of the verb.

114. In conjugating the verb, we deem it most simple to exhibit it by tenses merely, without reference to number and person. The personal variations are in English very few, and are most easily learned and understood, and most practically remembered by means of *rules*, as in 240, 241. The conjugation is thus very much simplified and shortened, and yet more perfectly understood.

The *second* principal part, as it has no other parts formed from it, is sometimes called the *preterit* to distinguish it. See *Brown's Grammar*.

118. It is commonly said that the potential mode has no future tenses. But are not future events represented as often comparatively in the potential as in the indicative? Green, in his grammar, after making the abovementioned statement, says that *shall* and *will* may be considered as sometimes belonging to the potential mode, (p. 38.) We therefore use them in conjugating both modes.

When do *shall* and *will* denote simple *futurity*, and when *determination*? Ans.—*Shall*, with the first person, and *will* with the other persons, denote simple futurity; *will*, with the first person, and *shall* with the other persons, denote determination; as, *I shall go, you will go, he will go*, indicative; *I will go, you shall go, he shall go*, potential. But in *interrogative* and *subjunctive* sentences, this rule does not always hold; as, *shall we go, if he will go*. The expression *will have* is not used in subjunctive sentences.

121. Some are in the habit of calling the passive form of expression an additional kind of verb, under the name of *passive verb*, or *passive voice*, and conjugating it throughout as such. But it is no more necessary to do this, than it is to call 'I am moving,' an additional kind of verb, and conjugate it as such—or to call 'I am ashamed' still another kind of verb. It is far more simple to remember, that in each of these cases we have merely the verb *to be* united to a participle or an adjective, and that these are all *forms of expression*, not different kinds of verbs. "What is called the *passive verb* is not properly a distinct verb, but merely a particular form of the active verb."—*Pond's Murray's Grammar*. "In English, we have no passive verbs. That form of expression, which answers to the Greek and Latin passive verbs, is made by the combination of a helping verb and a participle of the past time."—*Alexander's Grammar*. We thus free our grammar from the whole confusion and unnecessary prolixity caused by the passive conjugation. But some seem to delight in making any subject which they teach appear *large* and important, and especially to clothe the simple English tongue with all the formality and circumstance of ancient, learned, *dead* languages! But the principles of mode, tense, &c., which we have given, are analagous to the principles of those languages, and we are in error, if their grammars would not be much simplified by a little improvement in these respects. Certain it is, that no one need fear, that by the study of the verbs as here unfolded, he will be at all unfitted to engage in the study of the dead languages.

Others, in this day of ultra improvement, are taking the other extreme. Several grammars have appeared, which discard altogether the idea of any auxiliaries, and parse each part of the verb separately. Thus, in the sentence, "He will have been overtaken," *will* is considered the finite verb—*have* as in the infinitive without the sign *to*, and governed by *will*,—*been* as a perfect participle belonging to *he*, and *overtaken* also as a perfect participle belonging to *he*. Our objection to this is, that it is an extreme,—that it makes the conjugation of a verb convey no practical meaning,—that it is too close an analysis for the minds of youth,—and that it throws away those names, which are needed, if not to point out *single words*, yet still to designate different *forms of expression*. We may philosophically explain that verbs are thus resolvable into their parts; yet still there is a practical convenience in calling a certain form of words, always used in the same connection, either *perfect* or *imperfect*, *indicative* or *potential* in meaning. We therefore choose to hold a *medium* course; to discard the verb *to be*, as an auxiliary, since to consider it in this light serves merely to confuse,—but to retain the other auxiliaries as such, since this manner of considering them will throw most clear and practical light upon their use.

123. We have found this method of arranging the irregular verbs to take up less room than common, and to facilitate the memory and the understanding of the pupil. We have not embraced in the list, such words as are obsolete or unallowable, but have included all the irregular verbs now in good use. Most of them will be found to be of *one* syllable, and to have been derived from the Saxon. The whole number of verbs in English, is about 4300, of irregular verbs, 177.

A few of these verbs need a remark. *Let* is much used in the imperative mode followed by the infinitive; as, "Let him go;" that is, "Let, (or allow) thou him (to) go." *Read* and *heat*, though always spelled the same, are shortened in pronunciation in the second and third parts. *Borne* is the regular third part of *bear*, to bring forth; but *born* is used as the passive participle; as, "America has *borne* such heroes as are *born* nowhere else." The auxiliary *may*, *might*, implies opportunity or privilege; *can*, *could*, implies power or liberty; *must* implies obligation or necessity; *would* implies will; *should* implies duty or contingency; *have*, *had*, implies completeness; *do*, *did*, implies certainty. *Ought*, is not used with auxiliaries; *quoth* means the same as *said*; *lo!* means the same as *behold!* *beware* is not used in the present indicative, or in the second and third parts.

The nature of the English language and of the English people is such, as to tend constantly to the contraction of our

words, especially the verbs. Thus the plural termination *en* has become entirely obsolete; *th* or *eth* is no longer in common use; *ed* is contracted in pronunciation, the ancient *ys* or *is* is changed to *s* or *es*, and is usually pronounced without an additional syllable; and the participial *en* is used less and less frequently.

PARTICLES.

126. These kinds of adverbs may be variously subdivided; as, adverbs of *time present, past, future, indefinite, &c.* But it is thought unnecessary in a text book to go into all these little particulars, especially as they are observable to all, without remark.

It might seem unnecessary to have adverbs of *time*, since we have tenses to our verbs to express time. But it will be remembered that tenses mark only the three grand divisions of time; and adverbs are needed to express more definitely the exact point of time intended.

128. Most adverbs in *ly* have their degrees expressed by *more, most, &c.* as, *gently, more gently, most gently, &c.*

129. Relative pronouns and prepositions, as well as conjunctions, serve to connect, but this is not their peculiar office.

130. Conjunctions are generally divided into *copulative* and *disjunctive*; but more confusion than practical advantage seems to be derived from the division. We have therefore omitted it. See *Webster's grammar*. We have however placed the words in the usual order, so that those who choose, may make the distinction.

131. The following are the principal words thus used: '*after, again, also, before, besides, else, even, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, since, then, thence, therefore, till, until, when, where, wherefore, while or whilst.*'—*Brown*.

132. The primary object of prepositions, is to denote relations of *place*. But they are also used figuratively to denote other relations, which bear some resemblance to that of place; as, "The rich are *above* the poor;" "You are *in* danger."

The same preposition may show a number of relations in different cases, as will be seen by the following meanings of the preposition *for*.

1. *Because of*; as, "Praise him *for* his goodness."
2. *For the sake of*; as, "He did it *for* me."
3. *In favor of*; as, "He is *for* me."
4. *For the purpose of*; as, "It was made *for* sailing."
5. *In exchange for*; as, "He took money *for* his goods."
6. *With regard to*; as, "*For* me, I am poor."

7. *As* ; "Let him go *for* an infidel."
8. *By means of* ; as, "If it were not *for* him."
9. *Toward* ; as, "He sailed *for* China."
10. *In search of* ; as, "We went *for* wealth."
11. *Notwithstanding* ; as, "*For* all that, you are poor."
12. *In proportion to* ; as, "He is large *for* his age."
13. *During* ; as, "He serves *for* life."
14. *I long for* ; as, "O, *for* better times." &c. &c.

135. The following are some of the principal expressions of emotion. 1. Joy—*hey! io! O! ha, ha, ha!* 2. Sorrow—*oh! eh! ah! alas! alack!* 3. Wonder—*heigh! oh! ah! hah! strange!* 4. Aversion—*pugh! poh! pshaw! pish! tush! foh! fie! off! begone!* 5. Calling—*O! ho! soho! hollo! lo! behold! hark! look! see! hush! hist! hum!* 6. Exultation—*aha! huzza! hey day! hurrah!* 7. Salutation—*welcome! hail! all hail! farewell! adieu!*

Yes! and *No!* are commonly reckoned adverbs; but they are mere cries of assent and dissent, and are more properly called *interjections*. Do they ever *qualify* anything?

PHRASES.

137. A phrase may be parsed as a single word; but it is better, when it is possible, to analyze it more particularly. There are some irregular expressions in every language, which cannot be explained upon the principles of grammar. Custom has made them correct, and all we can say of them is, that they are *idiomatical phrases*. Such are the following; *methinks, thinks I, than whom*.

DERIVATION.

Inseperable Prepositions.

169. These are derived chiefly from other languages, but have each a distinct meaning of its own. The following is a list of the principal ones, among which we have inserted some which are used also apart.

A denotes on or in; as, *afloat, abed*.

A, ab, or abs, (Lat.)—from, away; as *absolve*.

A, (Greek,)—without; as, *abyss*, without bottom.

Ad, (Lat.)—to, at; as, *adjoin*.

After—after; as, *afternoon*.

Amphi, (Gr.)—both; as, *amphibious*, living both ways.

Ante, (Lat.)—before; as, *ante-chamber*.

Anti, (Gr.)—against; as, *Antichrist*.

Apo, (Gr.)—from; as, *apostrophe*, taken from.

- Be—abundance ; as, *belove, bedaub*.
 Circum, (Lat.)—around ; as, *circumnavigate*.
 Com, con, co, col, (Lat.)—together ; as, *coöperate*.
 Contra, (Lat.)—opposite ; as, *contra-distinguish*.
 Counter, (Fr.)—opposite ; as, *counter-balance*.
 De, (Lat.)—down, from ; as, *depart*.
 Di, dis, (Lat.)—apart, not ; as, *dissever, displease*.
 Dia, (Gr.)—through ; as, *diameter*, measure through.
 E, ex, (Lat.)—out of ; as, *express*.
 En, em, (Fr.)—in ; as, *entangle*.
 Enter, (Fr.)—between ; as, *enter-lace*.
 Epi, (Gr.)—upon ; as, *epicycle*, upon a circle.
 Extra, (Lat.)—without, beyond ; as, *extraordinarily*.
 For—not ; as, *forbid*.
 Fore—before ; as, *foresee*.
 Gain—against ; as, *gainsay*.
 Hyper, (Gr.)—over ; as, *hypercritical*.
 Hypo, (Gr.)—under ; as, *hypocritical*.
 In, (Lat.)—in, not ; as, *inlay, indecent*.
 Inter, (Lat.)—between ; as, *interjoin*.
 Intro, (Lat.)—within ; as *introversion*.
 Miss—wrongly ; as, *misinform*.
 Meta, (Gr.)—change ; as, *metamorphose*, to change the shape.
 Ob, (Lat.)—before, against ; as, *object*, throw against.
 Out—beyond ; as, *outrun*.
 Over—over ; as, *overlook*.
 Para, (Gr.)—beyond, beside ; as, *paragraph*, written beyond.
 Per, (Lat.)—through ; as *perfume*.
 Peri, (Gr.)—around ; as, *periwig*.
 Post, (Lat.)—after ; as, *post-existence*.
 Pre, (Lat.)—before ; as, *prescience*.
 Preter, (Lat.)—beyond ; as, *preternatural*.
 Pro, (Lat.)—before, forward ; as, *promotion*.
 Re, (Lat.)—back, again ; as, *reprint*.
 Retro, (Lat.)—back ; as, *retrocession*.
 Se, (Lat.)—apart ; as, *secession*.
 Semi, demi, hemi, (Lat.)—half ; as, *semicircle, demigod, hemi-*
 Sub, subter, (Lat.)—under ; as, *sub-deacon*. [sphere.
 Super, (Lat.)—over, above ; as, *superfine*.
 Sur, (Fr.)—over ; as, *surpass*.
 Syn, sym, syl, (Gr.)—with, together ; as, *sympathy*, feeling with.
 Trans, or tra, (Lat.)—over, beyond ; as, *transplant*.
 Ultra, (Lat.)—beyond ; as, *ultra-marine*.
 Un—not, &c. ; as, *unworthy, uneasy*.
 Under—under ; as, *undersell*.
 Up—up ; as, *uphold*.
 With—against ; as, *withstand*.

Derivation of Saxon words.

177. The following are the derivations of many of the smaller Saxon words.

A, or an, ane, aen, one—from *ananud*, to add.

The, se, see, te—from *thean*, to take.

That, thaet, the—from *thean*, to take.

Still—from *stellan*, to put.

Else—from *alesan*, to dismiss.

Rather—comparative of *rath*, soon.

And—from *anad*, *ananad*, to add to.

If—from *gif*, *gifan*, to grant.

Yet—from *get*, *getan*, to get.

Eke, (also)—from *eac*, *eacan*, to add.

Though—from *thafig*, *thafigan*, to allow.

But [conj.]—from *bot*, *botan*, to add.

But [prep.]—from *be-utan*, *beon-utan*, to be out.

Unless—from *onles*, *onlesan*, to dismiss.

Less—from *lesed lesan*, to dismiss.

Since—from *sines* or *syne*, *seon*, to see.

Either—from *ægther*. At—from *aet*.

Above—from *a*, *be*, and *ufa*, high.

About—from *a* and *bout*, limit.

After—comparative of *aft*.

Against—from *on-geond*, gone at.

Amongst—from *a* and *mongst*, mixed.

Beneath—from *be* and *neath*, low; whence *nether*.

Between—from *be* and *twain*, two.

Betwixt—from *be* and a Gothic word, two.

Beyond—from *be* and *geond*, *geondan*, to pass.

By, bi, be—from *beon*, to be.

Down—from *dun*, low.

During—from *dure*, to last.

From—from *frum* or *fram*, beginning.

Up, upon—from *ufon*, high.

Over—from *ufera*, higher.

Through—from *thorough*, a door.

To, till—from *to* and *til*, end.

Toward—from *to* and *ward*, *wardian*, to look.

Under (Dutch)—from *on-neder*, or *on-nether*.

With—from *withan*, to join.

Fie!—from *fian*, to hate.

What—from *qua that*, *hwa that*, &c.

I—written *J*, *Y*, *y*, *i*, *ic*, *ich*. My—*mi*, *min*, *mine*, *myn*, *myn*.

Me—*mee*. We—*wee*. Our—*ours*, *oure*, *ure*. All the pronouns were written thus variously.

Needs is a contraction of *need is*; prithee, of *I pray thee*; alone, of *all one*; only, of *one like*; anon, of *in one* (instant);

or, of *other* ; nor, of *not or* ; among, of *amongst* ; through, of *thorough* ; welcome, of *well come*.

Very is formed from the French, *veray* or *vrai*, true ; along, from *a* and *long* ; amid, from *a* and *mid* or *middest* ; before, from *be* and *fore* ; concerning, from *concern* ; excepting, from *except* ; round, from the adjective *round* ; throughout, from *through* and *out* ; underneath, from *under* and *neath* ; within, from *with* and *in* ; without, from *with* and *out* ; hey ! from *high* ; alas ! from the French *helas* ! alack ! from *alas* ! heyday ! from *high day* ! avaunt ! from the French *avant*, before ; lo ! from *look* ; begone, from *be* and *gone*, &c.

Some grammarians think that in parsing such words as the foregoing, we should follow the original Saxon meaning, calling *that* always a pronoun, *but* and *if* imperative modes, &c. *But* however philosophical this may be, we must, in instructing youth, always go by the *present use* and import of words ; and teach the language as it *is*, not as it *was*, remembering that a child should first learn the *modern English*, and afterwards may attend to the *ancient Saxon*.

Derivation of Grammatical Terms.

