

PRIMARY  
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTORY

TO THE

Manual of the English Language.

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## P R E F A C E .

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LANGUAGE is the *first necessity* of the mind. The *study of language*, then, is naturally and necessarily the *first study*. Children are *amused* with nothing more than with *learning to talk*. Why not continue this amusement till they learn to talk *correctly*? While it is made their *amusement*, it will be their *pleasure*. But if they are sought to be *amused* only with *trifles*, and put to what is *useful* as a *punishment*, they will be educated accordingly. They may be taught what is useful, beautiful, and true, as easily as error and falsehood. They may be made to speak pure English as readily as "baby-talk"—the language of Daniel Webster as easily as the murdered English of Major Jack Downing—to recite with as much pleasure "Watts' Hymns for Infant Minds" as the silly stories of "Mother Goose."

The child from three to five years of age can learn to read well *as an amusement*, with no mental effort beyond its capacity, in the natural exercise of its ever-active faculties; and at the same time may acquire a knowledge of the great principles of language so as to apply them correctly. He will come to understand them thoroughly and critically as reflection develops those principles in their related uses to his maturer judgment. Two things only are necessary to give a successful direction to these teachings. First, adapt the teaching and discipline to the condition of childhood, and then to a child *that is a man* in mental, moral, and physical course of development.

There are some things which a child *can understand*, and

other things which he *can not understand*. A child of five years old can understand more than he can at three, and more at eight than at five, and more at ten than at eight. Forgetting this, or neglecting it, we labor in vain, or with difficulty, in the whole process of education, whether the remark be applied to the arrangement of text-books or to the auxiliary and leading efforts of the living teacher.

The *first thing* in language which the child — after he has learned to talk — can understand is, the *simple elements of language*. He perceives, as soon as it is suggested to his mind, why one class of words are called *nouns*: — the simple reason is, they are *names*. As soon as you present this fact distinctly to his mind, he will proceed to give you nouns by naming every thing he sees, and every subject he perceives as the subject of thought. Name them to him, and he will tell you they are nouns because they are the names of things or of subjects. This is the *first step*.

When the nature of the noun is distinctly perceived, and thus practically made familiar, require the young learner to *assert* something of that subject or object, and he arrives at another *class of words* with a clear perception of the difference between the *noun* and the *verb*, the *thing* and what is *asserted* of the thing. The nature and the office of the noun and of the verb are now understood by him.

Then teach him, that *these two words constitute a sentence*, express an idea, and he gets a view of the *nature and structure of language* in the place where it belongs, *at the very commencement of his inquiries*. He then easily learns to assign the other parts of speech to their proper relations in their proper offices, to qualify, aid or modify these principal parts of the sentence. His mind in the analysis of every sentence, then, whether simple or complex, whether more or less minutely criticised, will readily, easily, habitually, designate the noun and the verb *first*, and the other or auxiliary words in their order and in their uses.

But even this process may be pursued *so encumbered* with details as to keep the tender mind always embarrassed, so mixed with related and collateral matter that a distinct perception of the two principal words in the structure of sentences is never arrived at, or the fact is dimly seen. Thus language is often presented to the mind not only without a well-defined limit, but without that classification and philosophical form of development which may render it definite as a science and simple as an art.

The consequence of the false teaching now referred to is, that Grammar becomes the labored and unfinished study of the whole course of education, a kind of night-mare that clutches its victim in the school-room as the phantom-monster does in his sleep, and which makes him dread his most privileged labors in the one case as he does his most necessary rest in the other.

But properly taught as here designated, the language comes to possess a definite outline, a perspicuous classification of simple principles, a beautiful symmetry, and a terminus. It is acquired with the precision, at least, of other subjects of study, and is finally assigned to the catalogue of the *things known*.

To *Mothers* and to *Fathers*, to elder *Brothers* and *Sisters*, to the numerous *Female Teachers* now extensively employed in Primary and Public Schools — to *All* in the responsible position of educational laborers, this little Book is respectfully commended, in the confidence that they will find it a valuable auxiliary to secure the attention and advance the education of children and youth in one of the most important, and yet — singular as it has been hitherto — one of the most irksome departments of instruction.

R. W. BAILEY.

STAUNTON, VA., Jan. 1854.

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## INTRODUCTION.

[The following colloquy, in THREE CONVERSATIONS, was written long before the “MANUAL” was published, and was used in manuscript in the Family to teach the language to very young children. It presents in a summary view and popular form the elementary principles of Grammar. Teachers may use it, or pass it, and commence with Chapter I.]

### CONVERSATION I.

*Section 1.* FRANK. — Father, how many words are there? Lucy says there are only *eight* in all my books.

LUCY. — Mother says there are a great many words — but there are only *eight sorts* or *classes* of words; and all the words in all the books belong to one or other of these eight sorts. I have learned them. They are —

The *Noun*.  
*Adjective*.  
*Pronoun*.  
 The *Verb*.  
 The *Adverb*.  
*Preposition*.  
*Conjunction*.  
*Interjection*.

FATHER. — Your mother is right; and I am glad to see that your education is made your amusement. The nursery is the proper place to awaken a taste for learning: The first thing learned is *language*. What more amusing and

playful than the imitation of sounds, by which the child first learns to talk! Who shall limit its progress, or make the *amusement* a task?—The child will not. The *philosophy of language* can be taught only in its elements.

FRANK. — What is the *philosophy of language*?

FATHER. — You may never know it by that name, which often puzzles older people. I will proceed to teach you:—and what you do not understand now you will learn gradually in the use of what you learn. Frank, if you and your sister were the only persons in the world, how would you learn to make known your thoughts to each other?

FRANK. — By signs, I guess, like the deaf and dumb people.

FATHER. — Very well; but you would soon find out that you were not deaf and dumb, and you could adopt a much more perfect plan.

FRANK. — Yes, Lucy would make a noise just like little Fanny, who cannot yet talk; and I should hear her, and then by signs she might make me understand what she meant. Fanny calls the dog *Boo*, and I understand her; and she calls the cat *Pur*, and the cow *Moo*.

FATHER. — If then you were without a language, what *class of words* would you first make?

FRANK. — Why *names*, to be sure. This was the first thing that Adam did after his creation. Gen. 2. 19, 20. "The Lord God formed every beast of the field, and every fowl of the air, and brought them unto Adam, to see what he would call them. And whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof."

FATHER. — The *names of things*, then, form the *first class of words*. Every name of a thing, whether the object of sense or the subject of thought, belongs to this class. These are called *nouns*. What sort of a word, then, is *dog*?

FRANK. — Dog is a *noun*, because it is a *name*.

FATHER. — Very well. Of what *color* is your *dog*?

FRANK. — *Black*.

FATHER. — Then *black* is a quality which belongs to your dog. That name which expresses a *quality* of a thing is called an *adjective*. What sort of a word, then, is *black*?

FRANK. — *Black* is an *adjective-name*, or an *adjective-noun*; and *black dog* is the name of my dog, and both words make the *name* or *noun*. The first is the *adjective noun*, and the second is the *substantive noun*. Is not that right?

FATHER. — Yes; the *substantive noun* is the *substance* or *subject* of the thing. Yours is a *black dog*; mine is a *white dog*; Lucy's is a *grey dog*.

FRANK. — Yes; and mine is a *big dog*; Lucy's is a *little dog*; yours is a *shaggy dog*. There are a great many *adjective nouns*. I have seen a *watch dog*, a *terrier dog*, a *cross dog*, a *mad dog*, a *lame dog*, a *lazy dog*, a *good dog*.

But we sometimes say *a dog* and *the dog*. Are not *a* and *the* adjectives too?

FATHER. — *A* and *the* are of the nature of adjectives, as they are used to qualify nouns and to limit their signification. But they are called *articles*.

FRANK. — Is there not another noun which you call a *pro-noun*?

FATHER. — Yes; the pronoun is a word used *for* the noun: *Pro* means *for*. It is easier to use the pronoun than to repeat the noun. For example—I may say, Your dog is cross, because *he* is hungry. The word *he* is a pronoun, and is used instead of *your dog*. If I had not used *he*, I must have said, Your dog is cross, because *your dog* is hungry. A pronoun is, therefore, a word used instead of a noun, to avoid the too frequent repetition of the noun.

You have now studied the first class of words. What are they?

FRANK. — They are, the *Noun*,  
the *Adjective*, which includes  
the *Article*,  
the *Pronoun*.

The *noun* is the substantive name of the thing. The others belong to the noun, and are used to complete the definition of it, or to aid in the various uses of the noun.

FATHER. — Lucy, you take the name of *cat*, and tell me all about the lesson which has now been explained.

LUCY. — I can do it. *Cat* is a *noun*, because it is the name of a thing. It is a substantive noun, because it is the principal name of the thing or the subject. *Black* is an adjective, because it expresses a *quality*;—it is an *adjective noun*, because it makes a part of the principal noun or name. *A* and *the* are adjectives, also, called *articles*.

*Cat* is a noun.

*Black cat* is a noun.

*A black cat* is a noun.

*The black cat* is a noun.

“*The black cat* is cross, because she is hungry.” In this sentence, *she* is a *pro-noun*, because it is used instead of a noun, to avoid the repetition of ‘*the black cat*.’ If I had not used *she*, I must have said, “The black cat is cross, because *the black cat* is hungry.”

FATHER. — Very well, little Lucy. You now see the noun includes the first three of the eight *sorts of words*, or *parts of speech*, as grammarians call them. You may now go on calling the names of all the things you see, and you know that these names are nouns. Their *qualities*, when expressed in words, give you the *adjectives*. *A* and *the* are a form of the adjective called the *article*. And whenever you use a word *instead* of a noun, it is a *pronoun*.

## CONVERSATION II.

§ 2. FATHER. — We are now prepared to advance in our conversation on Grammar.

LUCY. — Mother has taught us all about the *noun*, and given us a great many examples. Shall I repeat them?

FATHER. — Not now, little Miss Ready. You know something about the noun or name of the thing. Now we suppose you have some *thoughts about this thing*, which you wish to tell to another. The word you employ to do this is called the *verb* or the *word*, because it is the principal word employed in communicating your ideas. On the utterance of this word, a thought passes from the mind that utters it to another. It is, therefore, the word that *asserts* or *expresses* some thought of the mind. As —

My dog *hunts*.

Your dog *watches*.

Lucy's dog *barks*.

In each of these examples, a thought is communicated by the *verb* — which may, therefore, be regarded as the principal or most important word in the language.

FRANK. — Is not the *verb* sometimes expressed in different forms? We say — *hunted*, *may hunt*, *can hunt*, or *will hunt*.

FATHER. — Very well. I like to see a mind wide awake to make inquiries. As the verb *asserts* something that *is*, or that *is done*, it expresses the *manner* of the action, and the *time* of the action. The verb, therefore, is made to have a form to express the *manner* and the *time* of the action, called by grammarians the *mode* and the *tense*. The grammars usually make *five modes* : —

The *Indicative*, or declaring mode.  
*Imperative*, or commanding mode.  
*Potential*, of liberty or power.  
*Subjunctive*, or conditional mode.  
*Infinitive*, or indefinite mode.

‘My dog *barks*.’

In this example, *barks* is a verb in the *indicative mode*, because it *declares* or *asserts* a thing.

‘*Bark*, Jowler.’

In this example, *bark* is in the *imperative mode*, because it commands a thing to be done.

‘My dog *can bark*.’

In this example, *bark* is in the *potential mode*, because it expresses power.

‘*If* my dog *bark*, the sheep run.’

In this example, *bark* is in the *subjunctive mode*, because it expresses a condition.

‘My dog *loves to bark*.’

In this example, *to bark* is in the *infinitive mode*, because it is indefinite, *i. e.*, not definite in mode.

FRANK. — *May, can, might, must, would, could, or should bark* — what *mode* are these?

FATHER. — They all belong to the *potential mode*, because they express *liberty, obligation, or will*. But as we are confining ourselves to a few elementary principles, I seek not to embarrass your minds by minute details. I might have said also, that the *imperative mode* is used in *entreating*. As — “Give us this day our daily bread.” But it derives its name from the other use. We shall recur to the variations of the verb again. They will require much attention, in which I wish now to avoid fatigue.

FRANK — Tell us also something about the *time* of the action.

FATHER. — Time is naturally divided into *Past, Present, and Future*. Every action must be in one of these divisions. But the grammars make also *three* divisions of *past* time, and *two* divisions of *future* time; so that there are reckoned *six tenses*. Thus —

*Present* tense: my dog barks.

*Past* tense: my dog barked.  
 Or, my dog has barked.  
 Or, my dog had barked.

*Future* tense: my dog will bark.  
 Or, my dog will have barked.

You now understand the verb, and the variations of the verb used to show the different *modes* and *times* of the action. Now, little Lucy, what have you to say?

LUCY. — I say that my cat *jumps*. *Jumps* is a *verb*, because it asserts what my cat does. *Jumps* is in the *indicative* mode, because it declares a thing. *Jumps* is in the *present* tense, because it expresses what is done *now*.

FATHER. — Very well. The verb is the most complicated part of speech, and will require great attention. We will leave it for the present. And you see that you have found *four* of the eight *sorts of words*. Study them in every variety of example. They are the principal parts of speech. The other four are used for qualifying these, or for connecting them together, or for showing relations between them. Thus sentences are formed; and when you can critically analyze these sentences, you are good grammarians.

## CONVERSATION III.

§ 3. FATHER. — The four parts of speech which remain to be considered are called *Particles*, because they are small words. They are — The *Adverb*,

*Preposition,*  
*Conjunction,*  
*Interjection.*

FRANK. — Is the *ad-verb* a verb?

FATHER. — The *adverb* is so called, because a principal use of it is to qualify the *verb*. As —

My dog hunts *well*.  
Your dog watches *strictly*.  
Lucy's dog barks *sharply*.

FRANK. — Are there not a great many *prepositions*?

FATHER. — *Sixty-three* prepositions are enumerated in the "Manual of Grammar." The *simple prepositions* are nineteen: viz. — *At, to, in, by, for, of, with, till, since, from, up, down, round, through, past, on, under, over, after.*

*Conjunctions* are small words frequently used. They connect words together; they also connect sentences. As — My dog barks *and* bites. Here *and* is a conjunction, and connects the two words *barks* and *bites*.

There are *thirty* principal conjunctions: viz. — *And, also, although, as, because, ere, except, for, wherefore, whether, yet, both, but, either, neither, nor, if, lest, or, since, that, than, unless, notwithstanding, provided, then, therefore, though, so still.*

*Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions,* are often interchanged, and used for one another.

FRANK. — It will take a great while to learn these little words.

LUCY. — Father, I can repeat the *conjunctions* now — shall I?

FATHER. — No, little Miss Ready — say them to your mother, and when you learn both the lists well, I will give you a kiss, and the Hymn-Book, which you asked for the other day.

I now wish only to give you the *Interjections*, and send you back to the nursery.

*Interjections* are exclamations, and are commonly used to express strong emotions. They are of very little use, though very comprehensive, as we shall see hereafter. Lucy, I advise you not to cultivate much acquaintance with them; and when you utter them, use an *undertone*. As often used, they may be considered as connectives between what goes *before* and *after* them, as a chasm connects or separates opposite hills — green on both sides (it may be), but hollow and vacant between.

LUCY. — Oh, father!

FATHER. — There it is now — at your *interjections*! Well, I will give you one sentence to analyze; in it, your mother will show you all the *eight parts of speech*, or sorts of words

## SENTENCE TO BE ANALYZED.

"O, I despise your black dog! for he barks furiously, and bites in a rage."

## TO TEACHERS.

There are two systems of grammatical arrangement: one commences with the *principles*, the other with *details*; one at the *head*, the other at the *extremities*. The first is *natural* and philosophical, the other is *mechanical*.

The plan of development in this treatise proceeds on the presumption that the *general principles* of Grammar are first in the order of nature, and more easily comprehended by the young than the *details*, which are second in the natural order of arrangement.

The *examples* to illustrate these *principles* are *few*, that they may be clearly apprehended, and in their designed relations.

A great variety of examples — either for the illustration of a particular principle, or for showing its various forms of application — perplexes the young learner. Simplicity is to be sought in the manner of addressing principles to his apprehension, rather than in multiplied examples and details.

The same remark may be applied with truth to the *correction of sentences of false grammar*. The mind of the young learner is often confused, rather than enlightened, by such exercises. Give him the true principles of analysis, simple, familiar, and fixed in the mind: he will then be able to take care of the false syntax.

Part I. aims to illustrate the different parts of speech in the *simple sentence*.

II. — to illustrate the accidents of the different parts of speech, and the analysis of the *compound sentence*.

III. — to illustrate, under their appropriate rules of syntax, every variety of peculiar construction.

IV. — to give the essential rules of punctuation, of orthography, and a dictionary of grammar.

## PRIMARY ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

### PART I.

[The object of Part I. is, simply to give the learner an idea of the *structure of sentences*, and a distinct comprehension of the *relative uses* of the different *Parts of Speech* in the structure of a sentence. All details not necessary to this end are therefore left to be collated in Part II. Principles first — details and exceptions afterwards.]

### NOUNS.

§ 4. THE *names of things*, in grammar, are called *nouns*. NOUNS, then, are *names*. Every name is a noun.

#### EXAMPLES.

*John, James, Mary, Jane; wind, rain, fire, thunder; virtue, vice, truth, falsehood, honor, honesty; house, field, chair, table; star, planet, comet, heavens, space, orbit.*

[Let the pupil be required to give other nouns, until he is perfectly familiar with the application of the name to some thing or subject of discourse.]

§ 5. Those words which are used to assert something of the noun are called *verbs*. VERBS, then, affirm or assert something of the noun or subject. *John* is the name of a person, and therefore something may be affirmed or asserted of *John*. The word employed to do this is not the name of a thing, but asserts something of a thing; and that is called a verb.

#### EXAMPLES.

*John reads, James studies, Mary writes, Jane recites; wind blows, rain wets, fire burns, thunder roars; virtue ennobles,*

vice *degrades*, truth *prevails*, falsehood *deceives*, honor *exalts*, honesty *enriches*.

[Let the pupil name the *verbs* in these examples, and supply other *verbs*, in their places, to the several nouns here named, until he is perfectly familiar with the difference between the noun and the verb.]

§ 6. The *noun* and the *verb* make a *simple* sentence. There can be no sentence formed without these two parts of speech. They express an *idea*. All other words in the language, without these, cannot form a sentence, nor express an idea. The whole structure of language is built on these two classes of words.

[Let the Teacher dwell on this fact, and explain it, till the pupil clearly comprehends the leading character and use of the *noun* and the *verb* as the *basis of language*. This is the great idea in the analysis of language — the leading fact in its structure

#### QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

What are *nouns*? Is every *name* a noun? Repeat the names of some *nouns* — of things in this room — of things in the street — in the field — of things not visible. What are *verbs*? How do they differ from *nouns*? Name some *verbs* with the *nouns*. Which is the *noun*? Which word *asserts* something of it? What are these two words which contain an assertion called? Answer — A *simple sentence*. Why? Answer — They express an idea. Can a thought or idea be expressed by two words only? Yes; by a *verb* and a *noun*. If you had the use of all other words, without the *verb* and the *noun*, could you express an idea with them? No. Which, then, are the two principal words in language. Ans. — The *noun* and the *verb*. — Remember this.

#### ADJECTIVE-NOUN.

§ 7. The *substantive-noun* is the simple name. This name is defined by the use of other words, added to express qualities or to limit its meaning. These words are called *adjective-nouns*, because they qualify the noun, and are never used except in connection with the noun. As *Bright star*; the *bright star*.

*Bright star* is the name of a thing.

*A bright star* is still the name of a thing, and therefore a *noun* — the name of the thing defined.

But *bright* is not a noun in itself. It expresses only a *quality of star*.

*A* is not a noun in itself. It is used to define or limit the noun.

*Bright* is therefore called an *adjective-noun*, because it is *added* to the noun as a part of the definition; and *a* is called an *article*, because it limits the meaning of the noun. It is *indefinite*, because it does not define any particular star.

*The* is called a *definite* article, because it refers to some particular star.

*Star*, then, is the *substantive-noun*, because it defines the subject-matter of discourse. *Bright* is an *adjective-noun*. *A* is an *article*, and also belongs to star. *A bright star* is a noun defining a *subject of discourse*.

*A* is used before a *consonant*, and *an* before a *vowel*. As — *A star*; *an eclipse*.

#### EXAMPLES.

<i>Planet.</i>	<i>Twinkling planet.</i>	<i>A twinkling planet.</i>
<i>Comet.</i>	<i>Eccentric comet.</i>	<i>An eccentric comet.</i>
<i>Heavens.</i>	<i>Stellar heavens.</i>	<i>The stellar heavens.</i>
<i>Space.</i>	<i>Infinite space.</i>	<i>The infinite space.</i>
<i>Orbit.</i>	<i>Elliptical orbit.</i>	<i>An, or the elliptical, orbit.</i>
<i>Height.</i>	<i>Great height.</i>	<i>A great height.</i>
<i>Depth.</i>	<i>Profound depth.</i>	<i>A profound depth.</i>
<i>Distance.</i>	<i>Long distance.</i>	<i>A long distance.</i>

[Let the Teacher exercise the pupil in the foregoing examples, and in other examples furnished by the Teacher or the pupil, until he comes to a distinct apprehension of the *subject-noun* as the complete definition of the thing or subject of discourse — and also of the distinction between the *substantive*, the *adjective*, and the *article*.]

## PRONOUN.

§ 8. The *pronoun* is used to avoid a repetition of the noun. As — *A good man* loves God; *he* obeys the law; *he* keeps the commandments.

What is *he* used instead of, in the above example?

Answer. Instead of *a good man*.

The proper use of the pronoun is here clearly seen.

## EXAMPLES.

Man is an animal, but *he* is intelligent.

Good boys obey the rules, and *they* study their books.

Bad men sin, and *they* suffer for it.

When men wrong others, *they* wrong themselves.

If God promises, *he* fulfils.

Whom God loves, *he* rewards.

The boys may play, after *they* recite.

Children are happy, when *they* are good.

Which word is the *pronoun* in each of these sentences, and for what word is the pronoun, in each sentence, used?

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

What do *adjectives* express? Are they ever used except in connection with the noun or name? Is the adjective necessary to define the name? What is the use of the *article*? Does it perform the office of an adjective? Name the two forms of the article, *definite* and *indefinite*. Why is *the* called definite, and *a* indefinite? When is *a* used? When *an*? *A bright star* — in this example, which is the *noun*, the *adjective*, the *article*? In what sense may the three words be regarded as the noun? Ans. — As the name of the thing designated. — What is a *pronoun*? Give examples of the use of pronouns in sentences.

## THE VERB.

§ 9. The *verb* is that word which is used to *affirm* or *assert* something of the nominative case. As — *I love*.