These are mostly from the Latin and Greek, as follows :

- Grammar, (Gr.) *gramma*, first principles.
- Etymology, (Gr.) *etymon logos*, science of roots.
- Syntax, (Gr.) *sun taxis*, uniting together.
- Orthography, (Gr.) *orthos graphe*, true writing.
- Prosody, (Gr.) *pros odos*, relating to odes.
- Adjective, (Lat.) *ad jicio*, added to.
- Verb, (Lat.) *verbum*, a word [important.]
- Particle, (Lat.) *particula*, a small part.
- Noun, (Lat.) *nomen*, a name.
- Pronoun, (Lat.) *pro nomen*, instead of a name.
- Antecedent, (Lat.) *ante cedo*, going before.
- Subsequent, (Lat.) *sub sequor*, following after.
- Gender, (Lat.) *gens*, a kind.
- Neuter, (Lat.) neither.
- Article, (Lat.) *articulus*, a small joint.
- Transitive, (Lat.) *trans eo*, passing over.
- Potential, (Lat.) *potens*, powerful.
- Subjunctive, (Lat.) *sub jungo*, subjoined.
- Adverb, (Lat.) *ad verbum*, added to a verb.
- Conjunction, (Lat.) *con jungo*, conjoining.
- Preposition, (Lat.) *pre pono*, placed before.
- Interjection, (Lat.) *inter jicio*, thrown between.
- Primitive, (Lat.) *primus*, the first.
- Attribute, (Lat.) *ad tribuo*, applied to.

- Complex, (Lat.) *com plecto*, embraced together.
 Analysis, (Gr.) *ana lysis*, taking apart.
 Parse, (Lat.) *pars*, a part.
 Ellipsis, (Gr.) *elleipsis*, leaving out.
 Vowel, (Lat.) *vocalis*, vocal.
 Consonant, (Lat.) *con sonans*, sounding with.
 Labial, (Fr.) lips. Palatal, (Lat.) the palate.
 Lingual, (Lat.) *lingua*, the tongue.
 Dental, (Lat.) *dens*, a tooth.
 Aspirate, (Lat.) *aspiro*, to breathe.
 Diphthong, triphthong, (Gr.) two thongs, three thongs.
 Mono, dis, tris, polysyllable, (Gr.) one, two, three, many
 Punctuation, (Lat.) *punctus*, a point. [syllables].
 Parenthesis, (Gr.) *para en tithemi*, placed within.
 Apostrophe, (Gr.) *apo strepho*, cut off.
 Caret, (Lat.) *caret*, it is wanting.
 Dieresis, (Gr.) *dia aireo*, take apart.
 Capital, (Lat.) *caput*, the head.
 Typography, (Gr.) *tupos grapho*, type writing.
 Chirography, (Gr.) *cheir grapho*, hand writing.
 Versification, (Lat.) verse making.

S Y N T A X .

181. It is generally said that the subject of a verb consists always of a single word. The absurdity of this, will be seen from the following sentences; "Two and three are five;" "The king and queen are an amiable pair." If each substantive is to be taken separately as a subject, then "two is five," and "three is five;" "the king is an amiable pair," and "the queen is an amiable pair!" Is it not plain that the verb agrees with both substantives *together*? Otherwise it should be singular; and so in all cases of substantives connected by *and*. This is, in fact, one way of forming a plural. See § 50.

184. It will be perceived that the explanation may be an explanation of *time, place, quantity, object, &c.* The *object* cannot properly be called one of the principal parts of a sentence; as it belongs only to some sentences, and then is dependant on the verb which it modifies or explains.

191. "The subjunctive may be signified by any conjunction, expressing a condition, doubt, supposition, &c.; such as *if, though, although, lest, unless.*" (See § 268.) "The subjunctive is always attended by another verb, and consequently is never used in a strictly simple sentence. As the *indicative* is changed into the subjunctive by prefixing a conjunction, so the *potential* may in like manner be turned into the subjunctive."
 —Pond's Murray's Grammar.

198. It is important to bear constantly in mind that grammar does not make the language, but the language makes grammar. The grammarian has no right to insist, in all cases, on the *best* methods of expression, but upon the *best authorized*. No matter how great the irregularity, if it is in universal, approved use, it is grammatical. If the grammarian were allowed to make laws for the language, we might begin at the very foundation, and constitute a new and more accurate alphabet; we might make a complete revolution, by simplifying orthography; and the language would soon be no more uniform than are the systems of the thousand grammar makers. Wherein, then, it may be asked, is the difference in the rules, as given in different books? We answer, if no errors are made, the difference consists, not in the nature of the principles, but in the manner of expressing and presenting them. We have here so expressed and classified them, as to make but *fourteen*, instead of *thirty* or *forty* general principles, and, we think, with perfect clearness to the pupil. Let the examiner decide for himself.

199. "Case, in English Grammar, is a name given to the relation which a noun has to other words in the same sentence."—*Frost's Grammar*. We choose to use the term *subjective* rather than *nominative*, because it is shorter, and because it conveys its meaning by its sound, whereas the latter word means; indeed, little or nothing in itself. It is generally said that there are but *three* cases, and then to make up for the defect, we are told that there is a *nominative case absolute*, and a *nominative case independent*. Are these not as distinct cases or relations of substantives as any of the others? And is it not much simpler and shorter, to say merely *absolute* or *independent* case? It will be seen, that for simplicity, we use only the word *absolute*, as it is the shorter, and as the two words mean alike. By this arrangement, we are enabled to define each case exactly, and all the terms convey their own meaning. And by treating the subject here, the definition of each case becomes the syntactical rule for that case. What is the definition of a case or relation, but a rule?

In the ancient languages, cases were generally distinguished by different terminations; but in the modern, case is usually determined by the situation of a word; thus:—

LATIN.		ENGLISH.	
Nominative	<i>Dominus,</i>	The <i>Lord</i> reigns.	Subjective.
Genitive	<i>Domini,</i>	The <i>Lord's</i> day.	Possessive.
Dative	<i>Domino,</i>	To the <i>Lord</i> .	} Objective.
Accusative	<i>Dominum,</i>	Love the <i>Lord</i> .	
Vocative	<i>Domine,</i>	Oh <i>Lord!</i>	} Absolute.
Ablative	<i>Domino,</i>	The <i>Lord</i> reigning.	

201. We are told by some, that the possessive case is governed by the following noun; but is such language intelligible to the young? The possessive case has very much the nature of an adjective, and such as prefer, can parse it as a *possessive adjective* formed from a substantive, and belonging to another substantive. "The possessive case is always an adjunct to a noun; and some grammarians have classed it with the *adjectives*."—*Brown's Grammar*.

"This word, (John's,) which has been considered by many able grammarians, as a noun in the possessive case can be nothing more; (according to the learned Horne Tooke's idea;) than a mere demonstrative possessive adjective, derived from the noun John, which by adding apostrophe *s*, must be joined to a noun before we can get that word, which we can make the subject of discourse."—*Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar*.

Possession is frequently denoted by an *of* placed before the name of the possessor.

206. Through a neglect of this remark, such words are sometimes parsed as a direct address, than which, nothing could be farther from the truth. Exclamations and titles *may* frequently be parsed by supplying some ellipsis; but it takes much from their vivacity, and it is generally better to consider them absolute.

208. The apostrophe and *s* are sometimes added to mere characters, to denote plurality, and not the possessive case; as, *two a's, three b's, four 9's*.

210. But if a thing belongs to several individuals separately, they should each have the sign; as, "Henry's, William's, and Joseph's estates." Also, when words in apposition are quite distinct, the first only may have the sign, and sometimes both; as, "We staid awhile at Lyttleton's, the ornament of his country. "It is at Smith's, the bookseller's shop." In some cases it is preferable to avoid the possessive, and use *of* which answers the same purpose. Thus, "Dr. Pearson of Birmingham's experiments," would better be, "The experiments of Dr. Pearson of Birmingham." It will be understood, that, in parsing such phrases, we are to parse each word without regard to the sign, considering it as the sign of the whole clause.

214. *Ye* is sometimes, especially in comic writing, used as objective case; as, "I tell ye." *His* was formerly used as the possessive of *it*; as, "Look not upon the wine when it giveth his color in the cup,"—*Proverbs*. The plural of the first person is sometimes used as singular, for the sake of modesty or dignity; as, "*We*, emperor of Russia," &c. In the same manner *you*, which was formerly plural only, has become singular also. *Whose* is properly the possessive of *who*, but it is now

used as the possessive of *which* also; and as *that* is always used instead of *who* or *which*, whose is of course the possessive of *that*.

The absolute case is in form like the subjective; but *me* is used instead of *I* in an exclamation; as, "Ah *me!*" "*Me* miserable!"

The words *my*, *thy*, &c. are by some said to be not possessive cases, but possessive adjectives. We reply, they are as much possessive cases as the words, *John's*, *Henry's*, &c. for they are used in the same way exactly. But, as we have observed, all possessive cases *may* be called possessive adjectives, and are so called by some. If *my*, &c. are called adjectives, then *John's*, &c. should be treated in the same manner.

"They ought to be classed with the personal pronouns. That principle which ranks them with the adjective pronouns, would also throw all nouns in the possessive case among the adjectives."—*Kirkham's Grammar*.

215. The words *mine*, *thine*, &c. are by some considered as possessive cases of the pronouns. But we have shown that *my*, *thy*, &c. are the possessive cases; and again, possessive cases always describe other substantives, but these do not. What does *yours* describe in the following sentence? "This is my book and that is *yours*." Or, as some express it, by what is *yours* governed? It cannot be by *book*, for how will it read—"that is *yours* book?" It must be changed into the possessive case *your*, before it can be so parsed. *Yours* is evidently a compound word, equivalent to *your book*, and may be parsed separately by its constituent parts, or together as a *compound pronoun*. What should we think of parsing the French *le mien*, *le tien*, &c. (which are equivalent to our *mine*, *thine*, &c.) as possessive cases? "*Mine*, *thine*, &c. are compounds, including both the possessive adjective and noun."—*Wilbur and Bryant's Grammar*. "These pronouns invariably stand for not only the person possessing, but also the thing possessed, which gives them a *compound* character. They may, therefore, be properly denominated *compound personal pronouns*, and they should, like the compound relative *what* be parsed as two words."—*Kirkham's Grammar*. (See that grammar for a complete explanation of this subject.)

218. The rule, as thus expressed, becomes a general principle, (the appropriateness of which even a child can see,) embracing several similar cases. Is not this preferable to making every *case* a rule, whose appropriateness we do not without some reflection perceive?

226. "The word which follows the verb, may be said to be in apposition with that which precedes it."—*Brown's Grammar*.

227. A *relative* in the subjective case, is the subject of the nearest verb, and introduces a parenthetic clause; as, "He, *who did it*, knew his duty." A *personal* pronoun does not always agree in person with its antecedent; as, "John said, *I* will do it." When a pronoun will not make the sense clear, the noun must be repeated. Thus, "We see the beautiful variety of colors in the rainbow and are led to consider the cause of *it*." [*that variety.*]

228. *Which* was formerly applied to persons; as, "Our Father *which* art in heaven."—*Bible*. It is now also applied to young children, and to words which merely *imply* persons; as, "The child *which* was here;" "The crowds *which* collected." As a definitive, it is applied to persons as often as to things; as, "*Which* man came?"

The relative *that* is preferable to *who* or *which*, in the following cases:—1. After the antecedent *who*; 2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; 3. After a superlative, or the adjective *same*; 4. After an unlimited antecedent; 5. After an antecedent introduced by the indefinite *it*; 6. Whenever the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful; as, "Who, *that* has sense, thinks so?" "The woman and the estate, *that* became his portion;" "He was the first *that* came;" "He is the same person *that* I met before;" "Thoughts *that* breathe;" "It was I *that* did it;" "The little child *that* was placed in the midst."

229. "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*."—*Brown's Grammar*.

230. It seems to be a great deficiency in our language, that we have not a pronoun of *common* gender, in the third person. We are obliged to use other pronouns, or to make a difficult and disagreeable circumlocution; as, "he and she," &c. The deficiency also frequently leads to grammatical errors; as, "Every one that *do their* duty," &c. Who shall have sufficient authority to introduce a word to supply the defect? Some such pronoun as *se*, (from the Latin,) would probably be the best, as it would resemble the sound of both *he* and *she*, and this is necessary in order to the introduction of such a word.

233. "The small claims of the article to a separate rank as a distinct part of speech, ought not to be admitted in a scientific classification of words. *A* and *the, this* and *that, ten, few, fourth*, and many other words, are used to restrict, vary, or define the signification of the nouns to which they are joined. They might therefore with propriety be ranked under the gen-

eral head of *Restrictives, Indexes, or Defining Adjectives.*—*Kirkham's Grammar.*

When an adjective or participle immediately follows a verb, it generally belongs to the subject of that verb; as, "I am glad the door is *made wide.*'

234. Adjectives seem also sometimes to qualify verbs; as, "Open your hand *wide;*" "The apples boil *soft.*"

237. There seems to have been a general mistake in relation to the comparative. It has been said that it *always* compares *two* things, and that the latter term of comparison must *always include* the former. It will be seen that it is not so; that there are two distinct uses of the comparative, which have heretofore been confounded.

238. Generally a noun used in a limited manner, should have a definitive, but not when used in an unlimited manner. A *title*, when spoken of as such, should not have an article: as, "*The* best men do wrong;" "*Man* is the noblest work of God;" "The commission of *Captain.*" But after all, no exact rules can be given for the use of definitives; good taste must be our guide. We must say, "We are in *a hurry;*" but not "We are in *a haste.*" There is much difference between "few men," "little care," and "*a few men,*" "*a little care;*" in the former case, we speak negatively; in the latter, affirmatively; and the reason is, that *few* and *little*, in the latter case, become *nouns.* See § 284.

240. The regular way of changing the verb for *thou*, is to add *est*, or *st* when the verb ends in *e*. But as our language tends to contraction, *st* only may in any case be added, and an apostrophe inserted if a vowel is omitted; as, *thinkst, sayst, bidst, lov'st lov'dst, slumberst, slumber'dst.* (See *Brown's Grammar.*) This is especially the case in poetry. *Dost, didst, hast, hadst, shalt, wilt, mayst, canst, mightst, couldst, wouldst, shouldst,* have now become permanent contractions; *must* needs no change for *thou*. When the second part with *st* would sound too harsh, *didst* should be used; as, *thou didst arise,* not *thou arosest.*

241. The termination *th* is used only in the solemn style. *Eth* is added, or *th* when the verb ends in *e*. *Doth, hath, and saith* have become permanent contractions.

243. The verb *be* was formerly regular in the present; as, "What *be* these two olive branches?"—Zech. iv: 12.

246. When subjects are connected by *or* or *nor*, it is best to place the plural one, if there is such, last. The speaker should always mention himself last; as, "You or *I* must go;" "He or *they* are coming." It is only when subjects are connected by *or* or *nor*, that the verb agrees with the last. When

they are connected by *and not, as well as, &c.*, it generally agrees with the *first*; as, "Cæsar, as well as Cicero, was admired for his eloquence."

247. General truths should usually be expressed in the present imperfect tense; as, "He did not know that two and two make four;" not *made*.

248. Nothing seems to have confused grammarians more than the relations of infinitives in a sentence. Many tell us they are *governed* by other words; but in what sense they are governed, is not fully explained. (By the way, this word *govern* is rather a useless word in grammar.) Greene says that "the infinitive mode may be governed by a verb, noun, adjective or participle," or *may follow* "almost any part of speech"! Is this rule sufficiently definite to be understood by the young, or to be of any practical utility? Smith says that "the infinitive mode *may follow* verbs, participles, adjectives, nouns and pronouns, and *than or as*"! Now what would be thought of our rule, if we should say, "Nouns *may follow* substantives, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, or almost anything else!" Yet no more definite than this are grammarians about the infinitive mode. Parker and Fox say that "the infinitive mode may be governed by a verb, a participle, a noun, or an adverb, or follow an objective case, or *than or as*," &c. Brown says that "the preposition *to* governs the infinitive mode." Yet all these grammarians tell us that the infinitive sometimes is the subject of a verb, and sometimes is *absolute* or in the absolute case; and Pond, and Parker and Fox go so far as to say that the infinitive is sometimes in the objective case. All our difficulties in relation to this mode are gone, when we learn, that the infinitive is *always* used as a substantive, and is to be parsed in the same manner. "The rule which they [grammarians] give, is partial and often inapplicable; and their exceptions to it are numerous and perplexing. They teach that at least half the different parts of speech frequently govern the infinitive; if so, there should be a distinct rule for each. The infinitive is a mere verb, without affirmation; and, in some respects, resembles a noun. It may stand for a subject," &c. "In Latin, according to the grammars, the infinitive mode may stand for a noun in all the six cases; and many have called it an *indeclinable noun*. See the *Port Royal Latin Grammar*, in which many constructions of the infinitive are referred to the government of a *preposition* understood."—*Brown's Grammar*. "The infinitive is often akin to a substantive noun, and, both in English and Latin, is sometimes construed as such."—*Dr. Blair*.