## EXAMPLES.

John *loves*.

James *reads*.

Lucy *plays*.

Ellen *talks*.

Jane *runs*.

Mary *walks*.

Eliza *limps*.

The cat *jumps*.

The dog *barks*.

The horse *trots*.

A bird *flies*.

A stone *falls*.

The sun *rises*.

The moon *shines*.

An eagle *soars*.

Which is the verb in each of these sentences? Why? Which is the nominative case? Why?

Verbs are called *transitive* or *intransitive*. Can you give the signification of these *terms*?

Answer. *Transitive* means *that can pass over* — *intransitive* means *that can not pass over*.

Very well. When the thing affirmed by the verb *passes*, in its action, to an *object*, the verb is called *transitive*. As — John *loves*. John loves *what*? John loves *fruit*. Here the act of love passes to an object — *fruit*.

## EXAMPLES OF TRANSITIVE VERBS.

John reads (Virgil).

James struck (John).

Good men keep the law.

Sinners destroy themselves.

## EXAMPLES OF INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

Mary walks.

Eliza limps.

The dog barks.

The horse trots.

A bird flies.

A stone falls.

The sun rises.

The sun sets.

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

What are *verbs*? Repeat examples of verbs. Can a sentence be formed with the simple noun and verb? Can a sentence be formed without them? What are transitive verbs? Intransitive? Give examples of each.

## ADVERB.

§ 10. Words which qualify verbs are called *ad-verbs*. As—John reads *well*. *Well* qualifies *reads*.—He reads *distinctly*. *Distinctly* qualifies *reads*.—He reads *rapidly*, *accurately*, *impressively*, &c.

Adverbs also frequently qualify adjectives and other adverbs. As—He reads *very well*. *Very* qualifies the adverb *well*.—He is happy—*very* happy. *Very* qualifies the adjective *happy*.

## EXAMPLES.

John runs *fast*.

He walks *slowly*.

He studies *closely*.

He writes *rapidly*.

The sun shines *brightly*.

The sun shines *very* brightly.

The sun is *very* bright.

## PREPOSITION.

§ 11. *Prepositions* are used to connect words with one another, and show a relation between them.

Prepositions show the relation between the words they govern and *nouns*, *verbs*, or *adjectives*. As—John walked from *home*—to *school*. He is *careful* of his *health*.

## EXAMPLES.

John spoke *to* his sister. Men *of* honor are men *of* might.

He is a boy *of* honor. Men *of* piety are men *of* purity.

He is kind *to* his sister. Faith makes men *of* works.

There are *nineteen* simple prepositions: viz.—*At, to, in, by, for, of, with, till, since, from, up, down, round, through, past, on, under, over after*.

## CONJUNCTION.

§ 12. Simple sentences and single words are connected or *conjoined* by a class of small words called *conjunctions*. As—James *and* John are brothers. James is a good scholar, *and* John is a good scholar.

The conjunctions most often used are the following:—*And, for, yet, but, or, nor, either, neither*.

## EXAMPLES.

Men *and* women are mortal, *but* they are often thoughtless. They die, *yet* they shall live again; *for* there is a resurrection of the dead. John admitted *neither* the one *nor* the other. James admitted *either* one *or* the other.

## INTERJECTION.

§ 13. *Interjections* are words of exclamation, expressing passion or emotion. As—*Ah, oh, alas, &c.* Ah me! Alas, for him!

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

What are *adverbs*? Do they qualify other words than *verbs*? Give some examples.—For what are *prepositions* used? Between what words do they show relation? Give examples.—What is the use of *conjunctions*? What are some of the most common? Give examples of the use of *conjunctions* in sentences.—What are *interjections*?

## SIMPLE SENTENCES.

All men honor the good man. Washington was a patriot.  
Learning gives power. Webster was a statesman.  
Ignorance leads to vice. Franklin was a philosopher.  
Goodness survives the tomb. Hamilton was a financier.

## TO TEACHERS.

Part II. contains a definition of all the different parts of speech, with their ordinary grammatical uses and relations in *simple*, and in *compound* and *transposed sentences*. We do not hesitate to affirm, as the result of much experience, that the learner who makes himself familiar — *perfectly familiar* — with all the forms and examples presented in this short outline of Etymology, will attain an accuracy and a self-confidence in the use of language suited to all ordinary practice. He will then only have to study, in Part III., the Rules of Syntax, and the peculiar grammatical constructions, there arranged under their appropriate classes; and then to study the Idioms discussed in the “Manual,” and he becomes a well-furnished English scholar. An accurate acquaintance with a few appropriate examples is vastly better than a discursive course of parsing, exercised through a greater variety, with less precision in the use of fundamental principles. The forms in each mode and tense should be used as a *parsing-lesson*.

A great mistake is often made by employing the young pupil in correcting *false grammar*. Give him the correct rule of interpretation and analysis: its application will then be easy and sure. But apply him to correct false grammar, and his mind becomes confused before he has fixed clearly the principles of the science.

## PART II.

[The object of Part I., as well as the introductory Colloquy, has been, to present to the mind of the learner the *two Parts of Speech* which form the *basis of language*: viz., the *noun* and the *verb* — to show the *simple sentence*, as formed of these *two words*, to express a *simple idea*; and the uses of all the other parts of speech to *qualify, connect, or show relations*, in various forms of simple sentences.

Part II. goes more fully into the *Etymology* of words, comprising their inflections and modifications; and also, the *Syntax* of words, showing their *arrangement, government, and agreement*, together with the *Rules of Analysis and Parsing*.]

§ 14. *All words* are naturally divided into *three classes*: —

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

### PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 15. All the parts of speech, or sorts of words, are *eight*: viz. —

- |                        |  |
|------------------------|--|
| First class . . . . .  | { <i>Noun,</i><br><i>Adjective,</i><br><i>Pronoun.</i>                                 |
| Second class . . . . . | <i>Verb</i> , with its compounds.  |
| Third class . . . . .  | { <i>Adverb,</i><br><i>Preposition,</i><br><i>Conjunction,</i><br><i>Interjection.</i> |

## THE NOUN.

§ 16. The *Noun* or *name* includes the *Adjective*, the *Article*, and the *Pronoun*.

DEFINITION.—The *noun*, sometimes called the *substantive*, is the *name* of any thing which can be made the subject of discourse. As — *Man, house, justice, virtue*.

The *personal pronoun*, the *relative pronoun*, and the *interrogative pronoun*, stand for *nouns*, and are therefore *substantive-nouns*. They are treated of separately, because they have a distinctive form; and they are placed in order after the *adjective*, because one class of them are used as *adjectives*.

§ 17. *Nouns* are modified by *Person, Number, Gender, and Case*.

## PERSON.

The *first person* denotes the person *speaking*. As — *I love, i. e., I, John, love. I* means *the myself*, or the name of the person speaking.

The *second person*. If the same thing is to be asserted of the person *spoken to*, the form would be varied thus — *You love, i. e., you, James, love*.

The *third person*. If the same thing is to be asserted of an absent person or a person *spoken of*, it would be varied thus — *Thomas loves*; or, if the absent person had already been named, we should say — *He loves, i. e., he, Thomas, loves*.

We now see that the personal pronoun is the same as the noun-substantive. We see also the reason for the distinction of *persons* in nouns, and of *three persons*, and no more. In the forms of speech there can be no more, and there must be these three, since all subjects or persons *spoken of* are of one class, when made the subjects of discourse by one person speaking to a second person.

The distinction of person, then, belongs in form to the *pronoun*, but is referred in grammar to the *noun* also.

There are, then, *three persons* to nouns: the *first, second, and third*.

## EXAMPLES.

*First person* — I love. I read. I, John, write.  
*Second person* — You love. You read. You, James, write.  
*Third person* — He loves. He reads. She, Jane, writes.

## NUMBER.

§ 18. *Nouns* have two numbers: *Singular* number, or *single*, meaning *one*; and *Plural*, or *more than one*. If the precise number is required to be expressed, the numeral adjective is used. As — *Two, three, four, &c.*

The *plural number* is expressed by varying the form of the singular number in different ways.

1. The plural number is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular. As — *Horse, horses*.  
 2. When the singular ends in *x, ch* (soft), *sh, s, ss*, and *z*, and sometimes when in *o* and *y*, the plural is formed by adding *es*. As — *Box, boxes; church, churches; lash, lashes; kiss, kisses*.

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

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

5. Some nouns ending in *f* and *fe*, change *f* into *ves*. As — *Life, lives; loaf, loaves*. But many ending in *f* and *fe* form the plural regularly. As — *Brief, chiefs, dwarfs*.

*fjè, gulf, gricf, kerchief, mischief, hoof, proof, roof, scarf, turf, surf*; and those ending in *ff*, except *staff*.

6. Some plurals are irregularly formed. As—*Man, men; woman, women; child, children; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice; louse, lice; penny, pence, or pennies; brother, brethren, or brothers; die (for gaming), dice; die (for coining), dies.*

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

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

9. Some nouns have no singular form. As—*Bellows, scissors, tongs, ashes, annals, archives, assets, billiards, bowels, calends, clothes, dregs, entrails, politics, alms, pains, wages, goods, hose, hysterics, ides, literati, nippers, nones, orgies, shears, snuffers, victuals.*

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

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

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

13. Nouns adopted from other languages often form their

plurals in those languages. Those ending in *is* change the termination into *es*. As—*Amanuensis, amanuenses; anti-thesis, analysis, axis, basis, borealis, crisis, diæresis, ellipsis, emphasis, hypothesis, metamorphosis, oasis, parenthesis, phasis, thesis, synthesis.*

[Let the pupil give the plurals of all the preceding nouns.]

14. A few change *is* into *ides*. As—*Ephemeris, ephemerides; chrysalis, chrysalides.*

15. The following change *x* into *ces*—*Apex, apices, or apexes; appendix, appendices, or appendixes; calix, calices; calx, calces, or calxes; cicatrix, cicatrices; index, indices, or indexes; radix, radices; vertex, vertices, or vertexes; vortex, vortices.*

16. The following change *a* into *æ* in the plural—*Formula, formulæ; lamina, larva, nebula, scoria.*

[Let the pupil give the plurals.]

17. The following change *us* into *i*—*Alumnus, alumni; calculus, focus, fungus, genius, magus, nautilus, nucleus, obolus, polypus, radius, sarcophagus, stimulus, tumulus.*

[Let the pupil give the plurals.—*Genius* has *genii* or *geniuses*. *Fungus* has *fungi* or *funguses*.]

18. The following change *um* and *on* into *a*—*Addendum, addenda; animalculum, arcanum, automaton, corrigendum, datum, desideratum, effluviium, emporium, erratum, ephemeron, aphelion, perihelion, phenomenon, speculum, stratum.*

[Let the pupil give the plurals.]

19. The following, ending in *um* and *on*, form their plurals either by adding *s* or changing *um* and *on* into *a*—*Criterion, criterions, or criteria; encomium, encomiums, or encomia; gymnasium, medium, memorandum, momentum, scholium.*

[Let the pupil give the plurals.]

20. Some nouns from other languages form the plural variously. Thus—*Bandit, banditti, or bandits; beau, beaux;*

*cantharis, cantharides; cherub, cherubim, or cherubs; dogma, dogmata, or dogmas; ephemeris, ephemerides; formula, formulæ, or formulas; genus, genera; lamina, laminæ; larva, larvæ; miasma, miasmata; monsieur, messieurs; nebula, nebule; seraph, seraphim, or seraphs; stamen, stamina, or stamens; tripos, tripodes; viscus, viscera.*

## GENDER.

§ 19. *Gender*, in English nouns, is designated strictly by distinction of *sex*. Males are termed *Masculine* — females, *Feminine*; and things without distinction of sex are termed *Neuter*.

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

Gender is sometimes applied to inanimate things personified. As — Heaven opens wide *her* ever-during gates.

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

Where a person or class may be mixed, or of either sex, the noun is called the *Common* gender. As — *Parent, neighbor, cattle, birds, &c.*

The gender of nouns is expressed —

1. By the *termination*. As — *Actor, actress; abbot, abbess; administrator, administratrix; ambassador, ambassadress; author, authoress; arbiter, arbitress; governor, governess; giant, giantess; heir, heiress; host, hostess; hunter, huntress; jew, jewess; landgrave, landgravine; lion, lioness; marquis, marchioness; peer, peeress; patron, patroness; poet, poetess; prince, princess; priest, priestess; protector, protectress;*

*prophet, prophetess; shepherd, shepherdess; sultan, sultana; songster, songstress; testator, testatrix; tiger, tigress; tutor, tutoress; tailor, tailoress; viscount, viscountess; widower, widow.*

2. By *different words*. As — *Bachelor, maid; beau, belle; boy, girl; brother, sister; drakē, duck; father, mother; friar or monk, nun; gander, goose; gentleman, lady; husband, wife; hart, roe; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; man, woman; master, mistress; nephew, niece; son, daughter; stag, hind; uncle, aunt.*

3. By *prefixing or affixing other words*. As — *Man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; land-lord, land-lady; gentleman, gentle-woman.*

## CASE.

§ 20. *Case*, in nouns, is simply their condition in relation to other words in the sentence. As —

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

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

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

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

The *nominative* and *objective* cases are alike in form, except in the *pronouns*.

The *possessive* case is regularly formed by adding the *apostrophe*, with the letter *s*, to the *nominative*. As —

*Nom.* — John loves.

*Obj.* — John loves *virtue*.

*Poss.* — John loves *virtue's* ways.

The apostrophic *s* is sometimes omitted in forming the possessive case. As—

1. Where the noun ends in *ss*. As—For goodness' sake.
2. Where the noun ends in letters of similar sounds with those that commence the following noun. As—For conscience' sake.

The English possessive case may be thrown into the objective form, with a preposition. As—*Jupiter's* satellites—the satellites of *Jupiter*.

Nouns are sometimes placed independently of other parts of the sentence. These may be parsed as in the *Nominative Case Independent*. As—

1. When used in *address*. As—*Sirs*, what shall we do? Rule IV.
2. When connected with a *participle*. As—The *sermon* being ended, &c. Rule V.
3. When it means the same thing as another noun to which it stands related in *apposition*. As—*Paul*, the Apostle. Rule III.

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

#### QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

Into how many classes are all words naturally divided? What are these three classes? How many Parts of Speech are there? Name them. How many of these belong to the first class? Name them. How many to the second class? Name them. How many to the third class? Name them. What does the *noun* or name include? Give the definition of the noun-substantive. What words belong to this class because they stand for nouns? Why are they then treated of separately? Why are they placed in order with the adjective? How are nouns modified? What does the *first* person denote? The *second* person? The *third* person? What do we now see in regard to the personal pronoun? What then does the distinction of *person* belong to?

Ans.—To *pronouns* and to *nouns*. How many *numbers* have nouns? How is the *plural* number of nouns formed? How *commonly*? [Review the pupil in the 20 different ways of forming the plural. Give him the *singular* in each, and require of him the *plural*, till he is familiar with them all.] What is *gender*, as applied to nouns? How many genders? Name them. How applied? How to the young of animals? How sometimes to inanimate things? To what class of inanimate things? When is the term *common* gender applied? By what three different forms of words is *gender* expressed [Let the teacher give the masculine name in each class, and require the corresponding feminine name, till all are familiar to the pupil. What is *case*, as applied to nouns? How many cases? Name them. Define the nominative. Objective. Possessive. Which two of these are usually alike in form, except the pronouns? How is the *possessive* formed? When is the apostrophic *s* omitted? In what constructions are nouns sometimes placed independently of the other parts of a sentence? Name the first, second, third, with the rules for each. What may the *subject* of a verb be? Is this the true nominative?

#### ADJECTIVE.

§ 21. DEFINITION.—The *Adjective* is that part of the *noun* which qualifies the simple *name*, or helps to describe it, and it is therefore called the *Adjective-noun*. As—*A good name* excels riches. Here '*a good name*' is the *subject* or *nominative* to the verb; and *no part of it* can be taken away without impairing the *subject*. It is not '*name*' which constitutes the *nominative*, but '*a good name*.' Hence our definition of the *adjective*: that it is a part of the *noun*, which *qualifies* the simple *name*. Hence, too, our definition of the *article*:—

§ 22. DEFINITION.—The *Article* is that form of the *adjective* which is used to designate some particular person, place, or thing. As—*A good man*, *the good man*.

*The* is called the *Definite* article, because it *defines* or points out some particular person or thing. As—*The man whom we met*.

*A* is called the *Indefinite* article, because it is not used to *define* any particular person or thing. As—*A* man is to be estimated by his usefulness—i. e., *any* man.

*An* is used before words beginning with a vowel-sound. As—*An* acorn. Also, before *h* silent. As—*An* hour. Also, before *h* when the accent falls on any syllable except the first. As—*An* historian. The *n* is dropped before words beginning with a consonant-sound. As—*A* man, *a* horse.

This omission of *n* in the one case, and retaining it in the other, is for euphony, or for ease of expression.

*A*, from its derivation and meaning, can be applied to nouns in the *singular* number only. *The* is used with either the *singular* or the *plural*. As—*A* man; *the* man or *the* men.

Adjectives agree in number with the nouns they qualify. This applies only to numeral adjectives, or adjectives which imply number. As—*One* man, *two* men, &c.

Those forms of the pronouns which are used in the sense of adjectives must agree with their nouns in *gender*. As—*His* book, *her* book.

The principal modification of adjectives is, to express

#### DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

§ 23. *Qualities* are of different degrees, and the adjective is varied in form to express those different degrees. There are *three* degrees regularly formed, Thus—

1. The *Positive*, which expresses the simple quality. As—*Great*.

2. The *Comparative*, which increases the positive, and is formed by adding *er*. As—*Greater*.

3. The *Superlative*, which still increases the comparative, and expresses the highest degree—formed by adding *est*. As—*Greatest*. Thus—

<i>Great,</i>	<i>greater,</i>	<i>greatest.</i>
<i>Small,</i>	<i>smaller,</i>	<i>smallest.</i>
<i>Happy,</i>	<i>happier,</i>	<i>happiest.</i>

When the word ends in *e*, the *e* is omitted. As—

*Wide,*                      *wider,*                      *widest.*

*Worth* is thus compared—

*Worth,* or *worthy,*    *worthier,*            *worthiest.*

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

As—

<i>Skilful,</i>	{ <i>more skilful,</i>	<i>most skilful.</i>
	{ <i>less skilful,</i>	<i>least skilful,</i>

Some adjectives admit of *different forms* of comparison.

As—

<i>Remote,</i>	{ <i>remoter,</i>	<i>remotest.</i>
	{ <i>more remote,</i>	<i>most remote.</i>
<i>Tender,</i>	{ <i>tenderer,</i>	<i>tenderest.</i>
	{ <i>more tender,</i>	<i>most tender.</i>

Some adjectives are *irregularly* compared. As—

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

Some adjectives have *no positive*. As—

<i>Nether,</i>	<i>nethermost.</i>
<i>Upper,</i>	<i>uppermost.</i>
<i>Inner,</i>	<i>innermost, or inmost.</i>

Some adjectives have *no comparative*. As—

<i>Hind,</i>	<i>hindmost, or hindermost.</i>
<i>Top,</i>	<i>topmost.</i>

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

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

*Perfect, more perfect, most perfect.*

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

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

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

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

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

Some adjectives lessen the positive, without a strict comparison. As — *Whitish, yellowish, greenish.*

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

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

parison is *inclusive of all the class*, the *superlative* must be used. As — Socrates was the *wisest* of the Athenians.

*Lesser* is admitted as the comparative, equivalent to *less*.

As — The *Lesser* Asia; the *lesser* co-efficient.

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

#### QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

Define the adjective. Why is it called the adjective-noun? Ans. — Because it is a part of the *subject*. Define the article. Why is the article classed with the adjective? Name the two articles. Why is *the* called the definite article? Why *a* the indefinite? From what is *a* or *an* derived? When is *a* used? When *an*? Why this difference? In what respects do adjectives agree with nouns? Ans. — In number and gender. What is the principal modification of adjectives? How many degrees of comparison? What is expressed by these modifications? What is the positive? Comparative? Superlative? How is the comparative formed? How the superlative? Compare *worth*. Compare *skilful* by increasing the quality — by decreasing the quality. Compare *remote* by the adverbs *more* and *most* — by the regular form. Compare *good*. Is this comparison regular? What other adjectives are irregularly compared? What adjectives have no *positive*? What no *comparative*? Are there any adjectives which do not admit degrees of comparison? Name them. Is *perfect* used in degrees of comparison? Compare it. What other words are used to express shades of degree? What is said of the suffix *ish*? What is said of double superlatives and double comparatives? What is said of using adverbs to modify adjectives? Do some adjectives not admit degrees of comparison? Why? Do these admit qualifying adverbs? Are some adjectives used in the superlative sense only? What is said of *extremest*? When two things only are compared, what is the form of comparison? When more than two things are compared, what is the form of comparison? May the superlative ever be used in the comparison of two things only? What conjunction follows *other*? What *such*? Is *lesser* ever used as the comparative? When a comparison is made of *one* with all others of a class, which degree is used? When *inclusive* of all the class, what degree is used? Give examples.

#### PRONOUN.

§ 24. DEFINITION. — The *Pronoun* is a form of the *substantive-noun*, and is used to avoid the frequent repetition

of the noun in discourse. *Pro* means *for*; and *pronoun* signifies a word used for a noun.

*Pronouns* are either *Personal*, *Relative*, or *Adjective*.

They are *Personal* when they are used to designate *persons*. They are *Relative* when they relate to persons or things preceding, called *antecedents*, and which they represent in their own clause of the sentence. They are *Interrogative* when employed in asking questions. They are *Adjective* when the pronoun takes the form of an adjective, and performs the office of an adjective to a noun.

The *Personal Pronoun*, as it designates a *subject of discourse*, and the *Relative*, as it represents the *antecedent*, and also the *Interrogative*, belong to the class of *substantive-nouns*; and the *Adjective Pronouns* belong to the *adjective*, as they define or qualify the noun like the pure *adjective*.

The *Interrogative* is also *adjective* when used in a sense to *qualify* or *define* a noun. As — *Who* is that *man*? He is an officer. Here, *officer*, or *man*, means the same as *who*.

*What* office does he exercise? A military office. Here, *what* is an adjective-pronoun.

## PERSONAL PRONOUN.

§ 25. The *Personal Pronouns* are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*. — *I*, *the myself*; *thou*, *the yourself*; *he*, *she*, *it* — i. e., *Thomas*, *Mary*, *house*, or any thing spoken of.

The distinction of *Person* applies to the *speaker*, to the *hearer*, and to the *person* or *thing* spoken of.

The distinction is termed *person*, because the speaker must be an intelligent being, and the address must be to an *intelligent being* or a *thing personified*. But the *subject* or *thing* spoken of may be either an intelligent being or a *thing without life*. In this relation of discourse, whatever are *spoken of*, whether *persons* or *things*, are classed in the *third person*.