250, 253. "The infinitive mode does the office of a sub-

stantive in the *objective* case ; as, "Boys love *to play*;" that is, they love play."—*Pond's Murray*. "Rule XX. The infinitive mode is sometimes used as the objective case, governed by an active verb, or a preposition."—*Parker and Fox's Grammar*. "The infinitive mode sometimes follows an objective case."—*Id.* "*To* appears to (influence the infinitive). The preposition *about* often has influence upon the infinitive. The infinitive is often used as the antecedent to a relative."—*Alexander's Grammar*.

256. In this case, the words may be parsed together, or we may say, *to be* is used as an adjective, belonging to the subject.

257. A participle preceded by a possessive case or a definitive, is used as a substantive ; but, preceded by a subjective or objective case, it is used as a descriptive ; and care is to be used in choosing between these two constructions. We should say, "He felt his strength declining;" but, "He was sensible of his strength's declining." sometimes the sense requires that the participle be altogether avoided ; thus, "He mentions Newton's writing a commentary," or "He mentions Newton writing a commentary," would better be, "He mentions *that Newton wrote* a commentary.

259. This construction should be avoided, whenever it is possible. We should say, "The money was paid him," "This privilege was denied me;" not, "He was paid the money," "I was denied this privilege."

262. "The *almost* Christian." In such cases, we may parse the adverb as qualifying the substantive, or as used as an adjective, or as qualifying a verb or participle understood.

264. But the *repetition* of a negative strengthens the negation ; as, *no, no, no*.

270. "*Connected verbs may not always be in the same mode and tense*. Hundreds of instances might be adduced, in which such verbs are not in the same mode and tense ; as, "He *would* not come, but *sent* his brother;" "I love you, and *have provided* for your education;" "We *want* you here, and *shall send* for you."—*Pond's Murray*. "In which situation it *is* not less apt to affect the sense of it ; and *may still be considered*," &c.—*Greene's Grammar*, p. 89. "Although this is a general rule, yet the best writers often deviate from it in their practice. It is often the case that conjunctions connect dissimilar *cases, modes, and tenses*."—*Alexander's Grammar*.

271. The former word of the relation is sometimes understood ; as, [*I say*] "In a word, it would not do." One preposition is sometimes the object of another ; as, "And *from before* the lustre of her face."—*Thomson*. This forms a *prepositional*

phrase. Sometimes *for* has no antecedent term of relation; as, "*For* an old man to cheat, is pitiable."

276. The following are the principal cases, in which the subject is not placed before the verb:—1. In a question, unless the subject be an interrogative. 2. With the imperative mode. 3. In expressing earnest feeling; as, "May *she* be happy!" 4. In a subjunctive sentence without a conjunction; as, "Were *it* true." 5. When preceded by *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*; as, "This was his fear; nor was *it* groundless." 6. When words are placed before the verb for emphasis; as, "Here am *I*." 7. In a dialogue, with *say*, *think*, *reply*, &c.; as, "'Who are those,' said *he*."

277. The following are the principal cases, in which the adjective is placed *after* its substantive:—1. When other words depend on the adjective; as, "A mind *conscious* of right." 2. When the quality results from the action of a verb; as, "Virtue renders life *happy*." 3. For emphasis; as, "Goodness *infinite*." 4. When a verb comes between them; as, "I grew *uneasy*." 5. In many other cases in *poetry*; as, "Isles *Atlantic*."

When words and clauses are connected by conjunctions, the longest and most sounding should generally be placed last; as, "He is *older* and *more respectable* than his brother."

280. When *power* is denied, *not* is united to *can*; but when something else is denied, the words are separate; as, "He *cannot* go;" "He *can not* merely go, but stay there."

282. It will be found very important to attend to the subject of ellipsis; as many of the most important constructions are resolvable by it; and by supplying ellipses, a great number of special and unnecessary rules are avoided. By this means, also, we arrive more clearly to the exact meaning and construction of language; which, after all, is the great object of grammar.

283. "Those parts which are common to several verbs, are generally expressed to the first, and understood to the rest; as, 'He thought as I *did* [think];' 'If you will go, I will [go].'"
—*Brown's Grammar*.

284. "A hundred years," "A great many men." We are generally told that such expressions are anomalies—exceptions to all rule—that *a* belongs to the plurals *years* and *men*! So *great* belongs to men, making *great men*! Is this the idea? It would be the same if *little* were inserted after *many*,—*great little men*! and *a men*! Such is the accuracy of the systems which have been taught to our youth.—*Few*, *many*, *little*, &c., when preceded by an article, generally become nouns; and they are derived from words which were originally nouns.

“Some grammarians call these words of number *nouns*, and suppose an ellipsis of the preposition *of*.”—*Brown’s Grammar*. So also *Webster*. “The article *a* converts *few* into a noun.”—*Parker and Fox’s Grammar*. “In these phrases, *few* and *many* seem to be used substantively, the preposition *of* being understood. *Of* is sometimes expressed after these words.”—*Prof. Coote’s Elements of Grammar*. “The words *few* and *many* in this case mean *number*, and the article agrees with this word number, which is understood, and which is singular.”—*Cobbet’s Grammar*. The words *dozen*, *score*, *hundred*, *million*, &c. are *never* adjectives; can you mention a case in which they are?

290. *Worth* was anciently a verb, signifying *be*, and used in every part of the conjugation; as, “*Wo worth the chase, wo worth the day.*”—*Scott*.

293. But when the subjects require different forms of the verb, it is best to express it after each; as, “*Either thou art in fault, or I am.*”

295. Some call the verb, when the auxiliary is understood, the *elliptical form* of the verb. The whole theory of the subjunctive is here developed in five lines.

298. “*They desired nothing more than to receive their wages.* In sentences of this kind, the infinitive is properly governed by some word understood; thus, ‘they desired nothing more than they desired to receive their wages.’”—*Parker and Fox’s Grammar*. “As many as [*those persons are who*] were present.”—*id.*

Much might be added to Syntax, as is frequently done, in relation to style in general, and the beauties of writing. But all these things belong to Rhetoric, and we choose to leave them in their appropriate place, rather than to crowd every thing together in a single book. Rhetoric should be more studied in our schools, but it should be as a separate branch, rather than as a mere division of grammar. The author has already prepared the outline of a higher work on language, which work, if the present meets with encouragement, may at some future day appear.

O R T H O G R A P H Y.

340. The rules of spelling, as commonly given, are so long as to be seldom remembered and applied. We have very much shortened the manner of expression, and have added one or two new rules.

378. We have labored to make punctuation as concise and

comprehensive as possible; yet we think that under our three general rules, we embrace all common cases. It is useless to endeavor to load the mind with a mass of nice distinctions. A few general rules, with judgment, will be of much greater service.

387. Some persons never put a comma before an *and*; but this is very inaccurate, and often leads to error in the meaning. See *Kirkham's Grammar*.

397. Many use the other marks after the periods in this case; as, Prov., June 4. But this is unnecessary.

P R O S O D Y .

437. It is sometimes said, that after all, reading must be different from speaking, and must have its peculiar tones. We grant that reading is almost universally different from speaking; but we think it is a fault, and that no one can read *perfectly*, until he can read *exactly* as he would properly converse.

533. It will be perceived that we have divested versification of the technicalities of the ancient languages, and have expressed it in plain English. How much have our youth been accustomed to profit by the barren study of *dactyls* and *pyrrhuses*, when they were altogether unacquainted with the Latin and Greek? Here, as in other places, some have labored to clog our grammars with all the formality of the ancient tongues; but it is time for these things to come to an end.

544. The omission of initial letters, is sometimes called *apherisis*; of middle letters, *syncope*; of final letters, *apocope*; as, *'neath, med'cine, tho'*. Prefixing an expletive syllable, is called *prosthesis*; inserting a word, *tnesis*; annexing an expletive syllable, *paragoge*; as, *bestrown, to us ward, withouten*. Uniting two syllables into one, is called *syneresis*; as, *seest, for scëst*. These are all considered as *figures*, or deviations from the common forms of speech.

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that every entry should be clearly documented and supported by appropriate evidence. This ensures transparency and accountability in the financial process.

Furthermore, it is noted that regular audits are essential to identify any discrepancies or errors. By conducting these audits frequently, potential issues can be addressed promptly, preventing them from escalating into larger problems. This proactive approach is crucial for the overall health and stability of the organization.

In addition, the document highlights the need for clear communication between all stakeholders involved. Regular meetings and reports should be used to keep everyone informed about the current financial status and any changes that may occur. This fosters a sense of collaboration and ensures that all parties are working towards the same goals.

Finally, it is stressed that adherence to all applicable laws and regulations is non-negotiable. The organization must stay up-to-date with the latest legal requirements to avoid any penalties or legal complications. This includes not only tax laws but also industry-specific regulations that may apply.

PART SECOND;
CONTAINING QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES,
AND BEING
AN ADAPTATION OF THE PRECEDING WORK
TO THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

THE NUMBERS CORRESPOND TO THOSE OF THE GRAMMAR.

TABLE OF PARSING.

BY ETYMOLOGY.

BY SYNTAX.

<p>— is a SUBSTANTIVE</p>	<p>{ a noun — <i>kind — person — number — gender.</i> a pronoun — <i>kind — person — number — gender.</i> [with its antecedent —. Rule VI.]</p>	<p>{ Sub. case, being the subject of —. Repeat rule I. Poss. case, describing —. Repeat rule II. Obj. case, being the object of —. Repeat rule III. Abs. case, being — — —. Repeat rule IV. — — — case, in relation with —. Repeat rule V.</p>	
<p>— is an ADJECTIVE</p>	<p>{ a definitive — <i>kind — number.</i> a descriptive — <i>form.</i></p>	<p>{ Agreeing with —. Repeat rule VII.</p>	
<p>— is a VERB —</p>	<p>trans. — reg. — mode — tense.</p>	<p>{ Agreeing with its subject —. Repeat rule VIII. Used as a —. Rule IX or X.—Sub. &c. [as above.]</p>	
<p>— is a PARTICLE.</p>	<p>{ An Adverb, — — — — — A Conjunction, — — — — — A Preposition, — — — — — An Interjection, — — — — —</p>	<p>{ Qualifying — — — — —. Repeat rule XI. Connecting — — — — —. Repeat rule XII. Showing the relation between —. Repeat rule XIII. And is independent. — — — — —. Repeat rule XIV.</p>	

NOTE. It is important that the distinctions be given in their order, (as above,) commencing at the most general, and descending to the most minute. The words *substantive, adjective, particle*, and some others, may be dropped, when the pupil has become familiar with them; and finally he may be allowed to parse by Syntax only.

** Parse a compound thus; “*What* is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to *that which*.” (Then parse the two words separately.) So parse the compounds, *whoever, whatever, mine, &c.*

FIRST COURSE.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

FOR BEGINNERS.

TO THE SCHOLAR.

MY YOUNG FRIEND:—

You are about entering upon a study, which, if rightly pursued, is one of the most useful and interesting in which you can engage. It is the study of *language*; it is learning how to express our thoughts so that they may be easily understood, and may sound agreeable to those who hear.

What should we do without language? We could not talk to our friends, and tell them of our joys and our sorrows, our wants and our wishes. We could have no books, no schools, no meetings. We could know nothing of all that has ever taken place in the world, or of all that is going on beyond our sight. We could not be instructed in the way to be virtuous, to be useful, to be healthy, and to be happy forever. How unfortunate should we be! and how grateful ought we to feel for the blessing of language!

But all language is not alike. When men at first began to speak, they could not talk nearly as well as they can now. And when they first wrote, it was merely by drawing rough pictures on bark or leaves, or by scratching a few crooked marks on wood or rocks. They had

no printing, no books, no ink, no paper, no letters. It has been by learning a little at a time, and by studying what others have learned, that men have made language so extensive and so correct as our own *English* is. And now, *if we will only learn*, we may have words to say any thing we wish to say, and correctly too; and we may write down our thoughts upon paper, without the least error or difficulty.

But in order to do this, we *must learn* it. The little child, when he begins to talk, does not speak very correctly. Sometimes he pronounces words improperly, sometimes he uses the wrong words, and sometimes he does not know what words to use. As he grows older, he learns more; but still he makes many mistakes, and learns many incorrect expressions from grown people who do not speak rightly. He must therefore study Grammar, and if he attends to it well, it will teach him to avoid all these errors.

You will hear many persons say, "I *had* rather not go." "I *done* it yesterday." "You *had* ought to stay." "This is the *roundest* apple." "Who did you speak to?" "He has *got* it." "It *lays* on the table." Now all these expressions are wrong, and many others that are often used. Grammar will teach you how to avoid them; and certainly you would not wish, when you associate with intelligent people, to appear so ignorant as to make such gross mistakes.

Is not Grammar then a *useful* and *interesting* study? That you may attend to it so diligently as to find it such, and that you may reap the full reward of your labor in after life, is the sincere wish of

Your Friend,

THE AUTHOR.

ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON I.—NOUNS.

QUESTIONS.—13. What are nouns? Mention some names of *persons*, of *places*, of *things*; of things that you can *see*, *taste*, *hear*, *smell*, *feel*; of things that you can merely *think of*, such as, *love*, *greatness*. As all the words you have mentioned are *names*, what are they called in grammar? Do you know of anything that has not some kind of a name? Are there then many or few nouns? Can you talk without using nouns? What is parsing? (See 197.) Parse the following words:

[Parse thus;—"Man is a noun, because it is a name." "Though is not a noun, because it is not a name."]

EXERCISE.—Man, though, book, as, the, John, tree, houses, should, Mary, where, fan, Bangor, into, odor, thought.

LESSON II.—NOUNS.

QUESTIONS.—13. How many kinds of nouns are there? What are they? 14. What is a *proper* noun? 15. A *common* noun? 18. An *abstract* noun? Mention some *proper* names of persons; *common* names of persons; *proper* names of places; *common* names of places; *proper* names of things, such as *April*, *Monday*; *common* names of things. Mention some *abstract* nouns. With what kind of a letter does a *proper* name begin? Parse the following words:

[Parse thus: "Man is a noun, because it is a name—common, because it is the name of a whole class.]

EXERCISE.—Man, book, John, tree, houses, Mary, fan, Bangor, odor, thought, flower, wisdom, beauty, Newcastle, justice.

LESSON III.—PRONOUNS.

QUESTIONS.—20. What are *pronouns*? What then does *pro* mean? What is the use of pronouns? How many kinds of pronouns are there? What are they? 21. What are *personal* pronouns? How many are there?

What are they? (What is in the parenthesis need not be recited.) 23. What are *relative* pronouns? How many are there? What are they? 27. What is the word for which a pronoun stands called? Pick out the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences, and parse them:

[Parse thus: "*Who* is a *pronoun*, because it is used instead of a noun—*relative*, because it relates directly to the antecedent *man*.]

EXERCISE.—The man who did this. The boy that studies. The dog which barks. A woman came with a gun to a man, and giving it up, said she thought he was in danger of the wolves who were coming, as they were very hungry. John said to James, "I will tell you directly."