Pronouns, like nouns, have also two distinctions of *Number*, three distinctions of *Gender*, and three distinctions of *Case*.

The variations in form of the pronoun in *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*, may be seen in the following

## DECLENSION.

## FIRST PERSON.

Singular Number	Plural Number.
Nominative Case — <i>I</i> ,	<i>We</i> ,
Possessive Case — <i>My</i> , or <i>mine</i> ,	<i>Our</i> , or <i>ours</i> ,
Objective Case — <i>Me</i> .	<i>Us</i> .

## SECOND PERSON.

Nom. — <i>Thou</i> ,	<i>Ye</i> , or <i>you</i> ,
Poss. — <i>Thy</i> , or <i>thine</i> ,	<i>Your</i> , or <i>yours</i> ,
Obj. — <i>Thee</i> .	<i>You</i> .

## THIRD PERSON.

Masculine.		Feminine.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nom. — <i>He</i> ,	<i>They</i> ,	<i>She</i> ,	<i>They</i> ,
Poss. — <i>His</i> ,	<i>Their</i> , or <i>theirs</i> ,	<i>Her</i> , or <i>hers</i> ,	<i>Their</i> , or <i>theirs</i> ,
Obj. — <i>Him</i> ,	<i>Them</i> .	<i>Her</i> ,	<i>Them</i> .

Neuter.	
Singular.	Plural.
Nom. — <i>It</i> ,	<i>They</i> ,
Poss. — <i>Its</i> ,	<i>Their</i> , or <i>theirs</i> ,
Obj. — <i>It</i> .	<i>Them</i>

The possessive forms *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are used in the *place of nouns*, and by their peculiar forms imply nouns. As — This book is *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs* — that is, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, book: or, *mine*, a contraction for *my own*, *my ownership* or *property*.

In this construction, *mine* stands in the place of *my book*, and possesses the character of that for which it is substituted. It is a *noun*. Many grammarians prefer to regard it as substituted for *my*, and then it agrees with *book* understood. In either case it is a substitute for some other word, and either interpretation is admissible. The sense is the same.

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

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

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

#### QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

What is the *pronoun*? Is it ever *substantive*? What are the four divisions of pronouns? When are they *personal*? When *relative*? When *interrogative*? When *adjective*? When is the personal pronoun a *substantive*? Why is the relative pronoun a *substantive*? When are pronouns called *adjectives*? When is the interrogative pronoun a *substantive*, and when an *adjective*? Give examples. Name the *personal* pronouns. To what are the different persons applied? Why is the term *person* used? Is the term *person* applied to things as well as to intelligent beings? How many and what *genders* are applied to pronouns? Numbers? Case? Decline the *first* person of the pronoun. The *second*. The *third*. Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. Define the use of *mine*, *thine*, &c. May it be used as a substitute for a noun? May it also be construed as an adjective? Which construction do you prefer? Are both admissible? How is *you* now generally used? *Your*? *Mine* and *thine*? What is said of the compounds *himself*, *herself*, &c.? When is *self* a noun?

#### RELATIVE PRONOUN.

§ 26. *Relative Pronouns* are so called, because they relate to some *noun* or *subject* going before, called the *antecedent*.

The relative also *connects* the antecedent sentence with the relative sentence. As — We are grateful to *those who* serve us.

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

*Who* refers to *persons*. As — This is the *man who* served me.

*Which* refers to *things* and *animals*. As — These are the *horses and carriage which* I used.

*That* refers to *persons*, *things*, and *animals*, and is used for *who* or *which*. As — They are the *horses, carriage, and coachman, that* my friend sent me.

#### DECLENSION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

	Sing. and Plu.	Sing. and Plu.	Sing. and Plu.
Nom. —	<i>Who,</i>	<i>Which,</i>	<i>That,</i>
Poss. —	<i>Whose,</i>	<i>Whose,</i>	<i>Whose,</i>
Obj. —	<i>Whom,</i>	<i>Which,</i>	<i>That.</i>

#### COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUN.

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

The compound relative pronouns *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, are often used and parsed like *what*. As —

*Whoever* sins, must suffer: i. e., *he who* sins, must suffer.

*Whatever* is, is right.

*Whichever* outweighs, outvalues.

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

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

## ADJECTIVE PRONOUN.

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

1. DISTRIBUTIVE. — *Each, every, either, neither.*
2. DEMONSTRATIVE. — *This, that, the former, the latter, these, those.*
3. POSSESSIVE. — *His, her, its, thy, my, our, your, their, own.*
4. INDEFINITE. — *One, other, much, more, most, some, any, all, such, both, several, none, another.*

*Few, many, several, no, whole, whatever, whatsoever, whosesoever, whichsoever, whichever*, when attached to a noun, are *Indefinite Adjective Pronouns*. As —

Sin, of *whatever* name, will be punished.

*Whosoever* sins ye remit, they are remitted.

*Whichever* sin he practises, conscience condemns him.

In no case *whatever* is sin excusable.

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

	Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	— <i>Other,</i>	<i>Others,</i>
Poss.	— <i>Other's,</i>	<i>Others'.</i>
Obj.	— <i>Other,</i>	<i>Others,</i>

The indefinite pronoun *one* is declined, in the singular, thus:—

Singular.

Nom. — *One,*  
Poss. — *One's,*  
Obj. — *One.*

*Own* is not used as a possessive pronoun, except in combination with other possessives. As — The *boy's own* book. This book is *my own*: i. e., *my own* book.

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

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

Why are relative pronouns so called? What sentences does the relative connect? Name the relative pronouns. What does *who* refer to? *Which? That?* Decline each of these relatives. Do they vary in form to express the plural? Which of these is used as a *compound relative*? Why? Give an example. What forms of compound pronouns are used like *what*? Give examples. What is said of *whoso*? *Which* and *what* are sometimes used in another sense — in what sense? What are *adjective pronouns*? Name the four divisions. Specify the *distributives*. The *demonstratives*. The *possessives*. The *indefinite*. Other *indefinite* pronouns. Decline *other* as a noun. Decline *one*. What is said of *own*? Of *none*?

## PARSING EXERCISES.

[Let the pupil designate the parts of speech in these exercises, the modifications, and the grammatical relations of the words.]

Man, a man, one man, the man, the men, two men, three men, four men, first man, second man, third man. Good man, a good man, the good man, the good men, one good man, the good men, two good men. A great man, a greater man, the greatest man. A wide street, a wider street, the widest street. A worthy man, a worthier man, the worthiest man. A skilful man, a more skilful man, the most skilful man, a less skilful man, the least skilful man. A remote

country, a remoter country, the remotest country, a more remote country, the most remote country. A good man, a better man, the best man. The nether spring, the nethermost spring. The hind team, the hindmost team, the hindermost team. A round figure, a square box. A perfect man, a more perfect description, a most perfect example. A rather small size, somewhat inferior size; a slightly deformed feature, not much, a little so, the eye too large, very dull, greatly inflamed, highly wakeful, exceedingly restless; a white cloud, a whitish cloud, a black dress, a blackish dress. The very least of the apostles, the very best man. A perpendicular column, exactly perpendicular, with a cap exactly horizontal. The extreme north, the extremest north. A chief, the chiefest, the very chiefest apostle. A mixture of minerals, whitish, yellowish, and greenish. John is wiser than James, he is the wisest of the two, he is the wisest of all. The Lesser Asia, a lesser co-efficient. Each man, every man, either man, neither man. This country, that country, these nations, those nations. His father, her father. My brother, your brother. One man, other men, the other man, several men, a few men. Whosoever faults. Whichever sin. Whatever sin. My own book.

## THE VERB.

§ 29. In the Parsing Lessons which follow, the learner should now practise the application of the *Rules of Syntax*. These, in their general application, are very simple. They apply — 1. To the relations of the *noun*; 2. To the relations of the *verb*; 3. To the relations and uses of the *particles*.

The *Noun-substantive* has *six* specific Rules, as the nominative or naming case, to define the *six* different forms of syntax in which it is construed; and *six* other specific Rules, to define its construction in sentences, as the *object* of an action or relation. It has *one* Rule only for its relation of *possession*. The *Pronoun* is included in the substantive-noun, and subject to the same Rules. The *Adjective*, whether participial or pronominal, has but *one* Rule, which defines its relation to the noun.

The *Verb* has *two* Rules only: one for the relation of agreement of the finite verb with its nominative, and the other for the government of the infinitive.

The *four Particles* have each a Rule, to define their relations and uses.

Thus *twenty* Rules suffice: *fourteen* for the *Noun*; *two* for the *Verb*; and *one* each for the *four Particles*. These are readily learned, and easily applied.

§ 30. DEFINITION. — The *Verb* is a word which affirms or asserts something of a noun or subject, which is called the nominative. As — *I love, thou lovest, he loves.*

The *verb*, as soon as it is spoken, carries an idea from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer.

This fact has led some to trace the derivation of the term *verb* to a word in the Latin which signifies *to bear*. It bears

or carries the thoughts of one mind to another mind, because it asserts something.

See how it does this. I point you to a star. Our attention is directed to the same object, but our thoughts about it may be very different. I wish to communicate my thoughts to you. How? Why, by some word that may carry the thought that is in my mind into your mind. Keep your attention fixed on the star. — I say, "The star *shines*." Now, my thought is carried by that word *shines* into your mind. But I say, again, "The star *twinkles*." Now, another thought passes from my mind to yours. I say, again,

"The star <i>moves</i> ."	The star <i>revolves</i> .
The star <i>rises</i> ."	The star <i>increases</i> .
The star <i>sets</i> ."	The star <i>wanes</i> ."

In each of these sentences, a new assertion is made, by a different verb, and a new idea is carried from my mind to your mind.

The *verb*, then, is the *great word* for the communication of thought from mind to mind.

With the names of things, or of subjects, we communicate what we think of those things by the *verb*. The verb, then, is the great word, the most important word.

So, the verb is the most difficult word to understand, because numerous variations are required to express every variety of thought, in every possible variety of form, of manner, and of time.

The verb must be studied thoroughly. A few examples only are here given, in which the learner is only required to designate the verb and the noun.

## EXAMPLES.

A bright star <i>shines</i> .	A profound depth <i>sinks</i> .
A twinkling planet <i>shines</i> .	A long distance <i>stretches</i> .
An eccentric comet <i>revolves</i> .	Time <i>flies</i> .

The stellar heavens <i>glow</i> .	I <i>love</i> . Thou <i>lovest</i> . He <i>loves</i> .
The infinite space <i>exists</i> .	We <i>love</i> . Ye or you <i>love</i> . They
A great height <i>rises</i> .	<i>love</i> .

Which is the verb in each of these sentences? Why?

Is the nominative, or subject, a *noun* or a *pronoun*?

What is the *noun* for which *I* is used? Ans. — My own name: "I, *John*, love."

What is the *noun* for which *thou* is used? Ans. — Your name: James. As, "Thou, *James*, lovest."

What is the *noun* for which *he* is used? Ans. — Thomas. As, "He, *Thomas*, loves."

The *First Person*, then, represents *the speaker*.

The *Second Person* represents *the hearer* or *reader*.

The *Third Person* represents *the person* or *thing spoken of*.

The same is true of the plural — *we*, *ye* or *you*, *they*.

The *verb*, as it asserts something, refers to the *Manner* and *Time* — called, in grammar, *Mode* and *Tense*.

In this example it simply *asserts* or *declares*, or *indicates*, and this is called the *Indicative Mode*: "I love."

It asserts this in the *present time*, and therefore it is called the *Present Tense*.

Now, *parse* this simple sentence, *I love*. — *I* is a *pronoun*, because it is used instead of a noun; *personal*, referring to a person; *first person*, because it represents the speaker; *singular number*, because it means but one; *nominative case*, because it names the subject of discourse or of assertion; *nominative* to the verb *love*, which *asserts* something of it.

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

Now parse *love*.

*Love* is a *verb*, because it *asserts* something of a noun nominative; *indicative mode*, because it simply asserts or

indicates; *present tense*, because it asserts in the *present time*; and it belongs to its nominative pronoun *I*, and agrees with it in number and person.

RULE XV. — The verb is made to agree with its subject or nominative case in number and person.

Number and person belong to the verb simply in reference to its nominative case.

*I love* is a *simple sentence*, because it contains an assertion, in a subject or a *nominative*, and a *verb*. It expresses a *simple idea*.

§ 31. The INDICATIVE MODE, *present tense*, of the verb *love*, is thus conjugated:—

Singular.	Plural.
1st Person — <i>I love,</i>	<i>We love,</i>
2d Person — <i>Thou lovest,</i>	<i>Ye or you love.</i>
3d Person — <i>He loves,</i>	<i>They love.</i>

Parse *Thou lovest*. — *Thou* is a pronoun, because it stands for a noun or name; *personal* pronoun, because it refers to a person; *singular* number, because it means but one; *nominative* case, because it names the subject; *nominative* to the verb *lovest*, which asserts something of it. (Rule I.)

*Lovest* is a verb, because it asserts something of its nominative case, and agrees with it accordingly in number and person. (Rule XV.)

In like manner, parse *He loves*; and, in the plural, *We love, ye love, you love, they love*.

§ 32. We sometimes assert a thing as having taken place in *past time*, or *Past Tense*. As — *I loved*. This is past, but *indefinite* as to the precise time past, and has therefore been called *Imperfect*, or *Past Indefinite*.

## IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers. — <i>I loved,</i>	<i>We loved,</i>
2d Pers. — <i>Thou lovedst,</i>	<i>Ye or you loved,</i>
3d Pers. — <i>He loved,</i>	<i>They loved.</i>

Parse these as the others, except that they are in the *imperfect past time*, instead of the *present time*.

§ 33. We sometimes also assert a thing as now completed, but done in past time. This is called the *Perfect Tense*, or *Past Definite*. As — *I have loved*.

*Have* expresses present time, and *loved* past time; and therefore *have loved* signifies *past time completed*, or *Perfect*. It is sometimes called *Past Definite*, as the *Imperfect* is called *Past Indefinite*.

*Do, be, have, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, shall, and will*, are often used in combination with the principal verbs, to aid in their conjugation or in their variations to express the different modes and tenses. They perform a more important office than that of mere signs of time or manner of action. They modify the sense. They are called *Auxiliary Verbs*.

*Do, be, have, and will*, are also used as *principal verbs*, employing for this purpose their appropriate *auxiliaries*.

## PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers. — <i>I have loved,</i>	<i>We have loved,</i>
2d Pers. — <i>Thou hast loved,</i>	<i>Ye or you have loved.</i>
3d Pers. — <i>He has loved,</i>	<i>They have loved.</i>

Parse these simple sentences as the former, except that they are in the *Perfect Tense*.

What then is the true difference between the *Imperfect Tense* and the *Perfect Tense*?

Answer. — The *imperfect tense* is indefinite as to the precise time of the past action. The *perfect tense* represents the past action as *now completed*.

*I loved* defines no precise time: *I was loving*. *I have loved* refers, in time, to the *present*, and defines the action as past and now completed.

The *imperfect tense*, then, may be expressed in another form. Thus —

<i>I was loving,</i>	<i>We were loving,</i>
<i>Thou wast loving,</i>	<i>Ye or you were loving,</i>
<i>He was loving,</i>	<i>They were loving.</i>

This form of the *imperfect tense* must be parsed precisely like the other.

§ 34. There is also a third form of *past time*. As — *I had loved*. This refers to something which had been completed before another definite time. As — *I had loved* at or before the time you mention. It has therefore been called *Plu-perfect*, or more than the simple perfect. Thus —

## PLUPERFECT TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers. —	<i>I had loved,</i>	<i>We had loved,</i>
2d Pers. —	<i>Thou hadst loved,</i>	<i>Ye or you had loved,</i>
3d Pers. —	<i>He had loved,</i>	<i>They had loved.</i>

There are, in grammar, then, three distinctions of *past time*, called the *Imperfect*, the *Perfect*, and the *Pluperfect*.

§ 35. How is the assertion made in *Future Time*?

Answer. —

## FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Pers. —	<i>I shall love,</i>	<i>We shall love,</i>
2d Pers. —	<i>Thou shalt love,</i>	<i>Ye or you shall love,</i>
3d Pers. —	<i>He shall love,</i>	<i>They shall love.</i>

*Shall* was originally a principal verb, but it is now used only as an auxiliary, to indicate the future tense of some principal verb.

*Will*, also, still used as a principal verb, is combined with other principal verbs, to express future time. As —

<i>I shall or will love,</i>	<i>We shall or will love,</i>
<i>Thou shalt or wilt love,</i>	<i>Ye or you shall or will love,</i>
<i>He shall or will love,</i>	<i>They shall or will love.</i>

Parse these simple sentences as before, except that they belong to the *Future Tense*.

When we assert something that will be done previous to another future time designated, we use the following form: —

## FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	Plural.
<i>I shall or will have loved,</i>	<i>We shall or will have loved,</i>	
<i>Thou shalt or wilt have loved,</i>	<i>Ye or you shall or will have loved,</i>	
<i>He shall or will have loved,</i>	<i>They shall or will have loved.</i>	

EXAMPLE. — I shall have lived long enough on the day of my death.

The first form is called the *First Future Tense*. The second form is called the *Second Future Tense*.

Parse the forms in each, and state the difference.

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

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

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

EXAMPLE. — The man overboard cried out, "I *will* drown, nobody *shall* help me." He intended, "I *shall* drown; nobody *will* help me."

This simple distinction may lead the young learner to a correct use of *shall* and *will* in almost all varieties of construction.

There are, then, *three* natural divisions of time: *Present*, *Past*, and *Future*. But there are *three* divisions of *past time*, and *two* divisions of *future time*. Present time can not be subdivided; for, if we speak of any time not absolutely *present*, it must be either *past* or *future*. If *past* or *future*, it must be expressed in some one of the forms already given, and must belong to some one of the divisions here described.

§ 36. There is another *manner* or *mode* of asserting something of the *noun* which implies the *power* to do. This is called the *Potential Mode*. As — *I can love*. *Potential* means *having the power*.

The *Potential Mode* of the verb always employs another word to *aid* the principal verb. These auxiliaries are *can* and *could*, which express power to do; *may* and *might*, which express liberty to do; *must* and *should*, which express necessity or obligation to do; and *would*, which expresses will or willingness. All these forms are used under the name of the

## POTENTIAL MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

## Singular.

*I may, can, or must love,*  
*Thou mayst, canst, or must love,*  
*He may, can, or must love.*

## Plural.

*We may, can, or must love,*  
*Ye or you may, can, or must love.*  
*They may, can, or must love.*

Parse — *I may love. I can love. I must love. Thou mayst love. Thou canst love. Thou must love. We may love. We can love. We must love. You may love. You can love. You must love. They may love. They can love. They must love.*

## IMPERFECT TENSE.

## Singular.

*I might, could, would, or should love.*  
*Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst love.*  
*He might, could, would, or should love.*

## Plural.

*We might, could, would, or should love.*  
*Ye or you might, could, would, or should love.*  
*They might, could, would, or should love.*

Parse — *I might love. I could love. I would love. I should love. Thou mightst love. Thou couldst love. Thou wouldst love. Thou shouldst love. He might love. He could love. He would love. He should love. We might love. We could love. We would love. We should love. You might love. You could love. You would love. You should love. They might love. They could love. They would love. They should love.*

## PERFECT TENSE.

## Singular.

*I may, can or must have loved.*  
*Thou mayst, canst or must have loved.*  
*He may, can, or must have loved.*

## Plural.

*We may, can or must have loved.*  
*Ye or you may, can or must have loved.*  
*They may, can or must have loved.*

Parse — I may have loved. I can have loved. I must have loved. Thou mayst have loved. Thou canst have loved. Thou must have loved. He may have loved. He can have loved. He must have loved. We may have loved. We can have loved. We must have loved. You may have loved. You can have loved. You must have loved. They may have loved. They can have loved. They must have loved.

## PLUPERFECT TENSE.

## Singular.

*I might, could, would, or should have loved.*  
*Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have loved.*  
*He might, could, would, or should have loved.*

## Plural.

*We might, could, would, or should have loved.*  
*Ye or you might, could, would, or should have loved.*  
*They might, could, would, or should have loved.*

Parse — I might have loved. I could have loved. I would have loved. I should have loved. Thou mightst have loved. Thou couldst have loved. Thou wouldst have loved. Thou shouldst have loved. He might have loved. He could have loved. He would have loved. He should have loved. We might have loved. We could have loved. We would have loved. We should have loved. You might have loved. You could have loved. You would have loved. You should have loved. They might have loved. They could have loved. They would have loved. They should have loved.

The *Potential Mode* has no form of *Future Tense*.

§ 37. There is another mode or manner of asserting, which always has a conditional form of expression, and hence may most properly be called the *Conditional Mode*. But as it is used only *subjoined* to another verb, requiring

another simple sentence to complete the sense, it has received the name of the *Subjunctive Mode*. The condition is indicated by some particle, such as *if, lest, &c.*

As — *If I love?* What then? “If I love my neighbor, I fulfil a divine command.” Every *subjunctive Mode* of expression requires, as in this example, some other sentence to be *subjoined*.

[Let the pupil conjugate and parse the verb and pronoun, and conjunction, in the following paradigm of the subjunctive mode.]

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE,

Formed by adding a *conditional particle* to the *indicative mode* through all the modes and tenses.

## PRESENT TENSE.

## Singular.

## Plural.

- |                             |                           |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. — <i>If I love.</i>      | <i>If we love.</i>        |
| 2. — <i>If thou lovest.</i> | <i>If ye or you love.</i> |
| 3. — <i>If he loves.</i>    | <i>If they love.</i>      |

## IMPERFECT TENSE.

## Singular.

## Plural.

- |                              |                            |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. — <i>If I loved.</i>      | <i>If we loved.</i>        |
| 2. — <i>If thou lovedst.</i> | <i>If ye or you loved.</i> |
| 3. — <i>If he loved.</i>     | <i>If they loved.</i>      |

## PERFECT TENSE.

## Singular.

## Plural.

- |                                 |                                 |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. — <i>If I have loved.</i>    | <i>If we have loved.</i>        |
| 2. — <i>If thou hast loved.</i> | <i>If ye or you have loved.</i> |
| 3. — <i>If he has loved.</i>    | <i>If they have loved.</i>      |

## PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. — <i>If I had loved.</i>	<i>If we had loved.</i>
2. — <i>If thou hadst loved.</i>	<i>If ye or you had loved.</i>
3. — <i>If he had loved.</i>	<i>If they had loved.</i>

## FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. — <i>If I shall or will love.</i>	<i>If we shall or will love.</i>
2. — <i>If thou shalt or will love.</i>	<i>If ye or you shall or will love.</i>
3. — <i>If he shall or will love.</i>	<i>If they shall or will love.</i>

## SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
1. — <i>If I shall or will have loved.</i>	<i>If we shall or will have loved.</i>
2. — <i>If thou shalt or wilt have loved.</i>	<i>If ye or you shall or will have loved.</i>
3. — <i>If he shall or will have loved.</i>	<i>If they shall or will have loved.</i>

§ 38. The *Imperative Mode* takes its name from its form of *commanding*. As — *Love, or love thou.* “Love your neighbor.” This is the primary and leading use of this form, and hence its name. But it is used also for *entreating*. As — “Give us this day our daily bread.” For *permitting*. As — “Eat at my table.” For *exhorting*. As — “Turn from your evil ways.”

These modes of expression, called *Imperative*, can be formed only in the *present time*.

The particle *to* is always used as an auxiliary to the verb in the *infinitive mode*. As — *To love.*

It is called the *substantive-verb*, because it always implies *existence or being*, and has a substantive sense. It may be

parsed as a substantive or noun, and the noun may be substituted for it in form.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

Sing. — *Love. Love thou. Do thou love.*

Plu. — *Love ye, or love you. Do ye or you love.*

§ 39. When the *mode of expression* is *indefinite*, without a subject or nominative case, it is called *Infinitive*, in the sense of *indefinite*. As — *To love.* We ought *to love* our neighbor.

This mode of expression may be made either in the *Present Tense* or in the *Perfect Tense*.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

*To love.*

## PERFECT TENSE.

*To have loved.*

§ 40. There is another form, which is called the *Participle*. This is not strictly a verb. It asserts nothing, but is formed from the verb, and is used in various combinations with the verb, and has a relation to time either present or time past. It derives its name from its *participating* the nature of both the verb and the adjective. When it involves the idea of time, it belongs in construction to the verb. As — *Loving*, we confide. *Loved* and *respected*, he died *lamented*. When it expresses a quality of a noun, it is used as an adjective. As — A *loving* child. Our *loved* ones.

There are *three* forms of the *Participle*, viz. : —

## PARTICIPLES.

## PRESENT.

*Loving.*

## PERFECT.

*Loved.*

## COMPOUND PERFECT.

*Having Loved.*

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

To what three relations of words do the Rules of Syntax apply? How many Rules apply to the relations of the noun-substantive as the *nominative*? Ans.—Six, from I. to VI. inclusive. How many to the *objective*? Ans.—Six, from VII. to XII. How many to the *possessive*? Ans.—One, XIII. How many to the *adjective*? Ans.—One, XIV. How many to the *verb*? Ans.—Two, XV. and XVI. How many to the *particles*? Ans.—One each, XVII. to XX. How many Rules, then, are there? Define the verb. What does the verb do? Why is the derivation of its name traced to the Latin verb *fero*? Ans.—Because it is employed to *bear* or *carry* thoughts from the mind of the speaker to the mind of the hearer. Give an illustration of this. Why is the verb regarded as the most important word? Is it difficult to understand in its various uses? Why? Must it be thoroughly studied? For what are the two principal modifications of verbs? Ans.—To express *manner* and *time*, or *mode* and *tense*. What is the Rule I., which expresses the relations of the nominative to the verb? What is the Rule XV., which is the counterpart of this, showing the relation of the verb to its nominative? How does the distinction of *person* and *number* belong to the verb? Conjugate the verb *love*, *indicative mode, present tense*. When do we use the *imperfect tense*? Define it. What other name describes it? Conjugate it. Does the *perfect tense* use an *auxiliary* verb? What are the auxiliary verbs? Name them. Why so called? Do they modify the sense as well as the time? What auxiliary verb does the *perfect tense* employ? Define the *perfect tense*. Conjugate the verb in the *perfect tense*. What is the precise difference between the *imperfect* and the *perfect tense*? What is a second form of the *imperfect tense*? Define the *pluperfect tense*. Conjugate it. How many distinctions of past time are made then? Conjugate the simple future tense. What are the auxiliaries here used? Was *shall* ever a principal verb? Is *will* now used as a principal verb as well as an auxiliary? Define the second future tense. What is the general sense of *shall* and *will*? Do they express more than the definition of *time*? What does *shall* express? *Will*? Give the example in illustration. Will you remember this distinction? Recapitulate the general divisions and the subdivisions of time. What is the *potential mode*? What are its *auxiliaries*? Conjugate the present tense. The imperfect. The perfect. The pluperfect. Does the *potential mode* employ the future tenses? Define the *subjunctive mode*. Why called *subjunctive*? Is it *conditional*? Does the *subjunctive verb* always require the use of another verb or simple sentence to complete the sense? Conjugate the *imperative mode, present tense*. Has this mode more than one tense? Is the *nominative* commonly expressed? Define the *infinitive mode*. How many tenses does it employ. Conjugate the present tense. The perfect. Define the *participle*. What does its name imply? How is the *participle* distinguished from the *adjective*? When is it used as an *adjective*? Conjugate it.

## PARSING EXERCISES,

Employing the *nominative-noun*, and the *verb* through all its *modes* and *tenses*.

The *indicative* employs all the tenses.

The *indicative* is the most simple, complete, and definite of all the modes in its use of the tenses.

I study, we study, you study, they study.

I studied, we studied, you studied, they studied.

I have studied, we have studied, you have studied, they have studied.

I had studied, we had studied, you had studied, they had studied.

I shall study, he shall study, we shall study, you shall study, they shall study.

I shall have studied, we shall have studied.

You shall have studied your lesson before dinner.

John studies, James has studied, the boys have recited.

The class will have recited before the school closes.

I shall have finished my duties when the class recites.

He shall have recited his lesson in time or lose his credit.

I shall go. I will go. Will you go? You shall go. He will go. He shall go. We will go. We shall go. They will go. They shall go.

The *potential* employs the *present* and *past tenses* only.

*Pres.* — I can walk, he can walk, they can walk.

*Imp.* — I fell from my horse, and could not walk.

*Perf.* — Can he have done this thing?

He may have done it.

*Pluperf.* — He might have walked.

He could have walked.

The *imperfect* of the *potential*, as a past tense, is less distinctly marked than the other tenses.

*Could, should, and would*, were originally principal verbs, expressing the past tenses of *can, shall, and will*. They still retain their original meaning, and impart it to the verbs to which they are applied: viz. — I can, *am able*: I could, *was able*: I should, *was obliged*; I would, *was willing*. But, in our use of these verbs as auxiliaries, the *imperfect tense* is less distinctly marked, and they are generally made definite in time by the use of qualifying adverbs.

We retain, however, the *imperfect tense*, or indefinite time past, in this form, because it is still capable of being used, and is used. As in the examples —

He was sick, and could not rise.  
I was engaged, and could not go.  
He was unwilling, and would not go.  
Isaac was blind, and could not see.  
He was able, but would not go.  
John was lame, and could not go.

The *subjunctive* employs all the *six tenses*. It is formed by adding a conditional particle, and this makes it necessary to subjoin another clause *indicative*, to complete the sense. As —

If we talk, the teacher will reprove us. If you run, you may fall. If they return, I will see them. If he lives, he will excel. If he has gone, I must go. If he had commanded, I should have obeyed. If you will go, I will follow. If they shall return, you must see them.

If we talk, if you talk, if they talk.  
If we talked, if she talked, if you talked.  
If I have talked, if we have talked, if they have talked.  
If he had lived, if she had lived, if it had lived.  
If I shall rule, if you shall rule, if they shall rule.  
If we shall have followed, if they shall have followed.

The *imperative*, as it is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting, is used only in the *present tense*.

## IMPERATIVE.

Obey thou. Repent ye. Cease from evil. Do good. Love mercy. Deal justly. Walk humbly. Go in peace. Enter into rest. Follow after righteousness. Flee temptation. Seek the Lord. Forgive our sins. Hear us.

The *infinitive* has two tenses, the *present* and the *perfect*.

## INFINITIVE.

I love to study. I desire to learn. I try to improve. We will learn to parse. You promise to explain. The boys wish to go. The girls have assembled to recite. A good scholar strives to excel. They ought to have recited before dinner.

The *participle* refers to time *present, perfect, or compound perfect*. As —

## PARTICIPLE.

*Present*. — John, reciting, forgets his dinner.

*Perfect*. — Tempted to play, he neglected his lesson.

*Comp. Perf.* — John, having neglected his lesson, lost his dinner.

## ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES OF VERBS.

§ 41. *Transitive verbs* have a *Passive* as well as an *Active* form (called *Active* and *Passive Voices*); as, where the active nominative, instead of being the agent or actor, is made the *passive* recipient of the action. Thus —

*Active*. — James struck John.

*Passive*. — John is struck by James.

This form of expression belongs to *transitive verbs* only. The noun, which is in the objective case of the *active* form, becomes the nominative case in the *passive* form.

## PASSIVE FORM.

The *Passive* form, where the action is made to terminate on the nominative, is constructed by writing the verb *am*, through all its modes and tenses, to the perfect participle of the transitive verb; except in the *perfect participle* itself, which is the same in the active form.

The following synopsis of the verb *love*, in the active and passive form, will enable the learner to conjugate it through all the other parts.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB *Love*.

## ACTIVE FORM.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present.</i>	To love.	<i>Progressive Form.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	To be loving.
<i>Perfect.</i>	To have loved.	<i>Perfect.</i>	To have been loving.	

## PARTICIPLES.

*Pres.* Loving.    *Perf.* Loved.    *Comp. Perf.* Having loved.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

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

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

The *Progressive* form represents the action in progress at

the time of speaking, and is formed by annexing the *present participle* to the verb *to be*, through all its modes and tenses. As — *I am loving*.

## PASSIVE FORM.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

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

## PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being loved.
<i>Perf.</i>	Loved.
<i>Comp. Perf.</i>	Having been loved.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

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

## POTENTIAL MODE.

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

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

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

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

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

## RULES FOR CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

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

By the *Formula* of the verb *to be* (§ 45), any *Irregular Verb* may be conjugated. Thus—

## FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

The *Perfect Tense* is formed by prefixing *have* to the perfect participle. As — *I have been*.

The *Pluperfect Tense* is formed by prefixing *had* to the perfect participle. As — *I had been*.

The *First Future Tense* is formed by prefixing *shall* or *will* to the present. As — *I shall* or *will be*.

The *Second Future Tense* is formed by prefixing *shall* or *will* to the perfect tense. As — *I shall* or *will have been*.

The *Present, Imperfect, and Perfect Participle*, of all *Irregular Verbs* are given in the *List of Irregular Verbs* (§ 50). The other parts are formed as in the *Formula* of *am*.

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

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

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

§ 43. We have learned, then, that verbs are —

1. *Transitive*, or *Intransitive*, in relation to the object-noun or the object of their action.

2. *Active*, or *Passive*, in relation to their nominative-noun.

3. *Regular*, or *Irregular*, in their conjugation.

*Transitive* verbs terminate their action on an object.

*Intransitive* verbs do not terminate their action on an object.

*Active* verbs represent the nominative as the agent of the action.

*Passive* verbs represent the nominative as the recipient of the action.

*Regular* verbs have a regular form in conjugation.

*Irregular* verbs have not that regular form in conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *Am*.

§ 44. The verb *am* is conjugated by the adopting of several parts from other roots; as, *be*, *is*, *was*, *were*. The conjugation of this verb is, therefore, very irregular.

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

This word is worthy of special study. It is very comprehensive, is found in all languages with similar irregularities, and may be regarded as in some sense the basis of speech. Its signification is substantive, and hence all names are, in sense, but modifications of it. As — *To be*, is *being* or *existence*. *Running* is *to be*, or existence in a certain state or act. *Justice* is *to be* just, or a being or an existence of certain ascertained moral entities. *To judge* is *to be* judging. *To love* is *to be* loving, or to exist in a particular state, act, or affection. Thus we see that all nouns and all verbs have a significant relation to this verb, which they have to no other.

"How are you?" a very common salutation, means —

How *stand* you? How *exist* you? or, What is your state, condition, in health, &c.?

Study well the verb *to be*. Let the learner parse every word in every tense of each mode, as was done in the verb *love*.

By the formula given in the conjugation of the verb *love*, any *regular* verb may be readily passed through all the modes and tenses. And by the following formula in the *irregular* verb *am*, any *irregular* verb may be conjugated. The learner has only to know the *indicative present*, the *imperfect*, and the *perfect participle*, out of which all the other parts are formed. These three parts are given, of all the *irregular* verbs in the language, in the List of Irregular Verbs (§ 49).

#### § 44. CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB *Am*.

##### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
<i>Am.</i>	<i>Was.</i>	<i>Been.</i>

##### INDICATIVE MODE.

###### PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I am.	We are.
Thou art.	Ye or you are.
He is.	They are.

###### IMPERFECT TENSE.

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

###### PERFECT TENSE.

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

##### PLUPERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I had been.	We had been.
Thou hadst been.	Ye or you had been.
He had been.	They had been.

##### FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

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

##### SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

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

##### POTENTIAL MODE.

###### PRESENT TENSE.

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

###### IMPERFECT TENSE.

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

## PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I may, can, or must have been.	We may, can, or must have been.
Thou mayst, canst, or must have been.	Ye or you may, can, or must have been.
He may, can, or must have been.	They may, can, or must have been.

## PLUPERFECT TENSE.

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

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

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

The *Subjunctive Mode* is formed, through all the tenses, by adding the conjunction *if*, or *though*, &c., to the indicative form. The following form is now obsolescent, viz.:—  
If I *be*, if thou *be*, if he *be*, &c., through all the persons of each tense.

## IMPERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
If I was.	If we were.
If thou wast.	If ye or you were.
If he was.	If they were.

*Second or Hypothetical Form.**Singular.**Plural.*

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

## PERFECT TENSE.

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

## PLUPERFECT TENSE.

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

## FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

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

## SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

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

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

Be, be thou, or do thou be.	Be, be ye or you; or do ye or you be.
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## INFINITIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

To be.

## PERFECT TENSE.

To have been.

## PARTICIPLES.

## PRESENT.

Being.

## PERFECT.

Been.

## COMPOUND PERFECT.

Having been.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

*Quoth* is used only in the third person, in a peculiar form. As — *Quoth he.*

*Ought* is conjugated only in the present tenses, indicative and subjunctive modes. Thus —

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I ought.	We ought.
Thou oughtest.	Ye or you ought.
He ought.	They ought.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## PRESENT TENSE.

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

*Beware* is also defective in the past tenses.

## EMPHATIC FORM.

§ 46. For *emphatic* expression, the auxiliary verb *do* is added to the present tense, and *did* to the imperfect. Thus —

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.
I do love.	I did love.
You do love.	You did love.
He does love.	He did love.
We do love.	We did love.
Ye or you do love.	Ye or you did love.
They do love.	They did love.

## INTERROGATIVE FORM.

§ 47. In *interrogative* sentences, the verb or its auxiliary, comes before the nominative. As — *Do I love? Shall I love? Can I love? May I love? Will he love? Did he love?*

In the *passive* form, the parts of the verb *be* precede the nominative in the present and imperfect indicative. In the other tenses, the auxiliary precedes the nominative. As — *Was he loved? Is he loved? Will he be loved? Has he been loved?*

When the auxiliary is omitted, the verb precedes its nominative. As — *Believest thou? Lovest thou me?*

## NEGATIVE FORM.

§ 48. In the *negative* form, *not* is placed between the auxiliary and the verb. As — *I do not love. I did not, will not, may not, can not, love, &c.*

When the auxiliary is omitted, *not* may follow the verb. As — *He loves me not.*

*Never* may be placed before or after the auxiliary of the verb. As — *He never will love. He will never love.*

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

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

## LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

They are classed according to these *forms* : —

1. When the *present* and *imperfect tenses* and *perfect participle* are alike in form.

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

## FIRST FORM.

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

## SECOND FORM.

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

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Tell,	told,	told.
String,	strung,	strung.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Swing,	swung,	swung.	Win,	won,	won.
Teach,	taught,	taught.	Wind,	wound,	wound.

## THIRD FORM.

Am, or be,	was,	been.	Know,	knew,	known.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Lie,	lay,	laid.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Rise,	rose,	risen.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	Rive,	rived,	riven.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.	Run,	ran,	run.
Come,	came,	come.	See,	saw,	seen.
Do,	did,	done.	Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.	Shew,	shewed,	shewn.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.	Show,	showed,	shown.
Fly,	flew,	flown.	Slay,	slew,	slain.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Strive,	strove,	striven.
Give,	gave,	given.	Take,	took,	taken.
Go,	went,	gone.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Grow,	grew,	grown.	Wear,	wore,	worn.

## FOURTH FORM.

Awake,	awaked, or awoke,	awaked.	Dare,	dared,	dared.
Bereave,	bereaved, bereft,	bereaved	Deal,	dealed,	dealed.
Build,	buildied, built,	buildied.	Dig,	digged,	digged.
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned.	Dream,	dreamed,	dreamed.
Catch,	catchied,* caught,	catchied.*	Dwell,	dwelled,	dwelled.
Cleave,	cleaved, (to adhere,) cleave,*	cleaved.	Freight,	freighted,	freighted.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed.	Gild,	gilded,	gilded.
Crow,	crowed, crew,	crowed.	Gird,	girded,	girded.

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

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Grave,	graved,	graved. graven.	Shine,	shined, shone,	shined. shone.
Heave,	heaved,	heaved. hove, hoven.*	Slit,	slitted, slit,	slitted. slit.
Hew,	hewed,	hewed. hewn.	Sow,	sowed, sown.	sowed. sown.
Kneel,	kneeled, knelt,	kneeled. knelt.	Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled. spelt.
Knit,	knitted, knit,	knitted. knit.	Spill,	spilled, spilt,	spilled. spilt.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted. lit.	Sweat,	sweated, sweat,	sweated. sweat.
Load,	loaded,	loaded. loaden.*	Swell,	swelled, swollen.	swelled. swollen.
Pen,	penned, pent,	penned. pent.	Thrive,	thrived, throve,	thrived. thriven.
Quit,	quitted, quit,	quitted. quit.	Wax,	waxed, waxen.	waxed. waxen.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed. sawn.	Wet,	wetted, wet,	wetted. wet.
Seethe,	seethed, sod,	seethed. sodden.	Whet,	whetted, whet,	whetted. whet.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved. shaven.	Work,	worked, wrought,	worked. wrought.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped. shapen.	Wring,	wringed, wrung,	wringed. wrung.
Shear,	sheared,	sheared. shorn.			

## FIFTH FORM.

Bear, (to bring forth)	bore, bare,	born.	Cleave,	cleft, clave,*	cleft. cloven
Bear, (to sustain)	bore, bare,	borne.	Drink,	drank.	drank. drunk.
Beat,	beat,	beat. beaten.	Drive,	drove, drave,*	driven.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid. bidden.	Eat,	ate, eat,	Eaten.
Bite,	bit,	bit. bitten.	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten. forgot.
Break,	broke, brake,	broken.	Get,	got, gat,*	gotten. got.
Chide,	chid,	chidden. chid.	Hide,	hid,	hidden. hid.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Hold,	held,	held, holden.	Spin,	spun, span,*	spun.
Lade,	laded,	laden.	Spit,	spit, spat,*	spit. spitten.*
Ride,	rode, rid,*	ridden. rode.	Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.	Stride,	strode, strid,	stridden. strid.
Shrink,	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk.	Strike,	struck, stricken.*	struck. stricken.*
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.	Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.	Tear,	tore, tare,*	torn.
Slide,	slid,	slid. slidden.	Tread,	trod,	trodden. trod.
Sling,	slung, slang,	slung.	Weave,	wove, wove.	woven. wove.
Smite,	smote, smit.	smitten.	Write,	wrote, writ,*	written. writ.*
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken. spoke.			

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

How many tenses are used in the indicative mode? What is said of the indicative in its use of the tenses? What tenses does the potential mode employ? What is said of *could*, *would*, and *should*? What sense is implied in *can*, *could*, *would*, and *should*? What is said of the imperfect tense potential? Does the potential mode still use the imperfect tense? Give examples. How many tenses does the subjunctive mode employ? How is it formed? What is necessary to be added to complete the sense? How many tenses does the imperative mode employ? What kind of verbs employ the passive form, called the Passive Voice? What effect has this on the nominative? Give examples. Can the passive form be used in any except transitive verbs? How is the passive form of the verb constructed? Give the synopsis of the verb *love* in the active form. How is the progressive form constructed? Give the synopsis of the verb *love* in the passive. By what formula can you conjugate any regular verb? Any irregular verb? How is the perfect tense formed? Pluperfect? Future? Second future? Where will you find the present and imperfect tenses and perfect participle of all the irregular verbs? What are transitive verbs? Intransitive? Active? Passive? Regular? Irregular? How is the irregular verb *am* constructed? Why is it called the Substantive-

verb? What is said of it as being comprehensive? Must you study this verb thoroughly? Conjugate the verb *am* or *be*, through all the modes and tenses. Why are some verbs called Defective? What are the principal verbs of this class? How is the emphatic form constructed? How is the interrogative form constructed? Position of the verb and auxiliary? In the passive form, how is the auxiliary substantive-verb placed in the present and imperfect tenses? In the other tenses? How is the auxiliary placed when the verb precedes the nominative? In the negative form, where is the negative placed? *Not? Never?* Into how many classes of form are the irregular verbs divided? Give the imperfect tense and perfect participle of each verb, when the indicative present is named to you.

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### ADVERB.

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

Some adverbs are compared by adding *er*, to form the *comparative*; and *est*, to form the *superlative*. As —

<i>Soon,</i>	<i>sooner,</i>	<i>soonest.</i>
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Most adverbs which end in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*. As —

<i>Wisely,</i>	<i>more wisely,</i>	<i>most wisely.</i>
<i>Wisely,</i>	<i>less wisely,</i>	<i>least wisely.</i>

Some adverbs are *irregularly compared*. As —

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

Adverbs may generally be known by answering to the questions — *How? When? Where? How much? How often? &c.*

### PREPOSITION.

§ 51. DEFINITION. — *Prepositions* are used to connect words with one another, and show the relation between them.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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### CONJUNCTION.

§ 52. DEFINITION. — *Conjunctions* connect words and sentences.

The following are conjunctions when they connect words or sentences. There are many others which sometimes become conjunctions by performing the office; and some of

those here enumerated become other parts of speech by the sense in which they are used.

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

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### INTERJECTION.

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

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

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### QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

To what do adverbs belong? Are some adverbs compared? How? How are adverbs which end in *ly* compared? What adverbs are *irregularly* compared? How may adverbs be known? Define prepositions. Between what words do prepositions show a relation? Name the *nineteen* simple prepositions. Name the *eleven* prepositions formed by prefixing *a*. Name the *nine* that are formed by prefixing *be*. Name *nine* that are compounded of prepositions or adverbs. Name the *fifteen* that are variously formed. What is the office of conjunctions? Are conjunctions often used interchangeably with other words? Enumerate the conjunctions. What are interjections? Enumerate them. Where are they placed? Have they government, or agreement, or a qualifying sense?