[Read the last two sentences, using the antecedents instead of the pronouns, and see how much repetition is caused.]

LESSON IV.—PERSON.

QUESTIONS.—11. What are nouns and pronouns together called? What then are *substantives*? 28. What belong to substantives? 29. When is a substantive said to be of the *first* person? 30. When of the *second*? 32. When of the *third*? What is the only word properly of the *first* person? What the only two of the *second*? What words are of the *third* person? 33. Of what person are *who* and *that*? 34. When is a noun put in the *second* person? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "*Man* is a *substantive*, because it represents a person (11.)—a *noun* (R.)—*common* (R.)—*third* person, because it is spoken about." "*He* is a *substantive* (R.)—a *pronoun* (R.)—*personal* (R.)—*third* person (R.)—with its antecedent *man*." Only the words in *Italics* are to be parsed.]

EXERCISE.—The man said *he* would go. John said to James, "*I* will tell *you* directly." *I* who come. *Thou* who comest. *He* who goes. *I* that go. *Thou* that goes. *She* that goes. *It* is a *dollar*. Henry, I want *you* to go with *haste* to James and see if *he* has given *Mary*, who is going, the *book* which she wished.

LESSON V.—NUMBER.

QUESTIONS.—35. How many *numbers* have substantives? What are they? What does the *singular* number denote?—the *plural*? 36. How do most *nouns* become

* (R.) denotes that the reason is to be given.

plural? Mention some nouns that are *singular*; some that are *plural*. 47. What can you say of the numbers of the *relative pronouns*? Mention some *nouns* of which this is true. How is a pronoun's number known? 49. What is the plural of *I*?—of *thou*?—of *you*?—of *he*, *she*, and *it*? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "*Bench* is a *substantive* (R.)—a *noun* (R.)—*common* (R.)—*third person* (R.)—*singular*, because it denotes but one." "*They* is a *substantive* (R.)—*pronoun* (R.)—*personal* (R.)—*third person* (R.)—*plural* (R.)—with its antecedent *boys*."]]

EXERCISE.—*Bench, rules, pens, chair.* The boys say they will go. William said to George, "I was with you, when you said I knew we were in fault." *Ye hypocrites! Thou spirit of darkness!* The man who thinks he knows. The men who think they know. The women that think they ought. The child that thinks it ought. The thing which is. The things which are. You are the friend of virtue. You are the friends of goodness.

LESSON VI.—GENDER.

QUESTIONS.—51. When is a substantive said to be of the *masculine* gender? 52. When of the *feminine*? 53. When of *neuter*? 54. When of *common* gender? Mention some nouns that are *masculine*—*feminine*—*neuter*—*common*. 55. Of what gender is *he*?—*she*?—*it*?—*I*, *thou*, *you*, *who*?—*which*, *that*? Of what gender is a pronoun always? Parse the following substantives:

[Parse thus: "*Boys* is a *substantive* (R.)—a *noun* (R.)—*common* (R.)—*third person* (R.)—*plural* (R.)—*masculine*, because it represents males." "*They* is a *substantive* (R.)—a *pronoun* (R.)—*personal* (R.)—*third person* (R.)—*plural* (R.)—*masculine* (R.)—with its antecedent *boys*."]]

EXERCISE.—The boys say they will go. William and Mary are on the road. The man thinks he will come. The lady thinks she shall go. This book has a spot on it. Joseph said to Nancy, "I want you to go." Nancy replied, "I want you to stay, for we cannot both go." *Thou spirit of wickedness!* *Ye sons of virtue!* The boy who did this. The girls who did this. The lads that study. The Miss that studies. The ox which pulls. The cows which come. The tree which stands.

LESSON VII.—REVIEW.

QUESTIONS.—What are *names* called?—words used

instead of nouns?—Nouns and pronouns together? What is the name of an *individual* object called?—of a *class* of objects?—of a *quality*? What is the use of pronouns? What are pronouns that show the *exact person* called?—those which *relate directly* to their antecedents? How many pronouns in all? How many *persons* are there?—*numbers*?—*genders*? Of what person is the *speaker*?—the person *spoken to*?—the person or thing *spoken about*? Of what number is *one* object?—*more* than one? Of what gender is a *male*?—a *female*?—*neither*?—*either*? Of what person are nouns generally? What effect does it have on a noun to add *s*? How are the person, number, and gender of a *pronoun* known? (227.)

EXERCISE.—Tell what word belongs in each of the squares of the following table; or, if it is preferred, copy the table, and put the proper words in it.

Table of Pronouns.

	PERSONAL.					RELATIVE.			
	1 Per.	2 Per.	3 Per. Mas.	3 Per. Fem.	3 Per. Neu.				
Singular,..	1	3	5	7	9	11	13	15	17
Plural,.....	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18

Supply a substantive in each of the following blanks, so as to make sense: A good —. Sweet —. — is wrong. — are red. These — are round. That — studies. The — who has her — best, shall have a —. The boy is studious; — will have his —. The man — is industrious will prosper. The stick — you hold is long. Sit down by my —, my little —; — wish to tell — a —.

LESSON VIII.—DEFINITIVES.*

QUESTIONS.—57. What are *Adjectives*? Then which of the following words is an adjective? *Come, little boy*. Should you think adjectives are much used? What do adjectives include. 59. What are *definitives*? 60. Mention the definitives which are singular;—plural;—of either

* This lesson may be divided.

number. 61. When does *an* become *a*? Give one or two examples. 71. How may most definitives be used? Parse the following words:

[Parse a definitive thus: "*A* is an *adjective*, because it is added to a substantive—a *definitive*, because it defines—*singular*, because it defines one object.]

EXERCISE.—A dog. A horse. An hour. An owl. A nuisance. The hat. The books. One day. Another year. These tables. Much money. Any men. Other people. This week. That pen. Those thoughts. Both girls. The second time. Two wings. No virtue. The very quality. The same coat. Several fences. Many pages. Every other time. All such ladies. What eyes!

FOR CORRECTION.—An hard saying. A humble heart. An heavenly diadem. An wonderful invention. An younger man. An handsome child. A hostler. An hero. Such an one. An union.

It will be seen that the words *which* and *that* may be either *relative pronouns* or *definitives*. Which are they in the following expressions? The dog *which* barks. *Which* dog? The man *that** stands. *That* man. *Which* one is it? The one *which* is here. *That* boy *that* did it.

LESSON IX.—DESCRIPTIVES.

QUESTIONS.—72. What are descriptives? Give two or three examples. 74. What do many descriptives have? 75. What does the positive form represent? 76. The comparative? 77. The superlative? Give an example of each. 78. How are the comparative and superlative formed? Tell the three forms of the following words: Great, vast, sweet, sour, white, noble, feeble, red, blue, poor, sick, nice. Parse the following:

[Parse the descriptives thus: "*Wise* is an *adjective* (R.)—a *descriptive*, because it describes—*positive*, because the quality is in its simple state."]

EXERCISE. Wise men. Taller trees. The whitest house. The greatest purity. Small hands. The same old field. The reddest clouds. A splendid view. A grander scene. That very cat. The sublimest vision. Sweeter apples.

Supply an adjective in each of the following blanks:
 — men. — man. — — boy. — days are

* *That* is a relative when it can be changed to *who* or *which*.

twice — days. — thoughts. The — time. —
 very day. Every — tree. All — pens. The —
 and — sun is very —. — hour brings — —
 blessing from our — father.

LESSON X.—VERBS.

QUESTIONS.—85. What are verbs? Then, which of the following words is a verb? “The boy writes.” Can you make a sentence without a verb? Can you make a sentence without an *adjective*? Then which are more important, adjectives or verbs? Mention a verb which denotes *being*; some which denote *action*. How many kinds of verbs? What are they? 86. What is a *transitive* verb? 87. An *intransitive* verb? Give an example of each. 91. What are *auxiliary* verbs? Name them. Are auxiliary verbs used alone? Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: “*Studies* is a *verb*, because it denotes action—*transitive*, because it affects the object, *book*.” “*Will* is a *verb* (R.)—*auxiliary*, because it is a part of the verb *go*.” “*Will go* is a *verb*,” &c.]

EXERCISE.—George studies a book. He will go. Some men love rum. Health is a great blessing. We must love virtue. I can move this stone. She likes play. Fishes fill the sea. Oceans exist. The trees have stood. These are the books. William struck his brother. Joseph is a good boy. I hope he will be a good man.

LESSON XI.—MODES.

QUESTIONS.—93. What are modes? How many? What are they? 94. What does the indicative mode do? 95. The potential? 97. The imperative? Give an example of each. Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: “*Can go* is a *verb* (R.)—*intransitive* (R.)—*potential*, because it implies power.”]

EXERCISE.—You can go. I love play. George, study the book. You must study. We will take care. They may retire. He who is just will prosper. Go, little lamb. Thou shalt do it. Virtue should have its reward. Speak! I will hear.

LESSON XII.—MODES.

QUESTIONS.—98. What does the infinitive mode do? 99. The participial? 100. The participial active? 101. Passive? Give an example of each. How may infinitives generally be known? How participles? What nature have these two modes? What are the other modes called? Why? Parse the following:

[Parse the *participial* mode thus: "Walking is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—participial (R.) active, because it represents a thing as really acting." Remember that the verb *be* (*am, is, are, was, were,*) is not an auxiliary; but *being* may be regarded as one.]

EXERCISE.—He was walking. To walk is good exercise. I was [being] wounded. They are coming. I wish to take it. You may be excused. He, being called, came. We, having arrived, were requested to return. Take this book, William. I would ask you to come.

LESSON XIII.—TENSES.

QUESTIONS.—104. What are tenses? 105. How many divisions of time? What two tenses have each division? 106. How many tenses in all? Name them. 107. How do the *imperfect* tenses represent a being or action?—the *perfect*? 108. How may the *perfect* tenses be known? Give an example of a perfect and an imperfect tense. 109. Which modes have all the tenses? What can you say of the other modes? Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: "Studies is a verb (R.)—transitive (R.)—indicative (R.)—imperfect, because it represents the action as unfinished—present, because it implies present time." "Walking is a verb (R.)—intransitive (R.)—participial (R.)—active (R.)—imperfect (R.)"]

EXERCISE.—George studies a book. He was walking. They have gone. To write. Having come. He might go. They seem to have hurried. Mary had arrived. Stop! boy; hold this horse. You might have studied. John was struck. She will have finished. He who is just will prosper. I shall stay. The old house must have been crowded.

LESSON XIV.—CONJUGATION.

QUESTIONS.—113. What is called *conjugating* a verb? 114. In the indicative mode, what is the *imperfect past* of move?—the *imperfect present*?—the *imperfect future*?

the *perfect past*?—the *perfect present*?—the *perfect future*? &c. &c. Let the whole verb be thus reviewed, both in direct and in promiscuous order.

EXERCISE.—Conjugate the verb *move*, thus: “*Imperfect*; indicative past, *did move*, or *moved*—present, *do move*, or *move*—future, *shall* or *will move*;—potential past, &c. Conjugate thus the verbs *love*, *walk*, *hate*, *dread*, *wish*, BE. (See 116, and 243.)

LESSON XV.—PRINCIPAL PARTS.

QUESTIONS.—110. How many principal parts has every verb? How are they marked in the table? What are formed from these? 111. What from the first part?—what from the third? Are any formed from the second part? 112. What parts are generally alike? When is a verb said to be *regular*?—when *irregular*? Give an example of each. 114. How is the *indicative imperfect future* formed? &c. Parse the following:

[Parse the verbs thus: “*Will have moved* is a verb (R.)—*intransitive* (R.)—*regular*, because its three parts are *move*, *moved*, *moved*—*indicative* (R.)—*perfect* (R.)—*future*.” (R.)]

EXERCISE.—He will have moved. Virtue will receive a reward. I dislike an oath. Bright shines the rising sun. They are thought to have perished. He requested to be permitted to leave. John has found the pen. All those boys who can recite may raise the right hand. The little girl that we passed attends that school. Dogs which are cross deserve chastisement. Go, little kid; go seek the fold. I could have seen James walking.

Supply a verb in each of the following blanks: Men _____. The boy _____. Who _____ a knife? John _____ Thomas. Thomas _____ by John. He expects _____ next week. Come, _____ the lambs play. He _____ have _____ deceived. I _____ yesterday. I _____ to-day. I _____ to-morrow. You must _____ before he arrives. You must _____ when he arrives.

LESSON XVI.—ADVERBS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

QUESTIONS.—124. What are particles? What do particles include? 125. What are *adverbs*? Mention one

or two. 129. What are *conjunctions*? 130. Repeat the principal conjunctions. Parse the following :

[Parse a particle thus: " *Very* is an *adverb*, because it is added to an adjective to qualify its meaning."]]

EXERCISE.—He is very kind and obliging. They are now here, studying very diligently. Thou and he are happy, because you are good. A most skilful artist. They act more kindly. He labors harder and more successfully than I do. When are you coming?

Supply an adverb in each of the following blanks :—
He reads —. She writes very —. We came — late. — I was coming, I sweat — —. She will go —. This water is — pure than that. I was delighted to see him jump — — — —.

Supply a conjunction in each of the following blanks :
He is tall — slim. He reads well, — does not spell properly ; — he spells better — you. I shall not go, — it is wrong. — she — he was there. — he slay me, — I will trust in him. — he — she were there.

LESSON XVII.—PREPOSITIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

QUESTIONS.—132. What are *prepositions*? 133. Repeat the principal prepositions. 135. What are *interjections*? Name several. Parse the following :

EXERCISE.—The paper lies before you on the desk. Oh! what will become of such persons! He boasted of the privilege, and contended for it. Alas! how much vanity in the pursuits of men!

Supply a preposition in each of the following blanks :
Plead — the dumb. Qualify yourself — action — study. Think often — the worth — time. Live — peace — all men. Keep — compass. Many fall — grasping — things — their reach. A dozen — eggs. A few — them. A few — years. I will write — to-morrow. He lent — me some money. It is worthy — your regard. This is like — that. He jumped off — the fence, and went down — the street.

LESSON XVIII.—DIFFERENT USES OF WORDS.

QUESTIONS.—145. How may many words be used? 146. When do substantives become adjectives? 147. When do adjectives become substantives? Parse the following :

[Parse thus: “ *Water* is a substantive used as an *adjective*, because it describes.”]

EXERCISE.—Water-pail, sugarloaf, velvet cushion, seawater. Each of the brothers. Neither of them is industrious. What are you doing. That is too bad. A great calm. A calm day. To calm a storm. Damp air. Guilt casts a damp over the spirits. Soft bodies damp the sound. A little is sufficient. A little boy. The hail was very destructive. A hail storm. We hail you as friends. All hail! my friends. Every being loves its like. Make a like space between the lines. I like it. Behave like men. Still waters. To still a tumult. He labors still. This is my own house, for I own this house. A strange thought. I thought so. He is in the wrong. Wrong actions. You wrong yourself.

LESSON XIX.—REVIEW.

QUESTIONS.—4. What is that part of Grammar to which you have now been attending called? Of what, then, does Etymology treat? 5. Into how many general classes may words be divided? What are they? What are substantives?—adjectives?—verbs?—particles? How many kinds of substantives?—of adjectives?—of verbs?—of particles? &c. &c.

SYNTAX.

LESSON XX.—SUBJECTS AND ATTRIBUTES.

QUESTIONS.—179. Of what does Syntax treat? 180. What is a sentence? What is the *subject* of a sentence? Of what does it consist? “The boy studies”—which word is the subject? 182. What is the *attribute* of a sentence? Of what does it consist? “The boy studies”—which word is the attribute? Point out the subjects

and attributes in the following sentences, and give the reasons:

EXERCISE.—Jane writes. The ox draws. The old house totters. The tree on the hill is old. Susan and Nancy walk. You and I are two. Two and three make five. They walk very fast. He was studying his lesson under the shade of a tree this morning. A very good boy studies his book very diligently. I am very anxious to obtain it. A great house. Arrived yesterday, from the West Indies, with sugar and molasses.