### PARSING EXERCISES,

#### PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

§ 54. The *analysis* of a sentence — as it is necessary to a clear apprehension of its meaning — is the first step in *parsing*.

This requires that the sentence be resolved into its simple parts, and that each of those parts, whether words or adjunct phrases, be referred to their proper grammatical relations.

*Parsing* consists in designating the words of a sentence according to their several *parts of speech*, and their grammatical relations to one another, with the application of the Rules of *Syntax* for their government and agreement.

A *simple sentence* consists of a *noun* and a *verb*. As — *Man lives*. Or, it consists of a *subject* and its *predicate* — the thing of which something is asserted, and the terms of the affirmation. As — *Man, a child of mortality, is a living being*.

A *compound sentence* contains two or more simple sentences, or what may be resolved into two or more simple sentences. As — *Man lives and thinks*.

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

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

In the natural order, the *nominative case*, or *subject*, comes

before the *verb* — the *objective case*, or *object*, after the *verb* — the *possessive case*, immediately before the *noun* it possesses.

The *pronoun* follows the construction of the *noun*; but, if it be a *relative*, it must be placed so that its *antecedent* may be obvious.

The *adjective* has its natural place before the *noun*.

The *verb* follows its *nominative*.

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

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

The following process of *analysis* and *parsing* is the natural one: —

1. Resolve compound sentences into simple ones.
2. Designate the *noun* and *verb* of each simple sentence, with the *object* of the verb.
3. Designate the *adjuncts* and *qualifying clauses* of these principal parts of the sentence, whether they be words or phrases.
4. Designate the *connective words*.
5. The *principal parts* of the sentence (the *noun* and *verb*) being thus designated — the relations of all the other words to these and to one another, and the connections, being arranged in their proper order in the mind — the grammatical construction of the sentence is obvious, and the rules of grammatical interpretation are readily applied.

*Parsing*, then, consists in a lucid arrangement of all the parts and words in a sentence. It is the *result* of analysis.

The true analysis of a sentence is the development of its grammatical construction.

*Parsing* is merely a recital of relations thus discovered, and an application of the rules that govern these relations.

This process of analysis and grammatical construction should become so familiar, that it may not require attention separate from the exercise of reading itself.

When the learner undertakes to analyze a sentence, the first effort he makes is to understand it. This, also, is the first effort of the mind in reading. This effort naturally directs his attention, *first* to the *subject*, *then* to the *predicate*, or thing asserted, *then* to the *object*, *then* to the *qualifying words*, *clauses*, *adjuncts*, and *connectives*. Thus he becomes a grammarian, and applies the principles of grammar to the sentences *as he reads them*, with the same ease and familiarity that he develops the thoughts they are suited to convey to the mind.

§ 55. The following *Exercises* are arranged on the plan of development above presented: —

#### SIMPLE SENTENCES.

(Rules I. and XV.)

Man lives.	Grass vegetates.	Horses run.
Beasts walk.	They sleep.	They rest.
Birds fly.	They eat.	They die.

A man can reason. A beast can walk. A cat can jump.  
A dog can bark. A lamb can skip. A bright star shines.  
A twinkling planet shines. The eccentric comet revolves.  
The starry heavens glow. The infinite space exists. A  
great height arises. A profound depth sinks. A long distance stretches.

#### *The Nominative-noun and Adjective.*

(Rules XVII., I., and XV.)

A good man prays. A bad man sins. All men think.

Some men work. Other men study. All men die. Many people work. Such people prosper. Any man can work. His labor will prosper.

*The Adjective used in Predication.*

(Rules XIV., I., and XV.)

[The *predicate* is that form of the verb which employs two or more parts of speech in assertion — or, it is the *thing asserted* of the nominative.]

A good man is prayerful. A bad man is profane. Good deeds are praiseworthy. Benevolence is divine. Wicked men are revengeful. Good men are kind. Virtue is pure.

*The Use of the Pronoun.*

(Rules I. and XV.)

Sinners disobey, they suffer, they swear, they lie, they steal. A good man obeys, he loves, he forbears, he rejoices.

*Noun with Adjuncts.*

Men of labor excel. Men of might prevail. The rewards of industry enrich.

[In these sentences, the phrases *of labor, of might, of industry*, are adjuncts to the nouns that precede them respectively.]

*Noun-Adjuncts after the Verb.*

Bad men delight in mischief. Good boys study with diligence.

[Here, *in mischief* and *with diligence* are adjunct phrases to the verbs.]

*Noun in Apposition.*

(Rule III.)

Cicero, the Orator, expelled Catiline, the Conspirator.

*Nouns, Names addressed.*

(Rule IV.)

Men, countrymen, lovers, hear. Soldiers, stand to your arms.

*Noun-nominative with a Participle.*

(Rule V.)

The prisoner having been sentenced, the court adjourned. Man being in honor abideth not.

*Nominative Pronoun, relative.*

(Rule VI.)

Those who sin must repent. Those who repent will reform. He who parleys with sin falls into temptation. We help those who help themselves.

*Objective Pronoun, relative.*

(Rule VII.)

We honor him whom God approves. We love those by whom we are loved.

*Noun objective to a transitive Verb.*

(Rule VIII.)

John loves his book. James loves his play. Men honor virtue. Magistrates execute the laws. Good children obey their parents.

*Two Nouns objective to a Verb.*

(Rule IX.)

He asked me a question. He taught me grammar. He called me John. He made me a scholar. He paid me money.

[In all these cases, one of the nouns may be governed by a preposition. As — He asked a question *of me*.]

*The Passive Form of the Verb changes one of the foregoing Objectives to the Nominative.*

(Rule X.)

I was asked a question. I was taught grammar. I was called John. I was made a scholar. I was paid money.

[This Rule furnishes the only true elucidation of sentences of this class. In the Latin, "when a verb in the active voice governs two cases, in the passive it retains the latter case." The grammatical construction refers to the transitive form of the verb, by which the true relation of the noun is seen and its force admitted. The inquiry is often made, "How shall the *noun* be parsed in this construction?" It finds its grammatical relations constructively with the other, or active, form of the verb.]

*Noun objective to a Preposition.*

(Rule XI.)

Every preposition has an object. The object of a preposition is a noun in the objective case. The cases of nouns depend on their relations to other words.

[Each of these sentences furnishes an example of the preposition and its object.]

*Nouns objective of Time, Place, Distance, Measure, Direction, Value, &c.*

(Rule XII.)

He lived a century. He went home. He walked a mile. He weighed ninety pounds. He measured six feet. He went his way.

[In most cases, a preposition can be supplied, to govern nouns of this class.]

*Noun Possessive.*

(Rule XIII.)

John's book is John's property. Alexander's name is the name of Alexander. Life's labor should be the soul's salvation.

*Adjective, Pronoun-Adjective, Participle.*

(Rule XIV.)

Great labor brings great rewards. A greater than John was the Baptist's theme. The greatest good is the best reward. Your book is my study. Her lesson occupied all the time of our leisure. Their improvement is our object.

*Verbs, their Agreement and Government.*

(Rules XV. and XVI.)

The verb is made to agree with the nominative case. Verbs have many variations. Verbs are varied to express modes; they are varied to express tense. The infinitive mode omits *to* after *bid, dare, make, see, feel, hear*.

*Adverbs.*

(Rule XVII.)

He who does his work well does it twice. I am very well. He is greatly in fault. Truly great men are truly good. You have been eminently successful. John learns very rapidly; he studies very closely.

*Prepositions.*

(Rule XVIII.)

"Thrice was I beaten with rods; once was I stoned; thrice I suffered shipwreck; a night and a day I have been in the deep; in journeyings often, in perils of water, in perils of robbers, in perils of my own countrymen, in perils of the brethren, in perils in the city, in perils in the wilder-

ness, in perils in the sea, in perils among false brethren, in weariness and painfulness, in watchings often, in hunger and thirst, in cold and nakedness."

*Conjunctions.*

(Rule XIX.)

Honor and shame from no condition rise. Virtue lives and is honored, while vice is despised and dishonored.—  
"We are troubled on every side, yet not distressed; we are perplexed, but not in despair; persecuted, but not forsaken; cast down, but not destroyed."

*Interjections.*

(Rule XX.)

"O, for a lodge in some vast wilderness!" He fell, alas! into temptation. "O, Absalom, my son, I would [wish] that I had died for thee!" "O, foolish Galatians! who hath bewitched you, that ye should not obey the truth?"

THE SCRIPTURES, intended for all to read and understand, are written in the simplest language. Take, as an example, a parsing lesson from John i. 1-10:—

"In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the word was God. The same was in the beginning with God. All things were made by him; and without him was not any thing made that was made. In him was life; and the life was the light of men. And the light shineth in darkness; and the darkness comprehended it not.

"There was a man sent from God, whose name was John. The same came for a witness, to bear witness of the Light, that all men through him might believe. He was not that Light, but was sent to bear witness of that Light. That was the true Light, which lighteth every man that cometh into the world. He was in the world, and the world was made by him, and the world knew him not."

Take, as a second example, Gen. i. 1-8:—

"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth. And the earth was without form, and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep. And the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters.

"And God said, Let there be light: and there was light. And God saw the light, that it was good: and God divided the light from the darkness. And God called the light Day, and the darkness he called Night. And the evening and the morning were the first day.

"And God said, Let there be a firmament in the midst of the waters, and let it divide the waters from the waters. And God made the firmament, and divided the waters which were under the firmament from the waters which were above the firmament: and it was so. And God called the firmament Heaven. And the evening and the morning were the second day."

§ 56. The learner now understands the parts which constitute a *simple sentence*; and he knows, also, how to *analyze* the simple sentence, and how to refer all its qualifying words to their respective relations.

He has now only to keep in mind that all *compound sentences* are but simple sentences connected together by conjunctions. He has, therefore, only to restore to their natural order words which are transposed, to reduce compound sentences to simple ones, and then apply the rules of analysis already made familiar. Three easy steps accomplish the whole, each of which is simple. Thus:—

1. Restore transposed words to their natural order.
2. Reduce compound sentences to simple sentences.
3. Trace each word in the sentence to its grammatical relation under the appropriate rule.

## COMPOUND SENTENCES.

§ 57. To show the *compound sentence*, and how it is to be resolved into simple sentences, it will be sufficient to take one extract from Milton, in which he laments his blindness:—

“Thus, with the year,  
Seasons return; but not to me returns  
Day, nor sweet approach of even or morn,  
Nor sight of vernal bloom, nor summer’s rose,  
Nor flocks, nor herds, nor human face divine:  
But cloud instead, and ever-during dark  
Surrounds me, from the cheerful ways of men  
Cut off, and for the Book of knowledge fair,  
Presented with a universal blank  
Of nature’s work, to me expunged and razed,  
And wisdom at one entrance quite shut out.  
So much the rather thou, celestial light,  
Shine inward, and the mind through all her powers  
Irradiate: there plant eyes; all mist from thence  
Purge and disperse; that I may see and tell  
Of things invisible to mortal sight.”

This may be regarded as a difficult grammatical arrangement of the blank verse. After the pupil has well considered it, let him read the same broken into simple sentences by the *dash*, and he will see there is nothing in it but a succession of simple sentences, with some change of the words out of their natural order. Thus:—

Thus, with the year,  
Seasons return — but not to me returns  
Day — nor sweet approach of even or morn —  
Nor sight of vernal bloom — nor summer’s rose —

Nor flocks — nor herds — nor human face divine —  
But cloud instead — and ever-during dark  
Surrounds me, from the cheerful ways of men  
Cut off — and for the Book of knowledge fair  
Presented with a universal blank  
Of nature’s work, to me expunged and razed —  
And wisdom at one entrance quite shut out —  
So much the rather thou, celestial light,  
Shine inward — and the mind through all her powers  
Irradiate — there plant eyes — all mist from thence  
Purge — and disperse — that I may see — and tell  
Of things invisible to mortal sight.

The pupil will now find in this somewhat difficult example only a succession of *simple sentences*, here separated by the *dash*, without altering the arrangement. By supplying verbs to nominatives in some cases omitted, and nominatives to a few verbs in other instances, he will find no more difficulty in *parsing* the whole than in the other simple sentences he has analyzed.

But *one step further*: we present it with the words arranged in their *natural order*, and he will see that it is divested of all mystery, and is as plain as the simplest language can be. In the same way, he can reduce all, even the most complicated compositions, and all language is construed with greatest precision and the greatest ease:—

Thus seasons return with the year — but day returns not to me — nor sweet approach of even or morn (returns) — nor sight of vernal bloom — nor summer’s rose — nor flocks — nor herds — nor human face divine — but cloud instead (surrounds) — and ever-during dark surrounds me, cut off from the cheerful ways of men — and (I am), for

the fair book of knowledge, presented with a universal blank of nature's work, (which is expunged and razed to me — and wisdom, at one entrance, (is) quite shut out — Thou, celestial Light, so much the rather, shine inward — and irradiate the mind through all her powers — plant eyes there — purge all mists from thence — and disperse (all mists) — that I may see — and tell of things invisible to mortal sight.

TO THE TEACHER AND THE PUPIL.

The learner, having now become familiar with the *simple sentence* and with the method of resolving *compound sentences* into simple ones, is prepared to enter upon the study of the more difficult forms of speech. These he will find, under the following rules, where they appropriately and respectively belong, illustrated by the Rules of Syntax which control their interpretation. Let these examples be made familiar — *all of them* — and the pupil will then have a key to all the difficult constructions in the language — always at hand, and ready for use. Here, he masters the language, and arrives at precision. This will be vastly better than a rapid flight over a larger surface. The Syntax should, therefore, be *repeated* until it is made perfectly familiar. The great mistake, in teaching and learning Grammar, is made precisely here. Repeat — *repeat* — REPEAT, until the difficulties are surmounted, and made as plain as A B C.

PART III.

SYNTAX

§ 58. SUMMARY OF RULES.

*Nominative Case.*

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## RULES OF SYNTAX,

*With Parsing Exercises, illustrating every Form of Grammatical Construction.*

[Let the pupil be exercised in these examples, under each rule and each observation, until he is made familiar with the rule and with every variety of its application. He can then hardly fail to analyze, with precision, every variety of sentences, wherever they may occur.]

### RULES FOR NOUNS-NOMINATIVE.

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

OBSERVATION 1. — The verb has the distinction of number and person only in relation to its noun-nominative.

EXAMPLES. — He loves. They love. We love. You love.

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

Ex. — He went. Go, and do your duty. He, or you, or I, must go. The purchaser, or his partner, must pay the price.

OBS. 3. — The nominative case to the verb may be a simple name, a verb in the infinitive mode, or any clause in a sentence, or even a sentence itself, whenever either of these is used as a subject. The same word, clause, or sentence, may then be the *antecedent* to a relative, or the *subject* to an adjective.

Ex. — *To be good* is to be happy.

*Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart*, which is the first commandment with promise.

*His dying without a will* left a legacy of contention.

*His being a son* makes him an heir.

*A good name* excels riches.

"*To be good*" is the subject nominative to *is*. "*Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart*" is the antecedent to *which*. "*His dying without a will*" is the nominative to *left*. "*His being a son*" is nominative to *makes*. "*A good name*" is nominative to *excels*.

Every subject, however, must be subjected to a strict analysis, and each word employed in the phrase must be referred to all its grammatical relations, when the analysis is practicable.

"*To be good*." This is a substantive phrase, incapable of analysis. It is

equivalent to *being good*, or *goodness*. Thus, *Being good* is *being happy*; or, The affection of goodness constitutes the emotion of happiness.

"*Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart*." This is a simple sentence, and each word has its own grammatical relation, while the entire phrase is the antecedent substantive of the relative *which*.

"*His dying without a will*." This phrase is capable of analysis. *Dying* has the nature of a noun, which is the central word to which all the others relate. *His* qualifies and connects *dying* with some antecedent. *Without a will* is an adjunct qualifying phrase. The whole together is the subject or nominative of the thing asserted. It was not "*His dying*" which "left a legacy of contention," but "*His dying without a will*."

"*His being a son*" and "*A good name*" follow the same interpretation.

OBS. 4. — Two or more nominatives, connected by the conjunction *and*, usually require a plural verb.

Ex. — John *and* James are brothers.

But when unity in the subject is implied, though composed of more than one nominative, the verb may be singular.

Ex. — Why is dust and ashes proud?

OBS. 5. — Between two nominatives of different numbers or persons, the verb agrees with the *first*.

Ex. — His meat was locusts and wild honey. Thou art the man.

But when the principal subject is the *last*, this controls the verb.

Ex. — The wages of sin is *death*. Who art *thou*? What are *we*?

OBS. 6. — Two or more nominatives singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular number.

Ex. — John or James is in fault.

When two or more nominatives, connected by *and*, apply to one subject, the verb is singular.

Ex. — The patriot and statesman of Marshfield is no more.

OBS. 7 — If two or more nominatives are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the *plural*, which should then be placed nearest to it.

Ex. — Neither honor nor riches are to be despised.

OBS. 8. — The sense of the nominative, as implying *unity* or *plurality*, must determine the form of the verb. When different persons are named, it is generally required to use a verb for each.

Ex. — Either you are elected or I am.

*News, means, &c.*, are used either in the singular or plural.

Ex. — What is the news? News from every part of Europe have arrived.

He was industrious, and by this means he succeeded.

Obs. 9. — A *collective* noun requires a verb to be in the singular or plural, according to the sense.

Ex. — Congress is in session. The House are discussing the tariff.

Obs. 10. — *It*, used indefinitely, is always the nominative, requiring the singular verb.

Ex. — It is I. It was they. It was the soldiers.

*One* is also used indefinitely. As — One would think the world deranged.

*They* is also used indefinitely. As — They say he is dead.

Obs. 11. — The *distributive* adjective pronouns require a singular verb.

Ex. — Each citizen owes allegiance. Every citizen owes allegiance.

Either is a competent witness. Neither is a competent witness.

*Every*, however, is sometimes used as a *collective*, and has a *plural* sense.

Ex. — Every mountain and island were moved out of their places.

A distributive phrase constitutes a singular member, sometimes with a plural adjective.

Ex. — Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.

We played together many a day.

A measure of unity is singular.

Ex. — He was employed for a twelve-month.

He changed his employment every twelve-month.

When *plurality* is implied, the verb must be plural.

Ex. — A hundred head of cattle were sold yesterday.

One hundred sail of the line were in the battle.

A thousand foot and a thousand horse were detailed.

A few were there — a great many went away.

A hundred are unfit for service.

Obs. 12. — The adverb *not* may exclude its noun from governing the verb.

Ex. — *Honor*, not riches, is his aim.

But, in this case, *riches* is the nominative of a new sentence, with a plural verb.

Obs. 13. — *Adjuncts* to a *singular* nominative may constitute it plural, and require a plural verb.

Ex. — John, with James and Peter, constitute the committee.

But a small part of the soldiers were detailed.

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

Ex. — The men, who served in the war, were rewarded.

I, who am an American, have been unlawfully imprisoned.

You, who are foreigners, may become citizens.

Obs. 15. — A *participle* used as a *noun*, is called a *participial* or *verbal noun*, and may be in the nominative or objective, or even possessive case.

Ex. — His *being's* end and aim. He felt that *writing's* truth.

In the *beginning*. *Dying* is but *going home*.

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

Obs. 17. — A few verbs are called *impersonal*, because they admit of no change of person. Yet the subject or nominative is implied in the anomalous form of the verb itself.

Ex. — *Methinks*, for I think. *Methought*, for I thought. *Meseems*, for I seem to myself. *Melists*, for I list.

But they are inelegant, and rarely used.

In the phrases as *appears*, as *follows*, &c., *it*, understood, is the nominative to the verb.

Ex. — He is a foreigner, as appears from his speech.

His certificate reads as follows.

Methinks you are facetious.

Obs. 18. — The *imperative mode* does not generally express the nominative, but leaves it to be understood.

Ex. — Do good. Be kind. love your neighbor. Pray for your enemies.

Be kindly affectioned. Let there be light. Let us make man.

The *imperative* may also be regarded as a general form of command, to express a fact.

Ex. — Him that hath ears to hear, let him hear.

Obs. 19. — *Need* and *dare* are sometimes used, in a general sense, without a nominative. *It* may then be supplied.

Ex. — There *needed* no prophet to tell us that.

There wanted no advocates to secure the voice of the people.

*Need* and *dare*, when used intransitively, have sometimes the plural form with a singular verb. They are then to be parsed as singular by authority.

Ex. — He need not fear. He dare not hurt you.

Obs. 20. — If two or more nominatives are of different *persons*, the verb agrees with that placed nearest to it.

Ex. — Neither I nor my brother is eligible.

But it is better to say, I am not eligible, nor is my brother.

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

Ex. — You and he and I are invited. You and I will go.

Obs. 22. — All words placed as captions, titles to books, to treatises, to paragraphs, or as signatures, &c., are abridged expressions, and are to be gram-

matically disposed of by adding such words as are necessary to complete a sentence.

Ex. — Chap. I.: i. e., this chapter is the first, or this is the first chapter.

Verse 10: meaning the tenth verse.

Richmond, August 20, 1853: parsed as if written, At Richmond, on the twentieth day of August, eighteen hundred and fifty-three.

More summarily, the separate words and figures of the last example may be parsed under Rule XII.

Obs. 23. — In *position*, the nominative naturally stands before the verb. But this order is varied: — 1. In *interrogative* sentences. As — Believest thou? 2. In the use of the *imperative*. As — Go thou. 3. When the adverb *there* introduces a sentence. As — There is a calm. 4. In *poetic license*.

But when interrogative sentences employ two words in the predicate, the nominative is placed between them. As — Will he come? Has he recovered? Is he sick?

*Who*, *which*, and *what*, interrogative, come before the verb. As — *Who* is wise?

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

Obs. 1. — Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly the verb *to be*, and the passive verbs of *choosing*, *naming*, *appointing*, &c.

Ex. — He was called John. He became a disciple.

I thought it was he, but it was not he.

Obs. 2. — In some instances, the intransitive verb takes a transitive sense, and must be construed accordingly.

Ex. — I dreamed a dream. He ran a race. He lived a useful life.

He looked death in the face. He stopped to breathe his horses.

We talked the hours of night away. They laughed him to scorn.

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

Ex. — I supposed it to be *him*.

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

Ex. — I thought it was he, but it was not he.

I thought it to be him, but it was not he.

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

Obs. 1. — Nouns used for emphatic repetition belong to this class.

Ex. — *Our fathers*, where are they? and *the prophets*, do they live for ever?

*Myself*, *himself*, *itself*, *themselves*, are often used for emphatic repetition.