LESSON XXI.—DESCRIPTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS.

QUESTIONS.—183. What is the *description* in a sentence? 184. What is the *explanation* in a sentence? “A good man acts wisely.” Here, what is the description, and what the explanation? 185. How many parts are there, then, to a sentence? What are they? When is a sentence called *perfect*?—when *imperfect*? Point out each part of the sentences in the last exercise, and tell whether they are perfect or imperfect.

LESSON XXII.—SENTENCES, SIMPLE AND COMPOUND.

QUESTIONS.—186. What two kinds of perfect sentences? 187. What is a simple sentence? Give an example. 193. What is a compound sentence? Give an example. 196. What is *analyzing* a sentence? 197. What is *parsing*? Analyze any of the exercises.

LESSON XXIII.—RULES 1 AND 2.

QUESTIONS.—198. What relations should words have? Upon what are these relations founded?—by what established? 199. What is the relation of a substantive called? How many cases in English? What are they? Repeat rule 1,—rule 2. Give an example of each. 208. How is the possessive of nouns formed? Parse the following:

[Parse the substantives thus; “John’s, (parse as in Ety.) *possessive case*, describing *dog*.” Repeat rule 2. “Dog (as in Ety.) *subjective case*, being the subject of *barks*.” Repeat rule 1.—“Two (as in Ety.) *sub. case*, being with *three* the subject of *are*.” Repeat rule 1.]

EXERCISE.—John’s dog barks. The sun sets. Eagles

fly. The officer's horse kicked the old man's son. Men's duties cease. Two and three are five. The boy and girl study. Who comes ?

LESSON XXIV.—RULES 3 AND 4.

QUESTIONS.—Repeat rule 3,—rule 4. “John struck George.” Which word is subjective, and which objective ? “George struck John ;” how is it in this sentence ? “John, who struck you ?” Which word is subjective, which objective, and which absolute ? 508. What can you say of the form of *nouns* ? How is the possessive formed ? What is the possessive of *man, Mary, tree, &c.* Parse the following :

EXERCISE.—Eliza's voice trembles. Cain killed Abel. The book is on the shelf. Mary, I am waiting for you. Peter's cousin's horse limps. Rule 4. He shot a deer. We saw a great tree with apples on it. Cats and dogs quarrel. The person who steals is punished. The pupils, that behave properly, shall be rewarded. Food, which injures the stomach, should be avoided. Ideas ! why, some people's minds have no ideas.

LESSON XXV.—PRONOUNS.

QUESTIONS.—214. What can you say of most pronouns ? What is *declining* a substantive ? Decline *I*, thus : “Sub. *I*, poss. *my*, obj. *me* ; plural, subjective *we*,” &c. Decline *you, thou, he, she, it, which, that.* Parse the following :

EXERCISE.—I struck you. You struck me. He struck thee. Thou didst strike him. She struck it. It struck her. We struck you. Ye struck us. They struck you. Who struck them ? You struck whom ? My pen, which writes, is poor. Our house, that stands, is white. His mind excels her mind. Whose clock struck ? Oh thou, who hearest prayer.

LESSON XXVI.—RULE 5.

[Recite 218, 19, 21, 26, without questions.—When substantives are in the same relation, parse all but the first thus ; —“*George* (as in Ety.) *sub. case*, in relation with *John*, because they are connected by conjunctions.” Repeat rule 5.]

George and John study. Henry, William, and Edward

walked. He or she wrote this letter. Susan, as well as Mary, was there. George Washington, the father of his country, is dead. Artexerxes, the king, decreed that Ezra, the priest, and scribe of the law, should be obeyed in all things. He is a man. Who is the king? This gentleman is my preceptor and friend. She walks a goddess, and she moves a queen. Bonaparte was made emperor of France.

LESSON XXVII.—RULE 6.

[Recite 227, and parse a pronoun thus;—"Who (as in Ety.) with its antecedent *he*; (repeat rule 6.) *Sub. case,*" &c.]

He, who did it, knew his duty. The men, that do their work well, are well rewarded. I, who am your friend, will assist you. They that observed these things, remembered them. The trees, which he planted, flourished.

LESSON XXVIII.—RULE 7.

[Recite 233, and parse an adjective thus;—"Good (as in Ety.) agreeing with men." Repeat rule 7.]

Good men labor. The large trees stand. A smart horse trots. An old hen cackles. Such people work. This book is larger than that block. I am sorry. He is hungry. You are an idle boy. See those great apples. Full many a flower. Time is short. That kind and gentle child. How large and bright is the sun! At a little distance from the ruins of the abbey, stands an aged elm.

LESSON XXIX.—RULE 8.

[Recite 239, 240, 241.—Conjugate the indicative present of *move* thus:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1	I move <i>or</i> do move,	We move <i>or</i> do move.
2	{ You move <i>or</i> do move, Thou movest <i>or</i> dost move,	You move <i>or</i> do move. Ye move <i>or</i> do move.
3	He moves <i>or</i> does move,	They move <i>or</i> do move.

So conjugate the perfect present, *I have moved*, &c. Conjugate the other tenses according to 240. In the same manner, go through with the verbs *walk*, *love*, *sit*, *wish*, &c. Then parse a verb, thus;—"Study (as in Ety.) agreeing with its subject *he* and *she*." Repeat rule 8.—Notice, that a verb becomes singular as a noun becomes plural.]

He and she study. I write. Thou thinkest. He wishes. We tarry. The glorious sun sinks to its rest,

and the stars appear in the heavens. He who did it, knew his duty. Oh thou, who walkest in majesty. The man that despises virtue, will be despised. Thou shalt appear in brightness. John, Isaac, and Thomas own a boat.

LESSON XXX.—RULE 8.

[Recite 243, and parse the following:]

I am. Thou art. He is. You are. I was. Thou wast. He was. You were. I shall be. Thou shalt be. They shall be. He was angry. Ye are vile. We have been corrupted. Who is able to withstand him? She might have been respected.

LESSON XXXI.—RULE 9.

[Recite 248, 249, 250; and parse an infinitive thus; —“To ride (as in Ety.) used as a substantive, (repeat rule 9,) being with *you* the object of wish.” Repeat rule 3.]

I wish you to ride. To walk is good exercise. To do as we would be done by, is the essence of morality. I expect to see him. Boys love to play. Mary dislikes to read. To obey our parents, is a solemn duty. I induced her to stay.

LESSON XXXII.—RULE 9.

[Recite 253, 255; and parse the following:]

I begged her to stay. The ship was about to sail. He was about to spring. He was able to do little, excepting to talk. She sought nothing, save to free herself from reproach. I tried [—] to find him. He is worthy [—] to live. We are apt [—] to do wrong. To be plain, I cannot grant it. To conclude, time is short.

LESSON XXXIII.—RULE 10.

A trotting horse goes fast. Susan having dined retired. He being wearied sat down. They were walking. I have been surprised. You must have been alarmed. It is not to be expected. Learned men are generally respected. Learning is generally respected. Walking is good exercise. I am fond of riding. Isaac dreads rising. The sun's rising was splendid. The learned are generally respected. He repented of having gone.

LESSON XXXIV.—RULE 11.

[Recite 260; and parse an adverb thus; “*Very* (as in *Ety.*) qualifying *good*.” Repeat rule 11.]

Very good boys study very diligently. Peter wept bitterly. She went away yesterday. She sung most sweetly. Mary rose up hastily. Cain wickedly slew his brother. He speaks more correctly. He was most attentively meditating. The ship was driven ashore. Then they were glad. They talk too much. All must die, sooner or later. George running hastily, fell down and hurt himself severely.

LESSON XXXV.—RULE 12.

[Recite 267; and parse a conjunction thus; “*And* (as in *Ety.*) connecting the words *John* and *William*.” Repeat rule 12.]

John and William are coming, but they will soon return. He is very kind, and obliging. You and he are happy, because you are good. He labors harder than I do. If you do virtuously, then you will prosper. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. As I knew that you would grant, I asked.

LESSON XXXVI.—RULES 13 AND 14.

[Recite 271, 274; and parse thus; “*Alas* (as in *Ety.*) and *is* independent. Repeat rule 14. “*To* (as in *Ety.*) showing the relation between *alas* and *me*.” Repeat rule 13.]

Alas to me. He sat with a book in his hand. Oh! how cheerful is a seat by a good hot fire, in the great stove, on the hearth, in our school house! With a stick, he shoved it under the eaves of the house. Hurrah for the President! We walked through the deep and dark Gothic archway. They will come in a carriage.

LESSON XXXVII.—TRANSPOSITION.

[Recite 275, 281, and transpose the following:]

Sweet is the breath of morn. How swiftly time flies. With friends 'tis hard to part. O'er hills and dales they wend their way. What do people say it is? Ye are one another's joy. (224.) Whom do you imagine it to have been? Here am I.

Men in adversity most plain appear :
 It shows us really what and who they are :
 Then from their lips truth undissembled flows ;
 The mask falls off, and the just features shows.

LESSON XXXVIII.—ELLIPSIS.

[Recite 282, 283, and supply the ellipses in the following:]

A large and a small apple. He reads and writes. I can go, and will. He made a good beginning, but a bad ending. I rose at seven. Much rain and snow. They sing and play most delightfully. I desire you will be good. A man, woman, and child. I love and fear him.

SECOND COURSE.

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE AND FOR CORRECTION.

ETYMOLOGY.

1—19. The council is in session. The meeting has broken up. The committee were divided in opinion. The triumphing of the wicked is short. Many a fiery Alp. The Park was crowded. Let us go to the Strand. Such a Cicero is worthy of his country. Science was overthrown. The sciences flourished. Government was established. A government was established. The twelve Cæsars. The judgment day. The London of America.

20—34. Whether we grapple it with the pride of philosophy.—*Chalmers*. It is impossible to please every one. There lives a man. Lives there a man? What things we had were taken away. You like what I dislike. Whatever comes must go. Whosoever will, may come. Who could resist? Not I. Whom have I in heaven but thee? None. Whom you meet, him exhort. You are a

man. Thou art *the* man. Oh thou, that hearest prayer. It is stormy. There are seven days in a week. How comes it that you are here ?

35—56. *Spell the plural of* wish, cargo, nuncio, distich, beauty, day, self, relief, man, child, brother, goose, mouse, penny, datum, erratum, crisis, hypothesis, index, calx, focus, magus, cherub, seraph, stamen, bandit, dishful, handful, Mr. Jackson, Miss Stevens, court-martial, butter, sloth. *Spell the singular of* dishes, rebuses, negroes, glories, staves, loaves, women, oxen, feet, teeth, dice, phenomena, arcana, theses, axes, vortices, appendices, genera, laminæ, beaux, scissors, alms, errata, antipodes. *Tell the number of each of the following substantives and substantive expressions ;* Freeport, chairs, fan, he, we, series, I, who, that, ye, they, thou, it, which, sheep. The school is large ; it is full. The schools are large. The school are in their seats. Two hundred barrel of fish. John and George are coming. Each star and meteor shines. No noise, no breath is near. William studies, and James. He or she did it. And every sense, and every heart is joy.—*Thom.* Each beast, each insect, happy in its own.—*Pope.* Diligent industry, and not mean savings, produces honorable competence. The saint, the father, and the husband prays.—*Class book.* All work, and no play, makes Jack a dull boy.—*Old Proverb.* Twenty sail of vessels. Fifteen head of cattle.

57—71. Such an humanity, who can tolerate ? What

FALSE GRAMMAR.

36—47. Boies, beautys, dishes, strives, loafs, childs, brethrens, foots, chairs, axes, generas, handful, the Miss Williamses, pitches, scissor, seraphims, cargos, attornies, lifes, pences, automatas, vortexes, radiuses, beaus, bandittis, the Mr. Bakers. The indices of books. America has produced many genii. He reveled amid fairys and geniuses. This is worth twenty pennies. He was used to giving pence to children. He took much pain to do it. By this mean he succeeded. I like that specie of fruit. He shot two deers. Wheats are very high and oat is very low.

an hostility he manifested! None everlasting, none unchanging, reign. I shall take whichever way I please. They returned whatever they had stolen. The Lord loves the righteous. Full many a gem of purest ray. Many a one [person] is found.

72—84. Few men think they have enough wealth. Who is wealthier than he? It was the liveliest creature I ever saw. He was the foremost in war, but the hindmost in peace; the best friend of the one, but the worst enemy of the other. The eldest was rather clownish in his appearance. I tell you a more excellent way. The Most High reigneth. She was very amiable, and nearer perfect than any person I ever saw.

85—92. Here I rest. Here I rest my hopes. She lives a virtuous life. She sleeps her long sleep. He walked the horse. She danced the child. They sink to rest. They sink their nets. The wood which he splits, splits easily. The meat will hurt, even if you do not hurt it. What he reads, reads well. I love to heat a room, which heats easily. She worried herself into her grave. They sung a song. Where wilt thou that we prepare it?—*Bible*. Thou wilt have enough, if thou doest thy duty.

93—114. Cain killed Abel; Abel did not kill Cain. Did Cain kill Abel? Then, if Cain killed Abel, one man can kill another. But one man should not kill another, and must we kill one man if he should kill another? Who wishes to be laughed at? We have been trifled with.

115—123. They return by the next mail. I shall depend upon it, but will wait with patience. If you will

FALSE GRAMMAR.

61—84. A humiliating one.—*Irving*. This is a historical allusion. Another such a one. The ground is dryer than common. He is the liveliest person in town. she was in the utterest anguish. The littlest apple. A gooder man. The lesser Asia. A more loftier mountain. A more perfect model. The most almighty power. The least true story. A less round apple. The supremest dignity. Such an infinite number. How eternal is God! The most straitest sect of our religion.

wait, you shall have it. I dislike, I *do* dislike such actions. I went, I did really go at the time. I was standing. You are walking. They had been eating. He is deceived. You may have been told. She seems to be fatigued. He being wearied sat down to rest. I am come. He is risen. They are fallen.

124—128. I would rather die than thus go astray. There are twelve months, namely, viz. *or* to wit. He went two years ago. He was most supremely blest. They were less largely concerned.

129—136. He came after I had come. He has been here since last Tuesday. You can go while I am waiting. He said nothing touching that. We shall start, notwithstanding this. Avaunt! foul fiend! Farewell! my friend; adieu! Oh yes! a long adieu.

137. He requested to be permitted to live. That mind is not matter is certain. He knew of his father's being a judge. For an old man to cheat is very disgraceful. He permitted me to take it—a kindness I shall ever remember. That he should refuse is not strange. For what purpose they embarked, is not known. To be temperate, to use exercise, and to keep the mind calm, are the best preservatives of health.

139, 140. The first three miles. A dark brown horse. A pea-green jacket. A laughter-loving clown. A good old man. It seems to be right. Who would have desired to be there? You are to be supplied. His health made necessary the journey.

141. It marks the degree the more strongly, and de-

FALSE GRAMMAR.

122, 123. The book is printing. The boards are planing. I am done. We are arrived. They have all spelt. He spilt the water. It is your bounden duty. He swang it over his shoulder. She has gotten it from him, but I gat it first. You had ought to go. He did ought to stay. Yes, quothed he.

127—136. He came more sooner than he ought. He feared most least of any. This is more nearer right. O! O! Alas! Woe to me! Yes, yes, I think so. See! behold! they come.

finer it the more precisely. The oftener I see him, the more I respect him. You can do it as well as I can. We have labored in vain. Methinks I see thee there.

142—144. What rests, but that the mortal sentence pass.—*Milton*. And from before the lustre of her face.—*Thomson*. Wo to the day! that saw thee come. He spoke as though he were in earnest, and as though he would never shrink. They sat over against the temple.

145. Though I forbear, *what* am I eased.—*Job*. The enemy having his country wasted, what by himself, and what by the soldiers, findeth succor in no place.—*Spencer*. He went *a-shore*. He came *a-foot*.

147. The laughable in objects particularly attracts him. The careless and the improvident, the giddy and the fickle, the ungrateful and the interested, everywhere meet us.

Together let us beat this ample field,

Try what the open, what the covert yield.

All join to guard what each desires to gain.—*Pope*. The few and the many have their prepossessions. Bring each of your brothers and the little ones. Inferiors are often envious of their superiors.

149—151. A conjunction is a word which connects. The is an article. Really! you are in good season. Amazing! I cannot believe it. The ship came to. The enemy hove to. Times gone by.—*Irving*. We sailed about pleasantly. But do not after lay the blame on me. He went before I did.

152—156. Since when I have not heard from him. Concerning him, I can say nothing. He had nothing, bating an old gun without a lock. It will continue from now till Saturday. He hath not where to lay his head. With him is one eternal now. The Son of God was not yea and nay.

155, 156. I know which way is best; it is that which I take. I know what book he had; it was what I gave him. Whatever sinks, does not float. Whatever form it takes is beautiful. Who, that has feeling, wishes that time should change that affection?

157. He only struck me. He struck me only. The ill-natured boy was ill, but the well-behaved boy was well. He that has much money is much troubled, and he that

has little money, is little better off. A near friend lives near me.

158—160. Either you may go and neither may watch, or neither you may go nor may either watch. Was there no noise? No! it was midnight. She needs three dollars, for she must needs buy a parasol.

161, 162. He did it, but not intentionally. None but the brave deserve the fair. Born but to die, and reasoning but to err.—*Pope*. What no man knoweth, *saving* he that receiveth it.—*Rev*. None but they can aid us. I shall not strive for it, for it is wrong. As you insist upon it, I will do as well as I can. Yet still, he is yet alive, and is still in his senses. Since it was important, I have kept it ever since. I repeat, then, that he went then, and I say, therefore, that he therefore went.

163—169. Penknife, inkstand, notwithstanding, another, neither, none, myself, whoever, whenever, hereof, therefore, whereby, without, ashore, afoot, abed, whoso, wheresoever, uphold, intend, undervalue, overthrow, to fall on, to cast about, unlearned, preternatural.

170—178. Grandeur, splendid, abbess, tutoress, Jewess, heroine, bridegroom, duchess, executive, testatrix, widower, richness, enrolment, dukedom, bailiwick, sisterhood, partnership, vassalage, prosperity, sulphuret, transparency, gladsome, lovely, frothy, blissful, comfortless, prosperous, widower, straighter, wiser, longer, expectant, prudently, friendly, accordingly, glazier, graze, upholsterer, patentee, Charleston, Newton, understand, oversee, cast about.

S Y N T A X .

[FOR PRACTICE IN ANALYSIS, TAKE ANY OF THE EXERCISES.]

200—207. John's horse kicked William's dog. The business being finished, the court adjourned. The sun having risen, the day became fine. Plato! thou reasonest well. O grave, where is thy victory? O death, where is thy sting? English Grammar. Samuel Edwards, Stationer. Music! how sweet its charms. Where none but spirits live.

Brutus and Cæsar! what should be in that Cæsar? *Shak.*
 Religion, what treasure untold,
 Resides in that heavenly word!—*Cowper.*
 Blest morn, that saw our rising God.
 Oh wretched state of deep despair,
 To see my God remove.—*Watts.*

A mighty maze! yet not without a plan.—*Pope.*

He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.—*Bible.*

208—213. The planets' orbits are elliptical. For conscience' sake, leave us. Moses' writings remain. Jane,

FALSE SYNTAX.

200. Thee must be attentive to thy studies. (See 214.)
 Thee is a good boy. When will thee come? Them
 that oppress the poor shall come to want. Whomsoev-
 er is contented enjoys happiness. He reprov'd all whom
 he thought had done it.

201. John book is old. (See 208.) I will not destroy
 the city for ten sake. Moses rod. Much depends on
 the pupil composing frequently. It arose from the Pres-
 ident neglecting his duty.

202. He spoke to thou. (See 214.) To poor me,
 there is nothing left. Is it I, who thou art angry with?
 Thou only have I chosen. She I shall more readily for-
 give. Who shall we send? He that is idle, reprove.
 Who should I meet but my old friend! How long will
 it take ye to do it? He accosts whoever he meets.
 They that honor me, I will honor. Who do you think
 I saw? Who did he enquire for? Thou. Who did
 you go with? Ye who were dead, hath he quickened.
 He who did it, you should correct, not I who am inno-
 cent. Who servest thou under?

203. Me being young, they deceived me. (See 214.)
 Thee refusing to comply, I withdrew. The child is lost;
 and me—whither shall I fly? Her being absent, the
 business was delayed. They all went, us only excepted.
 Oh thee that hearest prayer.

————— Whose grey top
 Shall tremble, him descending.

208. Homers works are admired. (See 201.) A

Susan, and Nancy's seat is clean. For David my servant's sake. Lost in love's and friendship's smile. The captain of the guard's house. Felix' room. It is not for one's interest to interfere in other's concerns.

214—217. I have your book in my desk. Thou hast his hat on thy bench. You and he struck her with it. She told him its history. Ye took from us our possessions. We gave them their due. They knew whom they served, and whose interest they sought. A religion whose origin is divine.—*Blair*. Who, that loves his neighbor, and whose heart is devoted to his good, would act thus? Theirs is the vanity, the learning thine. He came into this world of ours. [our possession.] An acquaintance of yours. Mine own beloved home is thine. He himself did it. They pleased themselves with the idea. She wept herself to sleep.

FALSE SYNTAX.

mothers tenderness, and a fathers care, are natures' gifts for mans advantage. A mans manner's affect his fortune. Wisdoms' precepts' form the good mans' happiness. Apple's are ripe. They are wolves in sheeps clothing.

209. Jesus's feet. Moses's rod. James's hat. For Herodias's sake. For righteousness's sake.

210. Was Cain's and Abel's father there? Were Cain's and Abel's occupations the same? Were Cain's parents and Abel the same? Were Cain and Abel's parents the same? The Apostle's Paul's advice. It was the men's, women's and children's lot, to suffer severely. For David's my servant sake. Look opposite to Morris's and Company's.

211—213. William's wife's aunt's child's health. Ones duty can never be made anothers'. James Hart, his book, bought 1839. Asa his heart was not perfect with the Lord.

214—217. The tree is known by it's fruit. Thee must give me mine horse. This is hisen. Here is our's; what has been done with theirs? Each is accountable for hissself. They settled it among theirselves.

219. My brother and him are grammarians. You and

218—220. He and his friend were there. You or he did it. Washington, as general, led the way to victory. She, but not he, was there. He was under Napoleon, than whom a greater general never lived.

221—225. He that formed the ear, shall he not hear? They make utility the only rule of taste. My maker formed me man. God called the firmament heaven. They twain shall be one flesh. William Haskell, Shoemaker, lives there. Ambition, interest, honor, all concurred. Thou king of saints!

Thy maker's will hath placed thee here,
A *maker* wise and good.—

Thus shall mankind his guardian care engage,
The promised *father* of the future age.—*Pope*.

Let us seek each other's good. See how these brethren love one another. Mechanics and farmers each have their appropriate sphere. As a poet, he is unrivaled. He, and he only, can perform the act.

226. These are commonly reckoned adverbs. He taught his sons to become good citizens. I thought it to be her. I am the man. Tom struts a soldier. He was called Cæsar. The general was saluted emperor. They have become fools.

She looks a goddess, and she walks a queen.—*Dryden*.

The glim'ring moon shone queen.—*Dwight*.

FALSE SYNTAX.

us enjoy many privileges. Between him and I there is a difference of age; but none between him and she. Him and I went to the city together; but John and him returned without me. Will you permit Ralph and I to go? I will say it between you and I. Let Lemuel and I read. I told her as well as they. He expects it from you and whoever he has benefited.

221. I received it from my cousin, she that was here last week. I am going to see my friends, they that we met. They slew Varus, he that was mentioned before. I sent it to my brother's house, him whom you saw here. My two friends gave me this, them that we saw last night. These books are my friend's, him who keeps the library.

226. I know it to be they. Be composed, it is me.

227. The meeting was large ; it held three hours. The council were divided in their sentiments. (See 44.) Socrates and Plato were wise ; they were eminent philosophers. (See 50.) Neither John nor James has learned his lesson. That philosopher and poet has ended his days. Each soldier and each citizen should perform his part. I say that this book is mine. She wept herself to sleep. John himself knew that the hat was not his.

228—232. See the ship ; how swiftly she sails ! The giant war sweeps everything in his course. Whoever is idle, him reprove. The pigeon hies to her nest. The

FALSE SYNTAX.

I would not act thus, if I were him. Well may you be afraid ; it is him, indeed. Who do you fancy him to be ? Whom say ye that I am ? If it was not him, who do you imagine it to have been ? He supposed it was me ; but you knew it was him.

227. Every man will be rewarded according to their works. Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them on Jacob. Take handfuls of ashes, and let Moses sprinkle it. No one should incur censure for being tender of their reputation. The nation was once powerful ; but now they are feeble. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as its chief good. (See 44.) The committee were divided in its sentiments. The people rejoice in that which should give it sorrow. Coffee and sugar grow at the south, whence it is exported. (See 50.) Pride and vanity always render its possessor despicable. Despise no infirmity or condition of life, for they may be thy own lot. A preposition is used to connect other words ; they are put before nouns. A certain number of syllables form a foot ; they are called feet, because, &c. The society is large ; she is in a prosperous state. (See 56.)

228. I am happy in the friend which I have long proved. This is the horse whom my father imported. He has two brothers, one of which I know. What was that creature whom Job called leviathan ? Those which desire to be safe, should do that which is right. There was a certain housholder, which planted a vineyard. The cattle who broke loose, have been found.

calf was large, therefore they killed it. Thou art the king that reigneth. Thou art the king that reigns. Thou who art our God, whose we, are and whom we obey. The monarch of mountains rears his snowy head.

Penance dreams her life away.—*Rogers.*

Grim darkness furls her leaden shroud.—*id.*

233—238. Every other time. Every third day. I love sugar and vinegar ; but that is sweet, and this is sour ;

FALSE SYNTAX.

229—232. The king of day rises in all its splendor. Whoever is upright, will succeed in its undertakings. Thou art the Lord, that didst choose Abraham, and brought him out of Ur. You wept, and I for thee.

You learned an all-commanding power,

Thy mimic soul can well recall.—*Collins.*

233. Things of this sort are easily understood. (See 60.) Who broke that tongs ? (46.) Where did I drop this scissors ? I disregard this minutiae. Those kind of injuries. We rode ten mile an hour. Twenty pound of beef. The water is six fathom deep. The lot is twenty foot wide. Scholasticus tried to appear learned, and, by these means, rendered himself ridiculous. Caled was modest, docile, and ingenious ; and, by this means, acquired great fame. A thousands were there. He has been there this three years. Every men must die.

235. Much multitudes collected. He was such an extravagant young man. I never before saw such large trees. Did either of the company assist you ? Here are six, but neither of them will answer. Have you recited either of the ten commandments this morning ? Here are two, but every one of them is spoiled.

236. Hope is as strong an incentive to action as fear ; this is the anticipation of good, that of evil. The poor want some advantages which the rich enjoy ; but we should not therefore account the former happy, and the latter miserable.

Mem'ry and forecast just returns engage,

This pointing back to youth, that on to age.

237. He chose the latter of the three. Trissyllables are often accented on the former syllable. Which are

the former is solid, the latter liquid. What is sweeter than honey? This is the smaller of the pair. Which is the warmest month of the twelve? The Browns were here last eve. The Cæsars are no more. New York is the London of America. To such excellence, few have attained. To such excellence a few have attained.

239—247. He ought to stay. She need not fear such

FALSE SYNTAX.

the two more remarkable isthmuses in the world? Israel loved Joseph more than all his children. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. Hope is the most constant of all the other passions. He is the better of the other two.

238. Let us wait in the patience and the quietness. The contemplative mind delights in the silence. I expected some such an answer. You will never have another such a chance. I persecuted this way unto the death. He is worthy the appellation of a gentleman. The chief magistrate is styled a President. He has the commission of a Captain. He is a better writer than a reader. He was an abler mathematician than a linguist. I should rather have an orange than apple. He is in a great haste. He is in great hurry. A man is the noblest work of creation. Such qualities honor the nature of a man. Drunkenness impairs understanding.

240. If thou do prosper my way.—*Gen.* To devote all thou had to his service. If thou should come. What thou said. If thou submitted. Since thou left. Before thou puts.—*Kendall.* Thou clears the head. Thou comes. Unseen thou lurks.—*Burns.* Oh thou, that hears prayer. (See 227.) Thou, who sees in secret.

——— Oh thou my voice inspire,

Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.

241. She dare not oppose it. He may pursue what studies he please. What have become of our cousins? Circumstances alters cases. What says his friends on the subject? What avails good sentiments with a bad life? Has those books been sent? What sounds have each of the vowels? The number look large. My people doth not consider. (See 44.) The multitude eagerly pursues pleasure. Patience and faith removes mountains.

a foe. Were I in his place, I would return. Such a thing were to be desired. Who art thou? His pavilion were dark waters. To tread, as it were, in the footsteps of antiquity.—*Irving*. If you had made an assignation, you had done wisely.—*Montague*.

FALSE SYNTAX.

(See 50.) Time and tide waits for no man. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity. He that do his duty will prosper. They who strives to do right will be blessed. If he do not utter it.—*Lev*. He or she study improperly. Now abideth faith, hope, charity.—*Bible*. He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay.—*Johnson*.

243, 244. You was there. He that are. We that be. You be the one. I be about to go. Thou that is. Ye who was. If thou was there. The committee was divided in opinion. (44.) The congregation is in their seats. The school are dismissed. He and she is going. (50.) His politeness and good disposition was entirely changed. Idleness and ignorance is the parent of vice. He or his brother were there. Milton, that philospher and poet, are dead. No noise, no breath are near. Every boy and girl are present. A long course of time, with a variety of accidents, are necessary, &c.

245. Dear friend, Am sorry to hear of thy loss; but hope it may be retrieved. Should be happy to render thee any assistance in my power. Two substantives, when they come together, the former must be in the possessive case. He, where is he?

Will martial flames forever fire thy mind,
And never, never, be to heaven resigned?

246. Not I but thou am happy. Neither he nor thou was there. Either the boys or I were in fault. Neither the captain nor the sailors was saved. The crown of virtue is peace and honor. Either thou or I art greatly mistaken.

247. I remember the family more than twenty years. I have completed the work more than a week ago. I have seen the coronation last summer. They have resided there, till a few months ago. This has been former-

248—256. He made each man work. He will not let them go. We see people do wrong. I dare say she will arrive. He was heard to say it. It was made to appear. It is difficult to tell. I have to write daily. He ought to go. Let there be light. Rapture yet [] to be. The world to come. You are not kind to treat me thus. He went so far as to promise attendance. To be or not to be—that is the question.

257—259. He was told to work. He was paid the money. I was denied this privilege. He was engaged in taking the city. He was engaged in the taking of the city. He was taking the city. He requested to be permitted to live.

260—266. On! ye brave. To the right! forward! I'll in; I'll in. Love hath wings, and will away. He

FALSE SYNTAX.

ly much admired. I have in my youth, trifled with health. Charles has grown since I have seen him. The next new-year's day, I shall be at school three years. I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular. Fierce as he moved, his silver shafts resound. And he that was dead, sat up, and began to speak.

251. I need not to solicit him. You ought not walk fast. I wish him not contend. I dare not to proceed. I have seen them to conduct badly.