Ex. — *I myself*. *He himself*. *They themselves*.

The objective form of the pronoun is preserved in the compound word for the sake of euphony, whether it be used in the nominative or objective case.

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

Obs. 2. — A verb in the infinitive mode, a clause, or a sentence, possessing a substantive character, is often, under this rule, put in apposition with a noun, and a noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence.

Ex. — He aided me when I was poor, a *kindness* I shall always remember.

Obs. 3. — First names and titles are by some grammarians parsed as in apposition with the principal name. Others parse such names and titles as compound nouns.

Ex. — General Zachary Taylor.

But, since the first name and title are here used to define the particular person meant, *General* and *Zachary* may properly be considered as *adjectives*. There are many men by the name of *Taylor*, but *General Zachary Taylor* is defined or described by the *two first words*. We therefore call them *adjectives*, without repudiating the other interpretation, nearly, if not quite, as well sustained.

Obs. 4. — Nouns which mean the same thing are frequently connected by *as*.

Ex. — I preserve my diploma *as* an evidence of my graduation.

In this example, *as* may, as a conjunction, connect the two words *diploma* and *evidence*; or, it may qualify a verb understood, by supplying an ellipsis — “*as* I would preserve an evidence”; or, it may govern *evidence*, as a preposition in the sense of *for*. Either of these interpretations will develop the true meaning. We prefer the last.

Obs. 5. — A title applied to a name common to two or more, belongs to a *collective* noun, and hence takes properly the plural form.

Ex. — The Messrs. Smith. The Generals Benjamin and Franklin Pierce.

But, if a numeral adjective is used, the plural form is given to the name only.

Ex. — The two Mr. Smiths.

We assign this class of words, therefore, to that of plural forms, rather than nouns in apposition.

Ex. — The Messrs. Smith are the proprietors of the house.  
The two Mr. Smiths are in partnership.  
The two Miss Longs sold their property.

Obs. 6. — A noun, nominative or objective in form, may be in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive case. But then they are considered as in the same case, with the possessive form omitted in the nouns.

Ex. — Here rests *his* head upon the lap of earth, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown.

*Youth* may be in apposition with *his*, the sign of the possessive omitted (Rule XIII., Obs. 7); or, it may be in apposition with *head* (a part put for the whole, by *metonymy*), and nominative case to *rests*.

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

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

Ex. — Welcome, illustrious *stranger*.

Obs. 2. — Nouns in the nominative independent may always be supplied with verbs, or placed in apposition with other nominatives.

Ex. — Friends, give me your attention.  
Friends, countrymen, and lovers, hear me.  
Come, gentle spring.

These names addressed are in apposition with the nominatives to the verbs, or are independent.

§ 63. RULE V. — A noun, joined with a participle, and disjoined from the rest of the sentence, is the nominative case independent.

Ex. — The *sermon* being ended, the people dispersed — i. e., when the sermon was ended.

Generally speaking, virtue has its reward even in this life — i. e., *we*, speaking generally. *We*, understood, is nominative independent with *speaking*.

Obs. 1. — The noun of this class is the *subject of the participle*, and may always be resolved into a simple sentence.

Ex. — When the sermon was ended. As we generally speak.

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

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

Obs. 2. — The rules of grammar must not be violated for mere convenience or brevity of expression. *All pronouns* must be controlled by the nouns to which they refer.

— We may properly say, Neither John nor James may neglect *his* book.

But we cannot say, Neither John nor Mary may neglect *his* book.

We must say, Neither John may neglect *his* book, nor Mary *hers*.

*All pronouns* must agree with their antecedents in *gender, number, and person*.

Obs. 3. — If two or more nouns are connected by *and*, the pronoun is required to be in the plural number.

Ex. — John, James, and Mary, must study *their* books.

If connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun is singular.

Ex. — Neither John nor James may neglect *his* book.

If one of the antecedent nouns is plural, the pronoun referring to them must be plural.

Ex. — Neither John nor his brothers have neglected *their* books.

Obs. 4. — The relative also agrees in gender with the antecedent.

Ex. — The boys and girls, *who* belong to the class *which* has just been formed, must recite together.

John may recite to *his* sister — Jane to *her* brother.

Obs. 5. — When nouns connected are of *different persons*, the form of the pronoun referring to them prefers the *first* person to the *second*, and the *second* to the *third*.

Ex. — You and he and I must render *our* account.

You and he must render *your* account.

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

Ex. — It was John. It was Mary.

It was they. It was he.

It was I. It was you.

It was the beginning of his misfortunes.

It was that he refused to do his duty.

It was to be expected.

OBS. 7. — *This* and *these* refer to the *latter* or last-mentioned of two antecedents; *that* and *those* to the *former* or first-mentioned.

Ex. — *Thieves* and *robbers* are greatly multiplied; *these* infest the country, *those* the city.

OBS. 8. — The *antecedent* of the relative pronoun must be carefully traced, in order to interpret correctly the sense of the passage.

*Who* refers to *persons*; *which* to *animals* and *things*.

The use of *which*, referring to persons, sometimes found in the Scriptures and ancient writings, is now obsolete. To render this relation clear, great care should be used in the construction of sentences.

Ex. — A gentleman saw a lady drop a pocket-handkerchief in the mud, which he picked up, and put in his pocket.

Here he is made to put the *mud* in his pocket. The following arrangement makes the sense unequivocal: — A gentleman saw a lady drop in the mud a handkerchief, which he picked up, and put in his pocket.

OBS. 9. — The pronoun *his*, and other pronouns in the *possessive* case, are often *antecedents* to relative pronouns.

Ex. — How admonitory is *his* end, *who* has died a drunkard!  
How various *his* employments, *whom* the world calls idle!  
Heaven be *their* resource, *who* have no other than the charity of the world!  
The rill is tuneless to *his* ear, *who* feels no harmony within.

OBS. 10. — When a relative and an antecedent have each a verb, the *relative* is commonly nominative to the *first*, and the *antecedent* is nominative to the *second* verb.

Ex. — He, who excels, is promoted. Those, who study, excel.

OBS. 11. — The relative pronoun can relate to a *noun only*, as its antecedent, or that which is substituted for a noun. A grammatical construction not conformed to this rule is simply false.

Ex. — If children inherit character as well as property from their parents, which is a law of nature, then parents should be careful to bequeath a good name to their posterity.

OBS. 12. — The Anglo-Saxons used the pronoun masculine in referring to the neuter gender, as some modern languages do. The Scriptures, therefore, have frequently the use of *his* for *its* — a form of expression now obsolete.

Ex. — If the salt have lost *his* savor (*its* savor).

OBS. 13. — The position of the relative is generally before the verb and after the antecedent.

## RULES FOR NOUNS-OBJECTIVE.

Nouns in the objective case may be governed by *transitive verbs*, by *participles*, or by *prepositions*.

The *subject* of the sentence, with the Rules that apply to it as the nominative case, have been considered in the preceding *six* Rules.

The *seventh* Rule defines the relation and government of the *relative pronoun*, when it is used as the *object* instead of the *subject*. Its relations to the antecedent are the same in both forms. It is only necessary, therefore, to define the Rule itself.

§ 65. RULE VII. — A pronoun, relative, is governed by the verb, or some other word, when the verb of the sentence depends on another subject as the nominative.

Ex. — You are the parent *whom* I love — to *whom* I am deeply indebted — *whose* welfare I seek — for *which* I labor.

OBS. 1. — The compound pronoun *what* may be resolved into *that which*, *those which*, &c. As — This is *what* I wanted — *that which* I wanted.

OBS. 2. — *Whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, &c., are construed as compounds, like *what*.

Ex. — *Whatever* is, is right.  
*Whatsoever* he affirms, is believed.  
*Whoever* would excel, must strive.

§ 66. RULE VIII. — A noun, the object of a transitive verb or participle, is in the objective case, and is governed by the verb or participle.

OBS. 1. — This object may be a *noun*, a *pronoun*, a *substantive phrase*, or a *sentence*.

A *noun*: John loves *his* book.

A *pronoun*: John loves *me*.

A *phrase*: I desire *all to be present*.

A *sentence*: Addison says, *everything is beautiful in its season*.

OBS. 2. — *Two objectives* sometimes come under the government of one active verb — by Rule IX.

OBS. 3. — Intransitive verbs admit an objective after them, when used in a transitive sense.

Ex. — They laughed *him* to scorn. He looked *him* in the face.  
We talked the *night* away. He returned the *money*.  
The wind blows the *chaff*.

In the expression — The wind blows a gale — *a gale* is adverbial, in the sense of *violently*.

Many verbs are used either in a transitive or an intransitive sense.

Obs. 4. — Participles have the same government as their verbs.

Ex. — Believing the *report*, I acted accordingly.

Having heard the *evidence*, the court adjourned.  
Seeing his error, he reformed.

Obs. 5. — The participle in *ing*, when used as a noun, may also, in its verbal character, govern the objective case.

Ex. — In *hearing* many witnesses, much time was consumed.

But, if the participle have an article before it, it should have a preposition after it, to govern the objective.

Ex. — In the hearing of many witnesses, the prisoner confessed his guilt.

Obs. 6. — The objective case takes position, in its natural order, *after* the verb that governs it.

But the *relative pronoun*, when it is made the object of the verb, comes *before* it.

By transposition, also, in *poetry*, and sometimes in *prose*, the object is placed *before* the verb that governs it.

§ 67. RULE IX. — Two nouns in the objective case, one of the person, the other of the thing, may follow and be governed by verbs which signify to *ask, teach, call, make, pay, allow, promise, constitute, offer, &c.*

Ex. — He asked me a question. He taught me grammar.  
He called me John. He paid me my price.

Obs. 1. — In most cases, where two objectives come after a transitive verb, one of the nouns may be governed by a preposition. But the action of the verb often passes over so directly on both objects, that it has come to be adopted as a rule in grammar to assign to the verb the government of both. This is in analogy with the Latin.

§ 68. RULE X. — Two nouns, the objects of a transitive verb, yield one as the nominative, when the verb takes the passive form.

Ex. — I was asked a question by him. I was taught grammar by him.  
I was called John. I was paid my price.

The government of the noun in these cases, after the passive form of the verb, has sometimes puzzled grammarians. The grammatical construction is explained by the preceding Rule, and is sufficient to elucidate the difficulty.

§ 69. RULE XI. — A noun in the objective case may be governed by a preposition which shows its relation in the sentence.

Obs. 1. — The word governed by a preposition is always a noun in its character, and objective in relation to the preposition, whether it be a single word, a phrase, or a sentence.

Obs. 2. — The word to which the object of the preposition stands related is usually a verb, a noun, or an adjective; sometimes a pronoun or an adverb.

Obs. 3. — Any word which does the office of a preposition takes its character. *Conjunctions* are sometimes used for prepositions. As — *But*, in the sense of *except; ere, for before*.

Ex. — All escaped *but* one. He is dead *ere* this.

*Participles* are sometimes used for prepositions. As — *Concerning, for in regard to; respecting, for in respect to*.

These, however, are often parsed as participles, and, as such, made to govern the objective case. Where words can plainly be used in their original character, it is best so to construe them.

Obs. 4. — *Than* and *as* are sometimes used so as to give them a prepositional character.

Ex. — *Cæsar, than* whom none was greater.

This form of expression is not uncommon.

The same construction sometimes admits *as* to the office of a preposition.

Ex. — I respect him more *as* a Christian than *as* a king — i. e., than in the character of a king.

*Than* and *as* should never be used as prepositions, where, as in comparative sentences, they can take the place of *conjunctions* or *adverbs*.

Ex. — Christ died to redeem such rebels *as I am* — not *as me*.

Obs. 5. — *Double* or *compound prepositions* are sometimes used. They should however be avoided, or separately parsed, whenever the construction will permit.

Obs. 6. — *As to, as for, aboard of, but for, instead of, out of* — these words may usually be divided, and the first word of each pair be parsed as an adverb.

Ex. — *As* to this argument, it is a sophism — i. e., as it relates to this argument. (*As* qualifies *relates*.)

They came *out of* great tribulation. (*Out* qualifies *came*.)

Obs. 7. — *Despite of, devoid of, previous to*, are found in such relations, that the first word belongs to a noun as an *adjective*.

Ex. — He is *devoid of* fear. He used the time *previous to* office-hours.

Or, these may be sometimes construed *adverbially*.

Ex. — He arrived *previous* to the time appointed.

Obs. 8. — *From among, from between, from off*—in the use of these, the first word, as a preposition, usually governs the whole clause following, while the second preposition governs its own object.

Ex. — One came out *from among* the tombs.  
There came forth a light *from between* the cherubim.  
There went up incense *from off* the altar.

Obs. 9. — *In lieu of, in regard to, in respect to, in spite of*—in these phrases, the first word, as a preposition, governs the second as a noun.

Ex. — I return love *in lieu of* hatred—forbearance *in spite of* provocation.  
*In regard to* my motives, you mistake—*in respect to* yours, I venture no judgment.

Obs. 10. — *Allowing, according, considering, concerning, during, respecting, supposing, excepting, notwithstanding*—these are sometimes used and classed as prepositions, but can often be parsed, more in accordance with the sense, as participles.

When used as prepositions, they must always show a relation between their object and some other word.

Ex. — I speak concerning charity.  
Allowing the premises, he may be correct.  
During prayer, we should kneel.

Obs. 11. — *A* is sometimes used in the sense of a preposition.

Ex. — The gale drove the vessel *a* wreck—i. e., *to* wreck.  
There is evil *a* brewing.  
He set the people *a* reading.  
He went *a* hunting—*a* fishing.

Obs. 12. — In the use of prepositions reference must be had to the sense of the related words before and after them. They generally follow nouns, verbs, or adjectives.

Obs. 13. — The construction of prepositions after nouns. We say—Abhorrence, acknowledgment, betrayal, diminution, independence, need, reduction, righteousness *of*.

We say—Aversion, exception, regard, union *to*.  
We say—Accordance, compassion, compliance *with*.  
We say—Concurrence, confidence, difficulty, tuition *in*.  
We say—exception, regard *to*—prejudice *against*, &c.

Obs. 14. — In the construction of prepositions with verbs, we say—Accuse, acquit, disapprove *of*; accord *with* or *to*; ask *of, for, or after*; bestow *upon*; concur *with* or *in*; copy *from* or *after*; profit *by*; prevail *with, on, upon, or against*; vest *in* or *with*; wait *on* or *upon*, &c.

Obs. 15. — In the construction of prepositions with adjectives, we say—Agreeable *to*; beloved *by*; comparable *with*; dependent *on*; expert *in*; necessary *for*; sure *of*; free *from*.

Obs. 16. — In regard to *place, to* is used after verbs of motion to a place. As—He went *to* England, *to* France, *to* Iowa, &c.

*At* or *in* is used after the verb *to be*. As—He is *at* or *in* Washington, *at* or *in* Boston, *at* or *in* Paris, &c.

*In* is used to denote residence. As—He lives *in* Washington, *in* Boston, *in* Paris, &c.

*At* is used to designate houses of residence, marked locations, foreign courts, or cities. As—He resides *at* Valley Forge, *at* the Orkneys, *at* St. James, *at* Washington, *at* Rome.

*In* designates streets of a city, and *at* the dwellings in the streets. As—He resides *at* No. 3, *in* State street.

Ex. — He went to Richmond, that he might be in town to meet his friend *at* the City Hall, *in* Broad street.

His friend resides *at* his own house, *in* Grace street.

Obs. 17. — The particular prepositions to be used must depend on the sense in each particular case. We may, for example, fall *off* or *from, to* or *into, on* or *upon, in* or *into, a* place. We may accommodate, compare, adapt, reconcile, reduce, unite *to*. We may rest *on* or *upon, in* or *within* a place.

Obs. 18. — Except for poetic measure, the preposition should not be transposed from its natural position before its object.

Obs. 19. — The preposition and its object should generally be placed as near as possible to its related word.

§ 70. RULE XII. — A noun, signifying *time, place, distance, measure, direction, quantity, value, &c.*, may be in the objective case, without any word to govern it.

Ex. — He lived a century. He went home. He walked a mile.  
He weighed ninety pounds. He measured six feet.  
He went his way. He weighed twenty pounds more than his brother.  
Heat the furnace *one-seven times* more than it is wont to be heated.

Obs. 1. — Nouns under this rule may be generally governed by a preposition, by supplying an ellipsis.

## RULE FOR NOUNS-POSSESSIVE.

§ 71. RULE XIII. — Nouns in the possessive case are governed by the nouns they possess.

Obs. 1. — Nouns of this class indicate possession, either of *ownership, of authorship, or of relation*.

First, of *ownership*. Ex. — *John's* book: the property of John.

Secondly, of *authorship*. Ex.—Payson's works: the *authorship* belongs to Payson.

Thirdly, of *relation*. Ex.—Boys' shoes: shoes such as boys use,  
Children's shoes: shoes such as children use.

In each of these examples, all is implied that belongs to the possessive case of nouns.

Obs. 2.—The double possessive is interpreted in the same manner.

Ex.—Gould's Adams's Latin Grammar: *Adams* possesses Grammar by *authorship*; *Gould* possesses Adams's Grammar by *authorship*; both possess *Latin Grammar*.

Obs. 3.—The use of the apostrophe in the possessive is somewhat various, and not well defined. To some extent, it is regulated by taste. But it must be subject, first to perspicuity, and then to euphony: always to rule.

Obs. 4.—When common possession by several persons is implied, the possessive form is applied to the last of two or more nouns.

Ex.—Smith and Brown's store.

But, if separate possession is implied, each of the two or more nouns requires the possessive form.

Ex.—Smith's and Brown's and Jones's stores.

Obs. 5.—When two or more nouns are so closely allied as to be all necessary to the definition, the possessive form is placed at the close.

Ex.—John the Baptist's head.

Webster, Clay, and Calhoun, the American triumvirate's speeches.

In the last example, the three names are in the possessive, by virtue of the single application of the form, and they are all in apposition with *triumvirate*.

The same form of the possessive applies where several words together take a substantive character.

Ex.—He spoke of *the Author of Nature's* being responsible.

Obs. 6.—When one of two nouns is explanatory of the other, the latter should have the possessive form.

Ex.—Brown the goldsmith's store.

But, if the noun possessed be understood, either form is admissible.

Ex.—I purchased at Brown's, the goldsmith; or, at Brown the goldsmith's.

Obs. 7.—The English *possessive* is the Latin *genitive*, and may be often expressed by the objective, with the preposition *of*, to indicate its relation to the noun it possesses. This is frequently the most elegant and perspicuous form.

It is better to say—This is a psalm of David, the priest and king—than to say—This is David's psalm, the priest and king.

Obs. 8.—Nouns plural that end in *s*, add the apostrophe only, to form the possessive. As—Eagles' wings.

Obs. 9.—Some nouns singular, ending in *s* or *ss*, and nouns ending in *ce*, add the apostrophe only.

Ex.—Mechanics' Fair. For conscience' sake. For goodness' sake.

This, however, is not done, except when necessary to avoid the hissing sound of *s* doubled. We say—His Grace's presence.

Obs. 10.—The possessive form is often loosely applied.

Ex.—This is a discovery of Newton's, or of Newton.

Either of these forms may be correct—meaning, in the first form, a discovery from among Newton's discoveries; or, in the second form, his by discovery.

Precision sometimes requires special care in the use of the possessive. If I say—This is a portrait of mine, or my portrait—it may mean a portrait owned by me. But if I say—A portrait of myself—it is evident I mean my own likeness.

This is a book of mine—meaning my book, or from the number of my books.

My, and that tongue of *his*—of his person, his ownership, his possession. Here it definitely implies ownership, and does not designate one out of several of the same sort.

Obs. 11.—*Mine, thine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, are used as substitutes for the ordinary form of the possessive adjective pronoun and noun.

Ex.—This hat is mine—meaning my hat. This is yours.

The slate is his. The pencil is hers.

The paper is ours, or yours, or theirs.

These possessives are, therefore, to be parsed as the words for which they are substituted.

Some grammarians insist that these possessives should be parsed as substitutes for *his, her, thy, my, our, your, their*, agreeing with the noun understood. The effect is the same. They are *substitutes* for something. What is *his* a substitute for in the expression, That tongue of *his*?

Obs. 12.—The participle in *ing*, when used as a noun, is sometimes, though not frequently, found in the possessive case.

Ex.—His *being's* end and aim. He felt that *writing's* truth.

## RULE FOR ADJECTIVES.

§ 72. RULE XIV.—Adjectives, pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns in gender, number, and person.

Obs. 1.—When pronouns are used to describe nouns, they take the character of adjectives.

They are then called *adjective pronouns*. As—This man, these men, his

name, *her* name. They must then conform to their antecedents in *gender*, *number*, and *person*. They are singular or plural, according to the sense.

Ex. — *None* (not any) *were* absent. *None* (not one) *was* absent.  
*Their* name is legion. (*Their* refers to a class.)  
 Each, in his several sphere, excelled.

Obs. 2. — Nouns, when used to define or describe nouns, take the character of adjectives.

Ex. — An *iron* cage, a *brass* ring, a *gold* pencil, a *silver* medal.

Obs. 3. — Participles, when used to define or describe nouns, are called *participial adjectives*.

Ex. — He is a slandered man. This is a standing rule.

Obs. 4. — The ordinal numbers, *first*, *second*, &c., *one*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are joined with nouns in the singular number.

Ex. — The first day of the court finished the second case.  
 Each case required every witness.

Obs. 5. — Cardinal numbers, except *one*, *viz.*, *two*, *three*, &c., *few*, *many*, *several*, *both*, require plural nouns.

Ex. — Three days were required in every other case. Few were left.

Obs. 6. — Any adjective which can be used in a singular sense, is construed accordingly.

Ex. — Full many a flower. Many a day. (*Many* is here singular.)

Obs. 7. — *One hundred head of cattle* — *one hundred sail of ships* — *a thousand foot*, and *twelve hundred horse* — these, and similar expressions, imply plurality, and are construed accordingly. So, *a few*, *a great many*, *a hundred*, *a multitude*.

Ex. — A hundred head of cattle were sold. One hundred, at least, were left.

Obs. 8. — *A ten-foot pole*, *a ten-gallon keg*, *a fifty-six-pound weight*, *a four-quart measure*, *a twelve-month* — these are units of measure, of weight, or of time, *viz.*: *a pole* containing the foot-measure ten times repeated; *a keg* containing the capacity of a gallon ten times repeated; *a weight* containing a pound fifty-six times repeated; *a measure* containing the capacity of a quart four times repeated; *a period of time* measured by a month twelve times repeated.

Ex. — A ten-foot pole is a pole of ten feet.

A ten-gallon keg contains ten gallons.

Obs. 9. — *A* sometimes modifies the adjective following it, and gives to it a positive meaning.