252. I intended to have rewarded my son. I thought I should have lost it before I arrived. This it was my duty to have done. They were expecting to have found an opportunity to have betrayed him. I feared he would have died before our arrival. They would have taken care to have avoided it. I desire to have written sooner.

258. By observing of truth, you will command esteem. He prepared them, by the sending proper information. You cannot succeed without the taking pains for it. Nothing is worse than marrying of such a man. I could not forbear pitying of him. I have heard them discussing of this subject.

263. His property is near exhausted. They lived conformable to prudence. He reasons clear. He was extreme beloved. He speaks fluent, he reads excellent, but

went almost across the road. O Hershel, discovery here is all thy own. To thee my thoughts continual climb. He is exceeding brave. Will you go? No, no, no! Hither I come. He feels happy. He works happily.

267—270. He both eat and slept. I feared lest he should fall. This is better than that. I would rather go

FALSE SYNTAX.

does not think very coherent. He behaved submissive. I cannot think so mean of him. He was scarce gone. They conducted exceedingly indiscreetly. He is exceeding upright. She dresses neat.

264. I will not by no means entertain him. Nobody never invented nor discovered nothing, in no way equal to this. Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise. I did not like neither his temper nor his principles.

265. Bring him here. I shall go there again. Where are they all riding? Whither have they been. He walked there very fast.

266. This is agreeably to our interest. His behavior was not suitably to his station. Conformably to their thoughts was their gesture. The clouds look darkly. The apple tastes sourly.

267. He was older, but not so tall, as his brother. Whatever has, is, or shall be published. These interests are always different, sometimes contrary to those. Did he not tell me his fault, and entreated me to forgive him? Doth he not leave the ninety, and seeketh that which is gone astray? A caret is placed where some word is left out, and which is inserted. Where some necessary information is introduced, and which may be omitted.

268. He is both wise, as well as good. I feared lest he had fallen. He is superior in morals and in manners, than most men. He said, that, though he were ever so wise.

269. It was read by the old and young. Both a large and small grammar. The old and new method. Both of pronouns and adjectives. Either of matter or mind. Either in an active or a neuter sense. Nouns in the singular and plural number. The second and third person.

than stay. Unless you return, you die. It matters not whether you go or stay. He is as good as great. Though he is poor, yet he is respected. He sleeps, and he will sleep forever.

271—274. He went to Boston—even unto Boston—in to Boston. He came from Portland. He is in haste to be at home. The book of William's brother. By faith, he looked with joy for death, fearless amid dangers. He was averse to play. He had an aversion to play.

[For practice in transposition, take any of the exercises.]

FALSE SYNTAX.

270. If he understand the subject, and attends to it. To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately, secure success. He might have been happy, and is now fully convinced of it.

272. I have been to London, after having resided at France. They are going for Liverpool. They live at Ireland. I divided it between the three. Divide it among the two. Let us go above stairs. The shells were broken in pieces. They are gone in the meadow.

273. Averse from duty. Difficulty of fixing the mind. Accused for betraying. He died for thirst. Confide on him. A prejudice to him. Rely in this. Disappointed of it. This is different to that. Founded in truth. First efforts in this subject.

278. A young fine man. An old rich man. The two first were gentlemen; the three others, ladies. The two first syllables. The four last verses.

279. He feared to deliberately do it. He appeared to carefully examine it.

280. He speaks in a distinct enough manner to be heard. A conjunction is chiefly used to connect. They are chiefly marked by cases. These are chiefly derived from other languages. Conjunctions are principally divided, &c. Syntax principally consists of two parts. Adverbs seem originally to have been contrived. Relative pronouns relate, in general, to some word, &c. That boy is the grandson of Washington, who is playing there. William's, (who has left,) hat. Whom do you look for? Which street do you live upon? I saw a

283. Lo, the poor Indian, who, &c.—*Pope*. One perishes, or both. Who could but weep at such a sight? I know not what [] to do. There are several particulars; as, *or* as follows. What! put me off till September. Our best thanks for your Indian sweetmeats.—*Langhorne*. He cares not what he says.

284. A dozen times is as good as a hundred. A million years. A great many little men. A half a mile intervened. A little riches is a charming thing. Every twelve months is a year. Here's a few flowers! but about midnight more.—*Cyberline*. Six times four are twenty-four.

285. He has gone a hunting. We rode sixty miles that day. The wall is ten feet high. Wheat is eight shillings a bushel. He resided here many years.

286. I paid him the debt. They offered me a seat. He asked them the question. I would beg you to come. They made him a present. She taught me grammar.

287. And who but wishes to invert the laws of order, sins. Who dies shall live again.

288. This picture of my friend's. A subject of the emperor's. I sing the nine. Philip was one of the seven. He came unto his own, and his own received him not.

289—293. Whose books are these? John's. Who gave them to him? I. It is worthy the highest reverence. It is worth a shilling. They are nothing like each other. Come this way. You or I will go.

294. My soul turn from them, turn we to survey.—*Goldsmith*. Fall he that must, and live the rest.—*Pope*. Blessed be he.—*Bible*. Thy kingdom come.—*id*.

295. If to be perfect, then are we happy. Though he

FALSE SYNTAX.

ship gliding under full sail through a spy glass. All over the country.

295. Despise not any condition, lest it happens to be thy own. If he acquires riches, they will corrupt his mind. I shall walk unless it rains. As the teacher depart the scholars behave improperly. Though He be high, He hath respect to the lowly.

slay me. Unless he wash himself. Had I been there. If the stage arrive. Unless thou come. Though thou depart.

296, 297. Granting this, what will follow. The very chin was, modestly speaking, as long as my whole face.—*Addison*. He went a week since. He died a year ago. Who went up the road?

298. An object so high as to be invisible. He desired no more than to know this. Avoid such as are vicious.

FALSE SYNTAX.

298. He is as wise as thee, but more sinful than her. Not fear but labor have overcome him. All save us are happy. She as well as her sister have arrived. I, but not thou, wilt go.

300. Why do ye that which is not lawful to do? It always has, and always will be laudable. This is the worst thing could happen. He is still in the situation you saw him. I know no part would yield more variety. In the temper of mind he was in. He desired they might go. Return thanks to whom only they are due. Opposite the church.

301, 302. I will not allow of it. It is now extant. He gave it free gratis. I am going to go. He is a coming. I am a going. From whence sailed the expedition.—*Irving*. From whence can be discerned.—*id.* Like as a father pitieth his son. He said how that he would go. He has got it. Who finds him in money. He covered it over. If I had have known it earlier. He had'nt ought to do it. He killed them dead. He mentioned it over again. He went for to worship. He answered and said. They both met together. The hour is coming in the which.—*Bible*.

303. I had much rather be myself the slave. *Cowper*. I left my books to bind. This house is to let. I am to blame. I have ever been of this mind. Excuse me for not calling. It is acquired by practise. He said how he could go. I feared lest I should be deserted. He is seldom or ever right. They will never believe but what it was me. Be it never so true. I have not heard it. Was I an officer, &c. Is the gentleman in? Frequent

To as many as received him. They were as follows. He is angry, as appears by this letter. He is taller than I. He knows as much as you. N. B. *But, save, and as well as*, properly come under this remark, for they all are more correctly considered as conjunctions than as prepositions; as, None but he [] was there. (not *him*.) All save thou [] are gone. (not *thee*.) Nothing but wailings was heard. No man save he had survived.—*Scott*. We, as well as thou, have been. Love, and not fear, prevails.

FALSE SYNTAX.

opportunity. Give me them books. He seed him afore. I an't cold. We wer'nt cold. Whither he will or no. Be that as it will. He knows nothing on it. He is keeping school. He has just gone past. I will speak firstly of him. He has a good deal of care. Boston and New-York have much business, especially the later.

304. The then ministry. The soonest time. The above discourse. Thine often infirmities. It seems strangely.

305. Repenting him of his design. They enlarged themselves on the subject. Flee thee away. From calling of names, he proceeded to blows. To vie charities. He strives to agree opposite things. She affects, in order to ingratiate with you. I will not allow of it. He was entered into the house by his friends. It lays on the table. Will you lie it down? He was setting in a chair. Will you sit it down? Learn me grammar. They are growing cotton.

306. I had wrote. He begun. He run. I have eat. He would have spoke. The sea has rose. You have mistook it. I have catched cold. The villain was hung. To have went. I done it. James has wrote his copy. Could he have bore it. You should not have did so. He hath bore witness.

307. Of some of the books of each of these classes of literature, a list will be given. He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher. We have stricken off a thousand copies. Thou laughest and talkest, when thou oughtest to have been silent. Ye can't deceive God.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN PARSING.

She seems to lord it (22) over the deep.—*Irving*. Have mercy (18) upon us. There (22) is no peace. He knows what is right. Whoever (25) drinks must die. Two hundred (48) barrel of fish. Two and three make five. (50, 181.) That philosopher and poet was (50, 223) one. Each doctor and lawyer is (50) one. An (62) historical poem. None everlasting reign. (63.) Full many (68) a flower is born to blush unseen. One rules by laws, another by power. (71, 147, 288.) This is a book of John's. (288.) He ran himself (90) to death. The curfew tolls the knell (90) of parting day. Where wilt (92) thou that we prepare it? If thou go. (295.) If thou shouldst go. (96, 188—192.) It were a pity were (244) he thus disgraced. It had (244) been well for him, had (295) he gone. You are smiled upon. (102.) We leave (117) next week. - I will go, he will go. (118.) I did go.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

The scriptures are more valuable than any writings. I shall say nothing farther. I had rather go. You lay in bed too late. They were conversing together about it. He fell down off from the hill. They bear a mutual likeness to each other. They entered into the house. Restore that back again. At the first beginning of the book. Let us speak, first of all, of that. I mixed them both together. I searched all the country throughout. I have just now written. He only spoke three words. Where are you a going. He put money in his pocket. This here. I cannot by no means allow of it. I intended to have rewarded him. He is exceeding upright. These will take soonest and deepest root. A worsor conduct. It runs the faster, the lesser weight it carries. I will give them two quills to my friend. Every person are bound by the duties of morality. A new pair of shoes. We have within us an intelligent principle, distinct from body and from matter. The title of a duke was given him. The number of inhabitants in the two countries do not exceed sixteen millions. The fleet were

(119.) I am moving. (120.) I am moved. (121.) He did it when (131) he pleased. I wish you to ride. (138, 250.) The first two (139, 234) stanzas. It is to be. (140.) Methinks (141) I see him. The more (141) I strive. He ran as though (142) he were crazy. He sat over against (143) the temple. Alas to me! (144) I am undone. A few men. (148, 284.) A hundred sheep. (284.) I will give you a solution of the *comma, and, and it*. (149.) He rode about. (151.) It comes from above. (153.) He said *that* he should punish *that* boy *that* did it. (156.) Who else (157) was there? Can you go? No! (159.) He must needs (160) go through Samaria. Oh deep enchanting prelude (203—206) to repose. Syntax. (207.) The king of England's crown. (210.) This is my book,

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

seen sailing up the channel. It is impossible continually to be at work. Thou, which has been a witness of the fact. They which seek wisdom will certainly find her. There are millions of people in China, whose support is derived from rice. He instructed the crowds who surrounded him. Who ever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously. Who did they send to him? Is it I, who he is displeased with? Thou or I art greatly mistaken. Humanity and knowledge, with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance under costly attire. The possession of our senses entire, of a sound understanding, of friends and companions, are often overlooked. Take heed lest thou failest. On condition that he comes, I will consent to stay. We have as many advantages as them; but they have one greater privilege than us. Several alterations and additions have been made to the work. He is more bold, but not so wise as his companion. Neither has he, nor any other persons suspected it. The court of France or England was to be the umpire. Take the same measures that I have. We do not want it more than the rest of our neighbors. The deaf man whose ears were open, and his tongue loosened. The fields are pleasant; but never so much as in the spring. Their intentions might, and probably were, good. Sincerity is as valuable, and even more valuable than

and that too is mine. (215.) I myself (217) will go. Washington, than whom (220) a greater man never lived. The forefathers of the hamlet sleep each (224) in his narrow cell. The sun rises in all his (229) splendor. He need (242) not go. Who art thou. (246.) To lie (249) is base. I wish to ride. (250.) I will labor to do it. (253.) He was asked his opinion. (259.) Away! old man. (261.) Say first, of God above (261) or man below. He will be home next week. (285.) Tell me (286) your opinion. He said unto the sea, "Peace, (283) be still." To live long ought not to be your favorite wish, so much as to live well. (298.) The plank is one inch too thick. They cried, "Away with him." Ye are one another's joy. (224.) They love each other. He called the company, man by man. Only he struck me. He only struck me. You are infinitely too good; first, to write (253) a kind letter, &c.—*More*. Bustle is delight-

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE GRAMMAR.

knowledge. It shall be displayed and heard in the clearest light. Examples to be corrected *under* note 1. The why and wherefore. *Mode* is a form of the verb; there are five. The words parent, &c. are used *indifferently* for males and females. *Ish* may be accounted in some sort a degree of comparison. In some words, the superlative is formed by adding *most to the end of them*. *Common use* in which the caprice of *custom* is apt to get the better of analogy. What is equivalent to that and which. The plural others is *only* used when apart from the noun. *The* may agree with nouns in the *singular and plural* number. The relative being of the same person *that* the antecedent is. They retain the same termination *that* they would, &c. Parse the prepositions, nouns, &c. governed by them. The higher the river, the swifter it flows. James learns easier than Juliet. Such a bad temper is seldom found. Whereabouts is it? Look on page nineteen. A crow is a large black-bird. I saw a horse fly through the window. (*horsefly*.) I don't think it is so. Aint, haint, wont, woodent, izzent, whool, &c. I reckon so. I guess I am here. I bear the whole heft. Has he ben here? Dooz he know it? &c. &c.

ed with his nut-crackers, and says he now loves Hannah More a great deal, and Miss Neal only a little. A genuine Roger of the vale.—*Langhorne*. Angels and men, assist me. Angels and men assist me. He requested to be permitted to live. I do not care a sixpence whether he is wet or dry. The darker the ignorance, the more praise to the sage who dispels it;—the deeper the prejudice, the more fame to the courage which braves it.—*Few days in Athens*. Ah! my sons, here is indeed a pain, a pain that cuts into the soul.—*id.* Is it forbidden us to mourn its loss? If it be, the power is not with us to obey.—*id.* The happier reign the sooner it begins; reign then; what better canst thou do the while.—*Milton*. Knowest thou not this of old, since man is placed upon the earth, that the triumphing of the wicked is short, and the joy of the hypocrite but for a moment?—*Job*. They shall every one turn to his own people, and flee every one into his own land.—*Isaiah*. Ye have heard that it hath been said, “An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth.”—*Matt.* Then the king of Babylon’s army besieged Jerusalem, and Jeremiah the prophet was shut up in the court of the prison which was in the king of Judah’s house.—*Jer.* I know not *who he is*.

LOVE.

The ransomed spirit to her home,
 The clime of cloudless beauty, flies;
 No more on stormy seas to roam,
 She hails her heaven in the skies.
 But cheerless are those heavenly fields,
 The cloudless clime no pleasure yields,
 There is no bliss in bowers above,
 If thou art absent, *holy love!*—*Tappan*.

REMEMBER ME.

Remember thee! remember thee! while flows the purple
 tide,
 I'll keep thy precepts in my heart, thy pattern for my guide.
 And when life's little journey ends, and light forsakes my
 eye,
 Be near me at my bed of pain, and teach me how to die.
Sigourney.

EDEN.

In your imagination go back to the origin of the world, when every thing was very good, and all creation harmonized together. Love beamed from every countenance ; harmony reigned in every breast, and flowed mellifluous from every tongue ; and the grand chorus of praise, begun by raptured seraphs around the throne, and heard from heaven to earth, was re-echoed back from earth to heaven.—*Payson.*

MY MOTHER.