Ex. — A few were present — that is, *some*, in distinction from *none*.

Omit the article, and the sense is negative: Few were present — that is, *not many*.

Obs. 10. — The article *the* is used with nouns either in the singular or plural number. Ex. — *The* man, *the* men.

It is also used to modify the sense of an adjective. As — He is the stronger of the two.

It is also used to modify the sense of an adverb. As — The *more* I know of him, the *better* I like him.

Obs. 11. — When *two* objects are compared, the comparative is used — when more than two, the superlative.

Ex. — John is a better scholar than James; but Henry is the best of all.

The superlative is proper to be used in any case to designate the highest or lowest degree.

Obs. 12. — Double comparatives or superlatives, in English, are inadmissible. In the speech of Paul to Festus, the term 'the most straitest sect' is a literal translation from the Greek; but it is not agreeable to the English idiom. Adverbs are sometimes properly used to give intensity to the superlative. As — The *very* straitest sect. *Extremest*, *veriest*, and *chiefest*, are sometimes used by good writers.

Obs. 13. — *Whichever*, *whosoever*, *whatsoever*, indefinite adjective pronouns, are sometimes divided by the interposition of the noun to which they belong. As — *Which* argument *soever*, *whose* property *soever*, *what* name *soever*. This form is regarded as euphonic and elegant, and is practised by the best writers. It does not change the grammatical construction; but *whose* and *soever* are to be parsed as the adjective pronoun, agreeing with the noun. The same occurs on the interposition of an adverb, taking the divided word as an *adverb*, or *adjective*, or a *pronoun*. As — How *much* *soever* we may feel their force; how *high* *soever*. Other words may be divided. As — To us ward.

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

WHAT IS RULE I.?

1. What modifies the number and person of the verb?
2. Must every nominative case have its verb? What two parts of speech are necessary to every sentence?
3. How are the various subjects expressed which constitute the nominative case? What office may the same word, clause, or sentence, then perform?
4. What kind of a verb is required by two or more nominatives connected by *and*? When unity is implied in the nominative?
5. With which of two nominatives of different numbers or persons must the verb agree? How when the principal subject is named last?
6. What must the verb be with two or more nominatives connected by *or* or *nor*? How when two or more nominatives, connected by *and*, apply to one subject?
7. How when two or more nominatives are of different numbers? What, then, is the position of the plural?
8. What general rule must determine the verb in number?
9. What is necessary when different persons are named? What kind of a verb does a noun of multitude require?
10. What verb does *it* require when used indefinitely? What other words are used indefinitely? Give examples of *it*, of *one*, of *they*, used indefinitely.
11. What number do

*each, every, and either*, require in the verb? May *every* be used as a collective and require the plural? Give an example. Of what number is the phrase "full many a flower"? What number is a measure of unity? Give examples. When must the verb be singular, and when plural? 12. What effect may *not* have? Give the example. How, then, do you dispose of the noun *riches*? 13. What effect may adjuncts to a singular verb have? 14. How are the number and person of a relative pronoun determined? 15. In what cases may a participial noun be used? Give examples. 16. When a phrase is used as a subject, what must be done with it? 17. What are the impersonal verbs? Why so called? Are they now used? 18. Does the imperative mode usually express the nominative case? In the expression, "Let us make man," who was addressed? Ans. — It was used to express a fact. 19. When *need* and *dare* are used without a nominative, what may be supplied? When used intransitively, what is the character of the nominative? 20. When two or more nominatives are of different persons, with which must the verb be made to agree? What is a better form? 21. When different persons are named, what order is required? 22. How are captions, titles, signatures, dates, &c., parsed? 23. What is the natural position of the nominative? When is this order varied? When the question employs two words in the predicate, where is the nominative placed?

WHAT IS RULE II.? 1. What classes of verbs have the same cases after as before them? 2. Do intransitive verbs ever take a transitive sense? Give examples. 3. When an intransitive verb infinitive follows a transitive verb and its object, what case then follows the infinitive? Ans. — The objective case, because the objective case has come before the verb. How must the noun used in predication be construed?

WHAT IS RULE III.? 1. What is said of nouns used in emphatic repetition? Give examples. Why, in *himself, themselves, &c.*, is the objective form of the pronoun preserved in the compound words? What is the effect of emphatic repetition? Give examples. 2. When a verb infinitive, a clause, or sentence, possesses a substantive character, how is it sometimes used in relation to a noun? Give the example. 3. How do you parse first names and titles? Give the reason why, in the name of General Zachary Taylor, you parse the two first words as adjectives? 4. What is said of *as*? Turn to the example under this Obs., and give your opinion of the sentence. 5. "The Messrs. Smith" — in what number is that? "The two Mr. Smiths" — in what number is that? Do you, in each of these examples, parse the name and the title as a collective noun? "Here rests his head, upon the lap of earth, a youth to fortune and to fame unknown" — how do you parse *youth*?

WHAT IS RULE IV.? When is the nominative case independent? What is the nominative case? May nominatives independent always be supplied with verbs?

WHAT IS RULE V.? 1. May the noun and participle, in this connection, be always resolved into a simple sentence? Give an example.

WHAT IS RULE VI.? 2. Must all pronouns preserve a conformity of number, person, and gender, to the nouns to which they refer? 3. If two or more antecedent nouns are connected by *and*, what number is required in the pronoun referring to them? If connected by *or* or *nor*? How, if one of the nouns is plural? 4. Must the relative agree with the antecedent in gender? 5. How, when the nouns antecedent are of different persons? 6. How does the neuter pronoun *it* refer to its antecedents in regard to gender, number, and person? 7. What is the reference of *this* and *these, that* and *those*? 8. What is necessary in tracing the antecedent of the relative? Give the example. 9. Can the possessive pronoun be the antecedent of a relative? 10. When a contiguous relative and antecedent have each a verb, which is the first in order? Do relatives refer to any words except nouns? Can the possessive *his* be used for *its*? What is the position of the relative?

WHAT IS RULE VII.? 1. Into what words is the compound pronoun *what* resolved? 2. What other compounds are used?

WHAT IS RULE VIII.? 1. What may constitute an objective noun? 2. May one transitive verb govern more than one objective case? 3. Do intransitive verbs ever admit the objective case? When? May the same verb be sometimes used either in a transitive or an intransitive sense? 4. What government have participles? 5. May the participle in *ing* govern the objective case when used as a noun? When it has an article before it? 6. Position of the objective case? Relative pronoun, objective? Is the objective ever transposed? When?

WHAT IS RULE IX.? Can one of these objectives be governed by a preposition?

WHAT IS RULE X.? Does this Rule show clearly the relation of the objective case after the passive verb?

WHAT IS RULE XI.? 1. What constitutes the object of the preposition? 2. To what words may the preposition show relation? 3. What words may be prepositions? 4. Are *than* and *as* ever prepositions? 5. May double prepositions be used? 6. Let the teacher ask an explanation of those specified. Also, in Obs. 7, 8, 9, 10, 11. 12. What do prepositions generally follow? 13. Their construction after nouns? 14. After verbs? 15. After adjectives? 16. In regard to place, what is the use of *to, at, in*? Let the teacher require examples. 17.? 18. May the preposition be transposed? 19. How placed?

WHAT IS RULE XII.? May nouns, under this Rule, be governed by a preposition?

WHAT IS RULE XIII.? 1. What kind of possession do possessive nouns imply? 2. How are double possessives interpreted? 3. By what general rule must the use of the apostrophe be regulated? 4. How, when common possession by several persons is implied? 5. How, when several nouns are allied in the definition? 6. How, when one of two nouns is explanatory of the other? 7. How may the possessive be otherwise expressed? 8. How, when the noun plural ends in *s*? 9. How, in other cases? 10. How is the posses-

sive sometimes loosely applied? Give examples. 11. Use of *mine, thine, &c.*? 12. Is the participle in *ing* ever used in the possessive?

WHAT IS RULE XIV.? 1. When are pronouns used as adjectives? 2. When are nouns used as adjectives? 3. What are participial adjectives? 4. With what nouns are ordinals joined? 5. Cardinals? 6. What adjectives are construed in the singular? 7. What, in the plural? 8. What are units of measure? Examples. 9. Use of *a* in defining a following adjective? 10. Use of *the*? 11. What are the rules observed where two objects are compared? 12. What is said of double comparatives? 13. What is said of the division of some pronouns?

### RULES FOR THE VERBS.

§ 73. RULE XV. — The verb is made to agree with the subject or nominative case in number and person.

Obs. 1. — The infinitive mode and the participle have no variations of form on account of number or person.

Obs. 2. — The variations of the verb, to conform to the number and person of the nominative, are principally in the auxiliaries, and in the irregular verb *to be*.

The two Formulas, given in Part I., of the regular verb *love* and the irregular verb *be*, will enable the learner readily to adapt and apply the variations to all other verbs.

§ 74. RULE XVI. — The verb in the infinitive mode is governed by the verb, noun, or adjective, that modifies it.

Ex. — *I hope to see you.*  
*I expect you to come.*  
*It is pleasant to meet you.*

Obs. 1. — The infinitive mode is never used as a predicate, and has no nominative case; hence its name, *infinitive* or *indefinite*. It is modified by the word on which it depends, and by which, therefore, it is said to be governed — usually by a verb, a noun, or an adjective.

Obs. 2. — The omission of the conjunction *that*, in compound sentences, often throws out the nominative, and elegantly employs the infinitive form of the verb, preceded by *than* or *as*, by which it is governed.

Ex. — His argument was so abstruse *as to be* incomprehensible — *for, that* it was incomprehensible.  
 It needed nothing more *than to be* comprehended — *for, it* needed nothing more, only *that* it should be comprehended.  
 The object was so high *as to be* invisible — *for, that* it was invisible.

*Than* and *as*, when thus used, must submit to the general rule, and be parsed according to the sense, in each particular case. Sometimes they have the qualifying sense of an adverb, and sometimes the governing sense of a preposition to the clause that follows them.

Obs. 3. — The infinitive sometimes follows, and depends upon, various other parts of speech or phrases.

Ex. — He was inclined to go. (Here, the infinitive is governed by the participle *inclined*.)

He was about to go. (Here, *about* is a preposition, and governs the infinitive, in the nature of a noun: about the act of going.)

He knew how to go. (Here, the infinitive depends on the adverb *how*, which qualifies it.)

Be so good as to sing. (Here, the infinitive depends on the adverb *as*, which qualifies it. The meaning is this — Be so good as this is, viz., to sing.)

Obs. 4. — The infinitive is sometimes used independently. As — To be candid, you are in error.

This form of expression is common, and manifestly elliptical. Thus — If you will allow me to be candid, &c.

Obs. 5. — Verbs that follow *bid, dare, make, feel, see, hear, need, &c.*, are construed in the infinitive, without the sign *to* before them.

Ex. — He bid me *follow*. I dare *follow*. See him *weep*. He felt the spear *pierce* his side. Hear it *thunder*. Who need *fear*?

Obs. 6. — The verb in the infinitive has a substantive meaning, and is frequently used as a noun, either in the nominative or objective case.

Ex. — *To do good* is to obey God — that is, doing good is to obey God.

*Doing* and *obeying* are the substantive forms of *to do* and *to obey* — they are substantives.

Obs. 7. — If the infinitive, or a participle of the intransitive verb *to be*, or of a passive verb of *naming, choosing, &c.*, is used substantively, the noun or adjective which follows it partakes of the same character, and, with the verb or participle, forms the subject.

Ex. — *To be good* is to be happy. Being good is being happy. Goodness constitutes happiness. (Here, *good* and *happy* are used indefinitely, and form a constituent part of the subject.)

So — To be a good man is praiseworthy. Here, *a good man* is used indefinitely, forming, with *to be*, the subject of the verb *is*: — his being a good man is praiseworthy.

*Man* is neither the subject nor object of the sentence, nor has it any government. It is a part of the subject of the verb *is*, with which subject *praiseworthy* agrees as an adjective.

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

WHAT IS RULE XV.? 1. Why does not this Rule apply to the infinitive verb? 2. To what parts of the verb do the variations in form pertain to express number and person?

WHAT IS RULE XVI.? 1. Is the infinitive verb ever used as a predicate? By what word is it modified? 2. What effect has the insertion or omission of the conjunction *that*? Give examples. *Than* and *as*? 3. On what other words does the infinitive sometimes depend? Examples. 4. Explain the infinitive used independently. 5. The infinitive after *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, &c.? 6. Explain how the infinitive has a *substantive* meaning. 7. Explain how the infinitive or a participle, with an adjective, is used as the subject, nominative.

## RULES FOR THE PARTICLES.

§ 75. RULE XVII.—Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

OBS. 1. — Adverbs sometimes qualify nouns.

Ex. — *Even infants* recognize their friends.

Adverbs may qualify prepositions.

Ex. — He has read *almost through* Virgil. He read the book *almost to* the end. I arrived *just before* nightfall. He went *directly under* the bridge.

Adverbs may qualify a phrase or sentence.

Ex. — He was *greatly in fault*. *Even in their ashes* live their wonted fires.

Some prefer to apply the qualifying sense of the adverb to the phrase that follows, instead of the preposition, in the second class of examples.

OBS. 2. — In most cases, where adverbs stand at the commencement of a sentence, they qualify either what succeeds, or what precedes, or an ellipsis. As — *Yes, no, therefore, then, however, well, why, there, now, &c.*

In parsing, a close analysis should be applied, not only to assign adjuncts to their proper connections, but to each word its appropriate force, by designating its separate relations, and by supplying ellipses.

Expletives and independent phrases should be carefully avoided, otherwise the language is liable to be rendered loose and indefinite.

*Yes, no*, and words of this class, should be appropriately applied, as well as words of emphatic repetition.

Ex. — In Pitt's celebrated conclusion of a speech on the American Revolution: "If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign soldier remained in my country, I would never lay down my arms — no, never, never, never!"

This emphatic negative is full of force on the verb and on the declaration.

Take its counterpart, our Declaration of Independence: the unanimous *yea* that completed its adoption, re-echoed from a million of voices through the land, qualified the declaration, and affirmed it.

Adverbs of this class should not be regarded as expletives; but, on the contrary, as *especially emphatic*, and giving power to language by strengthening and enforcing its import.

The qualifying sense of these affirmatives and negatives, though separated from the rest of the sentence, is frequently very apparent and forcible.

OBS. 3. — A phrase or sentence is sometimes used adverbially, to qualify a word or sentence.

But then the word or phrase used adverbially should be analyzed, and each word parsed separately.

Ex. — He goes *with trembling step*. I will go *before the house adjourns*.

OBS. 4. — *Hence, thence, and whence*, imply the preposition *from*.

Ex. — *Hence: from this place. Thence: from that place.*

*Whence: from which place.*

But the use of the preposition by good writers has given it authority.

*From here, from there, from where*, are also sometimes used. They are adverbial, but should be parsed as nouns, with their governing prepositions.

*At once* and *by far* may be referred to the same class.

OBS. 5. — *Here, there, and where*, are used, after verbs of motion, instead of *hither, thither, and whither*, except in solemn discourse.

OBS. 6. — *There* is used, before a verb, to introduce a sentence in a general sense, for *euphony* or *emphasis*, without regard to place. But it, perhaps, never fails to have a qualifying sense of some sort, and should be made to do its office.

Ex. — There is mercy in every place — i. e., mercy is there in every place.

OBS. 7. — *Where* is sometimes used for *in which*.

Ex. — He wrote a treatise on theology, *where* he broached new theories.

*When, then, now, and while*, are used as nouns.

Ex. — Until *when* — until *then* — until *now* — there was peace.

A little *while*, and ye shall not see me.

*Then* and *often* are used as adjectives.

Ex. — The *then* necessity was his justification. *Often* times. *Often* infirmities. The sense here is sufficiently explicit; but the style is rendered harsh, and it should be avoided.

OBS. 8. — *So* is often used, elliptically, for a noun, or for a sentence.

Ex. — He never pays his debts — I was told *so*.

*So* is sometimes used in the sense of *if*, and introduces the subjunctive mode.

Ex. — *So* he pay his debts, little is thought of how he gets the money.

OBS. 9. — *Only, chiefly, merely, solely, also, too*, sometimes qualify nouns, in the nature of adjectives.

Ex. — Not your boys *only*, but mine *also*, study well.

He, *chiefly*, was in fault.

Yet, not he *only* was guilty, but his brother *too*, and his cousin *also*.

Obs. 10. — Two negatives qualifying the same sentence, except in emphatic repetition, give an affirmative sense.

Ex. — It is *not uncommon* — i. e., it is common.

I will *not never* do it — i. e., I will sometimes do it.

Sometimes, however, the affirmative is thus elegantly expressed. As, in Milton —

“Nor did they *not* perceive the evil plight  
In which they were, or the fierce pain *not* feel.”

Obs. 11. — Compound adverbs, embracing two or more words, are sometimes, but rarely indispensable. They should always be parsed separately, when the sense will admit.

*To wit* may be parsed as a verb infinitive. As — I make you *to wit* — i. e., to know. But it is usually considered an adverb, as is *videlicet* — viz.

*Now then* has a combined and expressive reference to what has been said in connection with what is about to be said.

*And now* is of similar import, connecting and qualifying.

*By the by*, *by and by*, &c., are compound adverbs, incapable of separation.

*The sooner* it is done, *the better* it will be, presents two compound adverbs, qualifying the verbs of the clauses to which they respectively belong.

Obs. 12. — The adverb *enough* is placed after the adjective it qualifies, and it then requires the adjective to be placed after the noun.

Ex. — A house large *enough* for the family.

Obs. 13. — Adverbs are often used for *connectives*, qualifying the sentences they connect.

Ex. — He governs his children strictly, *while* he loves them tenderly.

Obs. 14. — Any word may be an adverb when used to qualify in an adverbial sense.

*Phrases* and *sentences* are also often adverbial.

Obs. 15. — Adverbs are convertible into other parts of speech when used for them.

*So* is sometimes used for an adjective, for a noun, or for a sentence.

Ex. — He is *liberal*; his brother is not *so*.

He is *ruining his fortune*; all his friends think *so*.

He is a *good citizen*; his brother is *so too*.

Obs. 16. — *What* is sometimes used as an adverb in the sense of *partly*.

Ex. — *What* with the cloak, and *what* with the roquelaur, I was encumbered.

*Adjectives* are used as adverbs.

Ex. — The wind blew *fresh*. He grows *old*.

§ 76. RULE XVIII. — A preposition governs a noun in the objective case, and shows its relation to other words.

Obs. 1. — See Rule XI, a noun in the objective case governed by a preposition.

Obs. 2. — Prepositions place the nouns that depend upon them in the objective case. Besides the original noun, the grammatical object may be constituted of —

A *pronoun*: He is with *us*.

An *adjective*: Honor to the *brave*.

An *adverb*: Since *then*, he has returned.

A *participle*: In the *beginning*.

A *phrase*: Come out *from* among them.

A *sentence*: *To* where the broad ocean beats against the land.

Obs. 3. — The antecedent term of a relation shown by a preposition may be a *noun*, an *adjective*, a *verb*, a *participle*, an *adverb*.

A *verb* and a *noun*: Live *in* charity with all men.

The *adjective*: *Joyful* in tribulation.

The *participle*: *Living* in hope.

The *adverb*: He sailed *almost* round the world.

Obs. 4. — Prepositions sometimes have a qualifying sense on verbs.

Obs. 5. — Independent phrases, introduced by prepositions, find the antecedent terms of relation by supplying the ellipsis.

Ex. — As *for* me, my resolution is fixed — i. e., as it may be *for* me.

Obs. 6. — Prepositions often use other parts of speech to perform their office. They are always defined by the relation they indicate.

Ex. — All *but* one escaped. He said nothing *concerning* me.

Send *via* Boston. Satan, *than* whom none higher sat.

Here, *than* and *but*, conjunctions — *concerning*, a participle — *via*, a noun — are used as prepositions.

Obs. 7. — A participle, used as a preposition, can have no relation to a noun, to qualify or predicate, but only to show its relation.

Obs. 8. — *Prepositions* are sometimes syncopated.

Ex. — Five o'clock — for, *five of the clock*.

Coffee is quoted at fourteen *a* sixteen cents.

Thomas *a* Becket is put for Thomas *of* Becket.

Thomas *a* Kempis for Thomas *of* Kempis.

Fourteen *a* sixteen cents is a contraction for *at*, showing the minimum and maximum prices.

Obs. 9. — Prepositions are sometimes incorporated with the noun.

Ex. — I go *a*-fishing, he fell *asleep*, come *aboard*, &c. — meaning *at* or *to* fishing, *at* or *to* sleep, *on* board, and should be so parsed.

So, also, *a*-foot, *a*-coming, *a*-dying.

OBS. 10. — Prepositions are sometimes used as component parts of verbs in predication.

Ex. — He was laughed *at*. The child was cared *for*.

§ 77. RULE XIX. — Conjunctions connect words and sentences.

OBS. 1. — Conjunctions connect words of the same case only.

Ex. — John *and* James study.

OBS. 2. — Conjunctions connect verbs of the same modes and tenses.

Ex. — John *loves and obeys* his parents.

OBS. 3. — But conjunctions may connect verbs belonging to different parts of a compound sentence, or to different sentences; and then those verbs may be of different modes and tenses, each having generally its own nominative.

Ex. — *If* I go, you must stay. I will go, *but* you must stay.

OBS. 4. — After verbs of *doubting, fearing, and denying*, the conjunction *that* should be used.

Ex. — I do not fear *that* he may deceive me — not *lest*.

I do not doubt *that* he will come — not *but that*, nor *but*, nor *but what*.

OBS. 5. — *Than*, commonly a conjunction, has the force of a preposition in such positions as the following: —

Ex. — Satan, *than* whom none higher sat.

Thou shalt have no other gods *than* me.

The present is a crisis, *than* which none more serious has arisen.

OBS. 6. — *As* has sometimes the force of a preposition

Ex. — I have spoken of his character *as* a statesman.

OBS. 7. — *Than* and *as* require a similar construction *after as before* them.

Ex. — He does more *than* you do — not so much *as* I do.

OBS. 8. — *Than* and *as* are sometimes used as relative pronouns after *such, more, and as*.

Ex. 1. — He selected *such* men *as* were suited to the work.

2. — He selected *more* men *than* were necessary.

3. — He selected *as* many *as* were ready.

OBS. 9. — In compound sentences, conjunctions sometimes correspond with *other conjunctions* — with *adverbs* — with *pronouns*.

*Corresponding conjunctions* : —

Ex. 1. — *Though* — *yet, still, nevertheless*. *As* — *Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him — *nevertheless*, I will trust in him.

2. — *Whether* — *or*. *As* — *Whether* right or wrong, he is sincere.

*Whether* should not be repeated in the second clause with *or*.

3. — *Either* — *or*. *As* — He is *either* right or wrong.