My mother's voice ! how often creep
 Its accents o'er my lonely hours !
 Like healing sent on wings of sleep,
 Or dew to the unconscious flowers.
 I can forget her melting prayer,
 While leaping pulses madly fly ;
 But in the still, unbroken air,
 Her gentler tones come stealing by,
 And years, and sin, and manhood, flee,
 And leave me at my mother's knee.—*Willis.*

RELIGION.

It is her office to elevate and improve mankind ; not by looking down upon them from above, but by dwelling familiarly and habitually among them, restraining by the respect which her presence inspires, every thing impure and unholy, until she has awakened aspirations after the pure, the holy, the spiritual, the infinite, and the eternal.—*Whitman.*

YOUTHFUL SPORT.

Encompass yourself as often as possible with the gay faces of the young. Teach them by example, to be happy like rational beings, and to enjoy life without abusing it. Let the ripe fruit be seen with the green—the blossom with the bud—the green with the fading leaf, and the vine with its natural support :

Show the ripe fruit with the green—
 Fresh leaves twining with the sear ;
 As in tropic climes is seen
 Harmonizing through the year.—*Furbish.*

ELOQUENCE.

Let the minions of legitimacy extinguish, if they can, the emulation of ancient eloquence ; it is their most dangerous enemy ; but let us, who inherit the liberties of the ancient republics, cherish it with a sacred devotion. It is at once the child and the champion of freedom.—*Ware.*

THE BURIAL.

“ Room for the dead ! ”—a cry went forth—
 “ A grave—a grave prepare ! ”
 The solemn words rose fearfully
 Up through the stilly air ;
 “ Room for the dead ! ”—and a corse was borne
 And laid within the pit ;
 But a mother’s voice was sadly heard—
 “ Oh, bury him not yet ! ”—*C. P. Ilsley.*

OUR COUNTRY.

What nation presents such a spectacle as ours, of a confederated government, so complicated, so full of checks and balances, over such a vast extent of territory, with so many varied interests, and yet moving so harmoniously ! Show me a spectacle more glorious and more encouraging, even in the pages of all history.—*Brooks.*

CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL.

Oh ! well, with spirit bow’d,
 Above his bier
 May a broad empire crowd,
 With prayer and tear !
 —His be its requiem—deep and far—
 A nation’s heart his sepulchre !—*Grenville Mellen.*

THE SOUL.

Aided by the brightest images of earth, who can bring to view any tolerably good picture of the HUMAN SOUL ! —who can draw the outlines of thought !—thought that is immeasurable as the universe !—thought that *could encompass*, with the quickness of the lightning’s flash, all that God has made.—*Cox.*

NOON IN INDIA.

Then all grew still. The sultry air
 Lay stagnant in the jungles there ;
 The floweret closed its withered bell ;
 From the parched leaf the insect fell ;
 The panting birds all tuneless clung
 To the still boughs where late they sung ;
 The dying blossoms felt the calm,
 And the still air was thick with balm.

Mrs. Stephens.

THE FIRST SETTLERS.

When we look back a space of just two hundred years, and compare our present situation, surrounded by all the beauty of civilization and intelligence, with the cheerless prospect which awaited the European settler, whose voice first startled the stillness of the forest ; our hearts should swell with gratitude to the author of all good, that these high privileges are granted to us.—*Wm. Willis.*

VALLEY OF SILENCE.

Has thy foot ever trod that silent dell ?
 'Tis a place for the voiceless thought to swell,
 And the eloquent song to go up unspoken,
 Like the incense of flowers whose urns are broken,
 And the unveiled heart to look in and see,
 In that deep, strange silence, its motions free,
 And learn how the pure in spirit feel
 That unseen presence to which they kneel.—*Cutter.*

EXTRACT FROM THE "WAR SONG."

Men of the North ! look up !
 There's a tumult in your sky ;
 A troubled glory surging out ;
 Great shadows hurrying by.

Men of the North ! awake !
 Ye're called to from the deep ;
 Trumpets in every breeze—
 Yet there ye lie asleep.—*Neal.*

WORSHIP.

In the sanctuary is the concentrated devotion of many hearts. Heaven is brought down to earth; eternity takes hold on time; this world yields its usurped throne in the hearts of men, and Jehovah reigns triumphant, the Lord of their affections.—*Cummings*.

APRIL.

Sweet April! many a thought
Is wedded unto thee, as hearts are wed;
Nor shall they fail, till, to its autumn brought,
Life's fruit is shed.—*Longfellow*.

THE TEACHER'S FAREWELL.

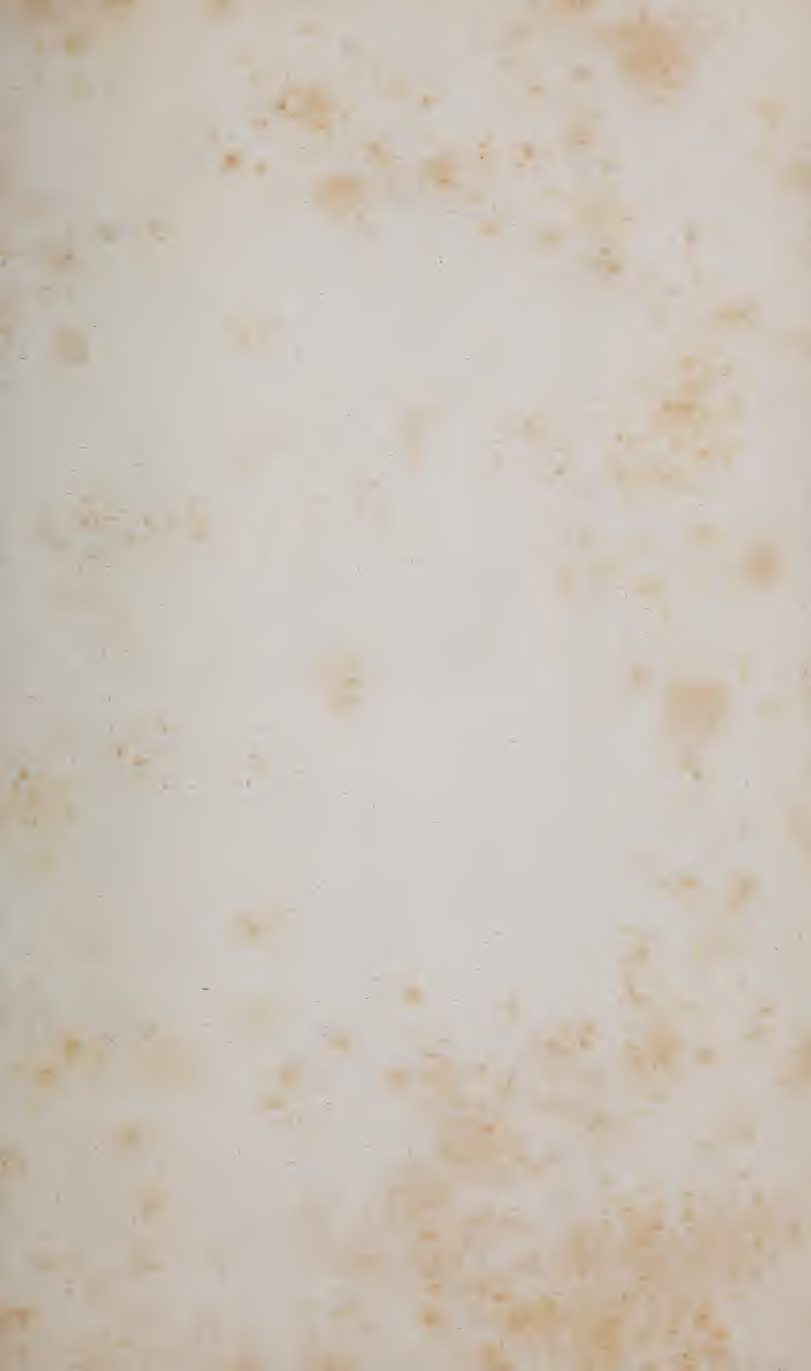
The season of our union has now come to an end; its labors and its cares are over, its pleasures and its pains. You have engaged with zeal and success in the pursuit of science, and your bosoms are swelling with anticipations of the scenes of activity and usefulness, upon which you expect ere long to enter. Go on, then, to your work! You will find enough of holy benevolence to be exercised, and enough of arduous labor to be performed. A world is stretching forth its hands for your assistance, and it is glorious to live for your Maker and for man.

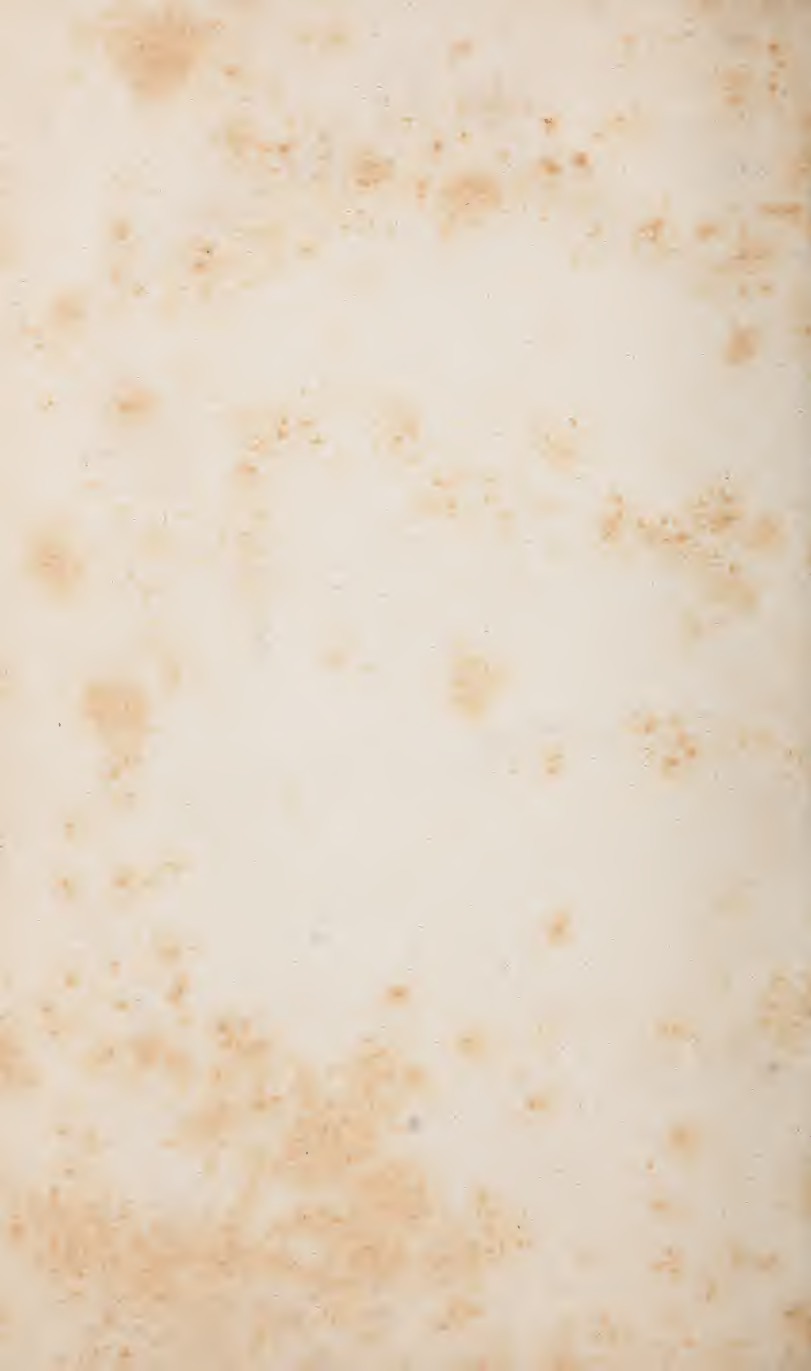
Fix high your object, and never flinch from its pursuit, to the latest hour of your mortal career. The storms and the tempests of earth may lower around you, and the clouds of adversity obscure, for a time, the sun of your hope. But that sun will at last burst forth in all its splendor, and gild with eternal radiance the diadem upon the victor's brow!

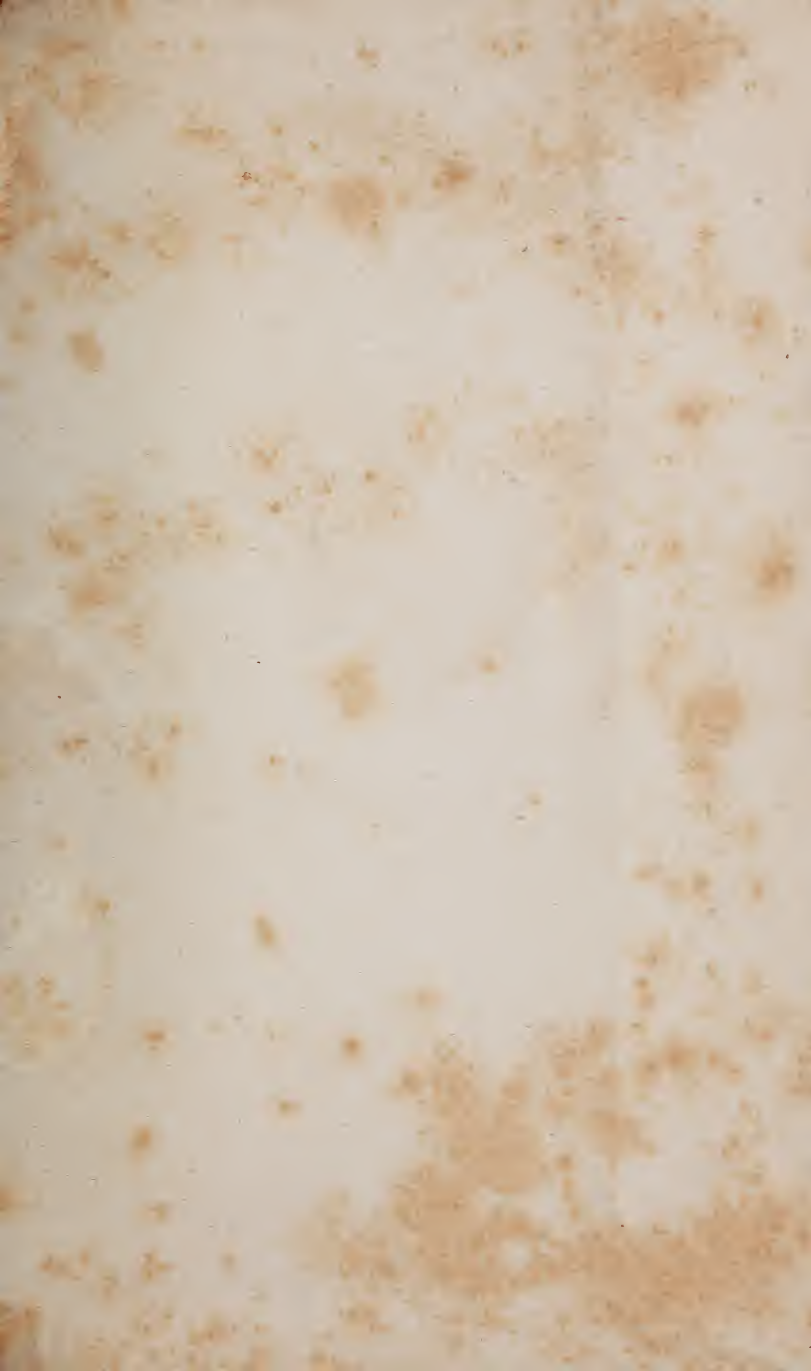
Thus, though we all meet no more on this consecrated spot, and amid these hallowed scenes of your youthful studies—though the next setting sun may find us far, far apart; you may each twine your memories around this shrine of your early affections, and, living for a common cause, may look upward to a common reward.—*G*.











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