4. — *Neither* — *nor*. *As* — He is *neither* learned nor eloquent.

5. — *Or* — *or*, and *nor* — *nor*. These are sometimes elegantly used by the poets, for *either* — *or*, and for *neither* — *nor*.

6. — *No* — *or*, and *not* — *or*, are used, and sometimes with effect, but should not be frequent.

7. — *Both* — *and*. *As* — Gold is valuable, *both* for use *and* for ornament.

*Conjunctions* correspond with *adverbs* : —

Ex. 1. — One is *as* good *as* the other.

2. — Be *so* good *as* to dine with me.

3. — He is *so* faithless *that* none trust him.

*Corresponding adverbs* also perform the double office of connecting and qualifying : —

Ex. 1. — *As* — *so*. *As* — *As* the tree falleth *so* it lieth.

3. — *So* — *as*. *As* — No other vice is *so* pernicious *as* selfishness.

3. — *Not only* — *but also*. *As* — He is *not only* great, *but also* good.

A *conjunction* may correspond with an *adjective pronoun* : —

Ex. 1. — *Such* — *that*. *As* — *Such* is his integrity, *that* all confide in him.

2. — *Both* — *and*. *As* — *Both* he *and* his brother were present.

OBS. 10. — Relative pronouns perform the office of connectives.

So do adverbs and prepositions.

The relative always connects the sentence which contains the *antecedent* with that which belongs to the *relative*.

Ex. — He aims too low, *who* aims beneath the stars.

The *adverb*. *As* — Live *while* you live.

The *preposition*. *As* — We live *in* our children *after* we are dead.

OBS. 11. — The conjunction *and* is suited to a closer relation than pertains between complex sentences. Its use, therefore, to introduce new sentences, and, much more, *paragraphs*, should be avoided. It is commonly expletive, and weakens the force of language.

OBS. 12. — Double conjunctions are sometimes used from necessity; but these should be parsed separately when practicable.

Ex. — He is rich, *and yet* he talks *as if* he were a poor man.

In this example, *and yet* is a compound conjunction, required to connect and show diversity of meaning between the two simple sentences.

*As if* is a compound conjunction, but capable of analysis. Thus — *As* he would talk *if* he were a poor man. *As*, then, becomes a connective *adverb*, qualifying *would talk*, understood; and *if* is a *conjunction*, connecting *would talk* with *were*.

OBS. 13. — The double connectives *and now* and *now then* are frequently found introducing sentences. They are often very expressive.

Take the discourse of Peter, at the beautiful gate of the Temple: — “*And now, brethren, I wot that through ignorance ye did it, as did also your rulers.*” The recitation of facts had been made, and a new aspect of the sub-

ject was to be introduced. *And* closely connects it with what had gone before. *Now* qualifies *wot*, while it concentrates all that had been said upon the sentence immediately pending. The two words are full of force in this relation.

In the other example — *now then* — *now* calls attention to what is about to be said, while *then* refers to what had preceded as being now present.

Obs. 14. — “I know not *but what* the report is true.” This is inadmissible, in whatever sense *but what* may be disposed of. “I know not *that* the report is true” will give a correct grammatical construction.

“I cannot *but* believe” must also be reduced to “I can *but* believe,” “I can *only* believe” — there is no alternative; or, “I cannot help believing.”

§ 78. RULE XX. — Interjections are often independent exclamations, but sometimes qualify, by giving emphasis to, words and sentences.

Ex. — Ah me! O, miserable man!

Obs. 1. — Interjections are often mere exclamations, and are unconnected, by any well-defined grammatical rule, with what precedes or follows them. Yet, in composition, they must have some grammatical relation, as called forth by the particular sentiments expressed.

Obs. 2. — The uses of the interjection are: —

*First.* A call of attention to something about to be said. *As* — Ho! every one that thirsteth. Lo! the poor Indian. Or, it is a simple call to attention. *As* — Halloo!

*Secondly.* To give emphasis to some word or expression of significance. *As* — O times! O manners! O Lord, forgive!

*Thirdly.* To express some sudden passion or emotion of the mind. *As* — Virtue, alas, how little honored! Ah me! O, how cruel! Alack!

*Fourthly.* To cheer or applaud a person, an action, or a principle. *As* — Hurrah! Hail!

*Fifthly.* An expression of contempt. *As* — Pshaw! Humph! Away

*Sixthly.* To express, by various words used out of their common relations, various emotions of surprise, or approbation, or reproof. *As* — Strange! Hark! &c. But, usually, these are parsed by a supply of ellipses. *As* — This is strange! Hark ye! &c. So with the salutations and valedictories — Welcome! Adieu! Good-bye! Farewell!

## QUESTIONS OF REVIEW.

WHAT IS RULE XVII.? 1. May adverbs sometimes qualify nouns, prepositions, a phrase, a sentence? Give examples. 2. When adverbs stand at the beginning of a sentence, what do they qualify? Give examples. What is said of expletives? 3. What is said of an adverbial phrase or sentence? 4. What of *hence*, *whence*, &c.? *From here* — *from there*? *At once* — *by far*? 5. How are *here*, *there*, and *where*, used? 6. How is *there* used to introduce a sentence? Examples. 7. What is *where* sometimes used for? What are *when*, *then*, *now*, and *while*, sometimes used for? *Then* and *often*? 8. What is *so* sometimes used for? Give examples. 9. *Only*, *chiefly*, *merely*, &c.? 10. What effect have two negatives in a sentence? 11. Can compound adverbs be used? How must they generally be analyzed? Take the different examples cited. 12. Position of the adverb *enough*? 13. Are adverbs used as connectives? 14. When is a word used as an adverb? 15. When are adverbs used for other parts of speech? What is *so* sometimes used for? 16. Is *what* ever an adverb? Example.

WHAT IS RULE XVIII.? 1. What is the converse of this Rule? 2. What may the object be constituted of? 3. What may the antecedent term of the relation be? 4. Do prepositions ever qualify verbs? 5. When independent phrases are introduced by a preposition, how is the antecedent relation found? 6. Are other words used for prepositions? Give examples. 7. What is said of the participle used as a preposition? 8. Give examples of prepositions syn-copated. 9. Give examples of prepositions incorporated with the noun. 10. How are prepositions used as component parts of verbs? Give examples.

WHAT IS RULE XIX.? 1. What cases do conjunctions connect? 2. What verbs? 3. May they connect verbs of different modes and tenses? 4. What forms are used after verbs of *doubting*, *fearing*, *denying*, &c.? 5. When has *than* the force of a preposition? 6. *As*? 7. What construction do *than* and *as* require after them? 8. Are they ever used as relative pronouns? Give examples. 9. What are corresponding conjunctions? Name different examples. Conjunctions with adverbs? Corresponding adverbs? Corresponding with adjective pronouns? 10. State the connective character of the relative pronoun. 11. Does *and* connect complex sentences? 12. What is said of double conjunctions? 13. What is said of double connectives to introduce a sentence? 11. What of *but what*?

WHAT IS RULE XX.? 1. What is said of the interjection? 2. Their uses in six particulars?

## COLLOQUY.

## CONVERSATION I.

## FATHER, FRANK, AND LUCY.

FATHER. — Well, my children, you have passed through the Nursery course on English Grammar, and have spent your first quarter at school. I now wish to examine your progress, as you say you have passed through the "Primary Grammar."

LUCY. — I know it all, father; and you must give me the premium you promised, a calf-bound gilt edition of Milton's Paradise Lost.

FATHER. — I will perform my promise, if you fulfil the condition. That all may be fair, I will conduct the examination by review. I will give you, Lucy, a sentence to analyze: "Full many a flower is born to blush unseen."

LUCY. — The Grammar teaches that when one part of speech is used for another part of speech, it takes the character of the word whose office it performs. The Grammar also teaches that the subject nominative consists of the *subject* about which the verb asserts something, and that this subject often employs other words than the simple noun to express it; and, also, that the noun in number is determined by the number *implied* in the nominative or subject. The same is true of the adjective, by which the noun is qualified or described.

FATHER. — Very well; your premises are right. I grant them — proceed.

LUCY. — "Full" is commonly an *adjective*; but it is here used in the character of an *adverb*, to qualify the adjective *many*. It has nearly the meaning, in this place, of the adverb *very*. It is, therefore, an adverb, and qualifies *many*, by Rule XVII.

"Many" is an *adjective*, properly *plural*, but here used in the sense of a *distributive*, designating each of several considered separately; it is, therefore, in the *singular number*, and agrees with and qualifies *flower*, by Rule XIV.

"A" is an *indefinite article*, and agrees, as an adjective, with *flower*, by Rule XIV.

"Flower" is a *noun*, the name of a thing; *singular number*, meaning one; *third person*, spoken of; *nominative case* to the verb *is born*, by Rule I.

"Is born" is a *verb, irregular* — bear, bore, born; *passive*, terminates the

action on the nominative; *indicative mode*, simply asserts something of its nominative; *present tense*, used with latitude, and expresses a general fact. It is made to agree in number and person with its nominative *flower*, or its subject *full many a flower*, by Rule XV.

"To blush" is a *verb, regular* — blush, blushed, blushed; *intransitive*, does not admit the objective after it; *infinitive mode*, without distinction of number, or person, or nominative; *present tense*, and is governed by the verb *is born*, by Rule XVI.

"Unseen" is an *adjective*, qualifies and agrees with *flower*, by Rule XIV.

FATHER. — Very well. — Let Frank define a *noun*, and the other *parts of speech* belonging to the noun.

FRANK. — A *noun* is a name — the *pronoun*, being a name, is a noun. The *adjective* expresses some quality or definition of the noun, and is therefore regarded as a part of the noun or name; and the *article* is of the nature of an adjective.

FATHER. — Define the *verb*, and the *particles*.

FRANK. — The *verb* asserts something of the noun or subject.

It is *transitive* when it has or implies an object after it, on which the action terminates.

It is *intransitive* when it neither has nor implies an object after it.

The same verb is sometimes used in a transitive and sometimes in an intransitive sense.

The transitive verb is *passive* when it is so formed as to terminate the action on the nominative case.

When transitive verbs have not the *passive form*, they are called *active*.

They are called *regular* in form when the imperfect tense and perfect participle are formed by adding *ed* to the present, or *d* only when the verb ends in *e*. They are called *irregular* when they are not so formed.

The *adverb* qualifies the verb and various other parts of speech.

The *preposition* governs the objective case, and shows its relation.

The *conjunction* connects words and sentences.

The *interjection* is an ejaculation, expressing surprise or emotion.

FATHER. — What do you understand by an *adjunct*?

FRANK. — Adjuncts are qualifying words or phrases in a simple sentence, used to amplify, limit, or qualify its principal parts. These adjuncts may themselves be words or phrases, and an adjunct may qualify an adjunct. As, "The worth of a friend in adversity cannot be estimated by money." In this sentence, *of a friend* is an adjunct of *worth*; *in adversity* is an adjunct of the first adjunct, *of a friend*; and *by money* is an adjunct of *estimated*.

FATHER. — What do you understand by the *predicate* as distinguished from the *simple verb*?

FRANK. — The *verb* is the word that *asserts* or *affirms*; the *predicate* employs other words in the assertion. As, "Writing-paper is white; wrapping-paper

is brown." In each of these propositions, *is* is the verb. In the first, *is white* is the predicate; and in the second, *is brown* is the predicate. *Whiteness* is the thing affirmed of the first kind of paper. *Brownness* is the thing asserted of the second.

FATHER. — What do you understand by the *logical subject* and the *logical predicate*?

FRANK. — They contain something more than the simple noun and verb, and involve a process of thought which is called *logical*. In the sentences just cited, *writing paper*, in the first example, is the *logical subject*; *is white* is the *logical predicate*. In the other, *wrapping paper* is the *logical subject*, and *is brown*, the *logical predicate*. The distinction requires thinking, and inferences from premises.

FATHER. — Very well. Now give the natural arrangement which belongs to the different classes of words in a sentence.

FRANK. — In the natural order of arrangement, the *subject* or *nominative case* comes before the verb; the *object* or *objective case*, after the verb; the *possessive case*, immediately before the noun it possesses; the *pronoun* follows the construction of the noun; the *adjective* has its natural place before the noun it qualifies; the *verb* follows its nominative; the *adverb* belongs in position near the verb or the word it qualifies; the *preposition* is placed before its objective noun and in near connection with its related word or clause; the *conjunction* between the words or sentences it connects; and the *interjection* usually before the word or sentence which expresses the cause of the passion or emotion.

FATHER. — Very well. Now state the process of analysis or parsing.

FRANK. — 1. Resolve compound sentences into simple ones. 2. Designate the *nominative* and *verb* of each sentence, with the *object* of the verb. 3. Designate the *adjuncts* and qualifying clauses of these principal parts of the sentence, whether they be words or phrases. 4. Designate the connective words, whether *prepositions*, *conjunctions*, or *interjections*. 5. Apply, in each case, the rules which govern the relations of the parts of speech to each other respectively.

FATHER. — Let little Lucy now analyze and parse the following sentence:— "A ten foot pole is a measure of distance, ten feet in length."

LUCY. — I can do it. *A ten foot pole* is the logical subject, nominative to the verb *is*—it is the name of a well-known measure. *A* belongs to *pole*—an indefinite article, singular, meaning one, and agrees with the noun *pole*, as an adjective, by Rule XIV. *Ten-foot* is an adjective, compound, and agrees with *pole*, by Rule XIV. *Pole* is a noun, the substantive of the logical subject, and it is the nominative case to the verb *is*. The second *a* belongs to *measure*, as an article, by Rule XIV. *Measure* is a noun, third person, singular number,

and shows its relation to *measure*, by Rule XVIII. *Distance* is a noun, of the third person, singular number, objective case, and is governed by the preposition *of*, by Rule XI. *Of distance* is an adjunct phrase, belonging to *measure*. *Ten* is an adjective, and agrees with *feet*, by Rule XIV. *Feet* is a noun, third person, singular, and is without any word to govern it, by Rule XII. *In* is a preposition, governs *length*, and shows its relation to *feet*. *Length* is a noun, third person, singular, objective case, and is governed by the preposition *in*, by Rule XI.

FATHER. — But you will find some who may be disposed to criticise your construction of the adjective. How will you reply to them?

LUCY. — Why, I would say that this form of expression has passed into a settled and admitted form in the language. As—a two penny loaf—a three penny politician—a fifteen shilling lawyer—a four penny business—a four-footed animal—a four fold state—a two edged sword—a twelve month.

FATHER. — But can you find a principle clearly admitted which allows this interpretation?

LUCY. — Yes. *A hundred* is singular, and means one repeated *ten times ten*. On the other hand, *a hundred head* implies plurality, and the singular *a* and the singular *head* are both construed as plural. It is necessary to control, in many cases, the grammatical construction of the words by the sense.

FATHER. — Undoubtedly; and good writers so use and sanction it. It is the most easy and natural way to dispose of expressions of this class. But, can the simple noun *pole* be the nominative to *is*, in this example?

LUCY. — Not in this example; because it would not be true to say, "A pole is a measure ten feet in length." The subject must be defined: "A ten foot pole."

## CONVERSATION II.

FATHER. — I will now ask your opinions on a controverted form of expression in our language. We say, "John is building a house"—"The house *is building*"—"The house *is being built*." What is the proper passive form?

FRANK. — The house *is building*. This is analogous to the Latin.

LUCY. — I know nothing of the Latin; but I know something of the English. I have been studying it closely for five or six months, and I ought to know something of it in that time. Now, father has told us, that *have had* is the *definite past tense*, or the *perfect*:—thus, *have* is present, and *had* is past; combined, they represent the *past* and the *present*, and represent an action as *past and finished at the present time*—that is, perfect, or past definite. Now, in the example, "The house *is being built*"

and *built* is past. The combination, then, represents a house now progressing, contemplated to be finished at a future time, which, when completed, represents the house as *built*. Is not that the precise idea? And does it not accord with the explanation given of the other compound tenses?

FATHER. — I give you credit, my little girl, for some philosophy and some logic. But all will not receive your conclusions, and something more can be said on the other side.

FRANK. — If Lucy's logic is sound, is it not like her "two-edged sword"? May it not cut two ways? If *building* expresses work progressive, does not the term *is building* indicate what is present progressive? We say, "The sun is rising" — "The Campbells are coming," &c.

LUCY. — Yes; but the *sun* actually exists, *is* — *rising* asserts a progressive condition or state of that which actually is. The *Campbells* exist, *they are* — *coming* is a progressive present action of the Campbells. But the *house* does not exist, *is not*, but in prospect. We cannot assert of the house, as we can assert of the sun and of the Campbells, that it *is*. It is *to be* — commenced, it is to be built, or the house is *being built*.

FATHER. — I repeat that Lucy seems to have placed her argument in the strongest terms to maintain her position. But the whole subject is still in controversy, and I shall leave you and the subject to the decision of future time. Both forms are in use. Frank's construction has the sanction of the best writers, and is best sustained by analogy; Lucy's is in more general use.

These forms of expression are not without their difficulties. Frank is sustained by the analogy of other languages. But we are to recur too, in all questions of grammatical construction, to the analogy of our own language; and are sometimes obliged to consult also the genius of the language, and our peculiar modes of construction. Perspicuity is the great law which should control all our forms of speech, since the use of language is to express with precision our thoughts. It is probable that the form for which Lucy contends has been introduced by the difficulty which some peculiar combinations involve in the use of the other form. As, when we say, "The building is building" — "The dinner is eating" — "The contract is writing" — "The work is finishing" — "The accounts are closing." Expressions of this sort have probably favored the use of Lucy's form.

When I say, "John is building," an object is implied, and we supply a *house*, or whatever structure is referred to. If we make that object the nominative, the idea is not entirely free from confusion. As, "The house is building by John." Can this double sense of the participle be avoided? It can always be avoided by circumlocution. As, "The house is in progress of erection" — "It is in a course of erection." I have never seen a perfectly satisfactory discussion of this perplexing form of expression. I therefore choose to leave it as an open question, without insisting that you shall at present adopt either form exclusively.

FATHER. — What words among those of the First Class has it been most difficult for you to understand?

FRANK. — The second form of the possessives of the personal pronouns — *mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*. I do not well understand them now.

LUCY. — I understand them. *Mine* and *thine* are not now used with the nouns following, except in solemn discourse. *Hers, ours, yours, theirs*, and also *his*, are used as *substitutes* for the *possessive and the noun*. The rule is, that any word may have the character of that part of speech for which it is made the substitute; and, therefore, they may be parsed as nouns, either in the nominative or objective. As, "This book is *mine*" — i. e., *my book*. *Mine* is substituted for *my book*, and must be parsed as that would be parsed for which it is substituted.

FRANK. — That is very awkward, to make a *possessive pronoun* a noun in the nominative or objective case.

LUCY. — No more awkward than to make a preposition of a conjunction, which we sometimes do — no more awkward than a great many other peculiar constructions. Father says that language is conventional, or is used by agreement to signify what we understand by it. Whatever, then, is plain and admitted, is right.

FRANK. — My teacher makes *mine* a substitute for *my*, the possessive adjective pronoun, which is made to agree with *book* — thus, "This book is *mine*" — i. e., *my book*.

FATHER. — Will you accept of that construction, little Lucy?

LUCY. — Yes, sir, I will; for it comes to the same thing, and you tell us never to contend for distinctions where there is no difference. *Mine* is a *substitute for something*. You cannot dispose of it till you resolve it into something else. It is a substitute for *my* or for *my book*. If, however, it implies *my book*, as it does, it seems to me most easy and natural to take it for all it is worth — *my book*. Is not this the most simple? Besides, there are some cases of it where there seems to be a necessity to do this; as, in this example, "He is a friend of *mine*." What will you do with *mine* there? If you resolve it into *my*, and make it agree with *friend*, what becomes of the preposition that precedes it? If you say that *of mine* means *my* only, and agrees with *friend*, is not that *awkward*, to say the least of it? The meaning is plain: — "He is a friend of *my own* — *my ownership*."

FATHER. — These are cases where the sense may be truly and clearly depicted by different modes of construction. Intelligent grammarians differ, and both constructions are adopted. Here, again, I shall not contend for either form of interpretation. Both are admissible.

## CONVERSATION III.

LUCY. — I understand the *indicative mode*, and the *imperative*, and the *infinitive*; but I should like to know more of the *subjunctive* and the *potential*.

FATHER. — That shows that you have studied the subject; and I wish I had more time and space to answer your inquiries. *The verb* is the most varied and the most important part of speech, and the *subjunctive* and *potential modes* have given the greatest difficulty to grammarians. Some writers involve them both in the *indicative* — defining their forms as different constructions of the same mode.

Both the *subjunctive* and the *potential* forms are *indicative*, and it has therefore been attempted to resolve them into the *indicative mode*; but the distinction indicated by the terms now applied to them would still be required, and nothing of simplicity could therefore be gained by dispensing with them in the usual forms. The *subjunctive* is that form which asserts or affirms something as conditional or doubtful. It is called *subjunctive* because it is always subjoined to some other assertion, which employs another verb in some other mode. The *potential* asserts the *power*, *liberty*, *possibility*, *will*, *necessity*, or *duty*, of performing an action or of being in a state. The *subjunctive* and *potential* are often involved together, so that the sense sometimes requires a close discrimination to distinguish the modal relation of the sentence. The definition already given, however, will be sufficient to ensure a necessary precision in such cases, and I shall leave this part of the subject with you, to be debated with grammarians, whose different opinions and theories will naturally engage your attention as you proceed in the more critical study of the subject of language.

The use of the *tenses* in the *subjunctive* and *potential* modes is also the subject of controversy, and often requires a close discrimination, not always leading to results entirely satisfactory. For instance, some contend that the *imperfect tense* cannot be used in any form of the *potential* mode. That subject has been treated in § 40 (Parsing Exercises) of the "Primary Grammar," to which I refer you.

Both of you, my children, have my approbation for the manner in which you have successfully prosecuted this important study; and Lucy has fairly merited her premium, which I shall promptly extend to her, and feel more proud of her attainments than she can of the little testimonial of her good conduct.

## PART IV.

COMPRISING THE

RULES OF PUNCTUATION, ORTHOGRAPHY, AND  
A DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

§ 80. GRAMMAR is divided usually into four parts: —  
*Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of *Letters*, their form, force, and information into words.

ETYMOLOGY treats of *Words*, their classification, derivation, and modification.

SYNTAX treats of *Sentences*, the arrangement, agreement, and government of words in them.

PROSODY treats of *Utterance*, especially in versification, including measure, quantity, accent, and pauses. (See "Manual," Part IV.)

## PUNCTUATION.

§ 81. THE RULES OF PUNCTUATION are very simple.

The two principal marks for pauses are the *Comma* and the *Period*.

The *Comma* is to be used where the sense requires the shortest pause; and the *Period*, where the sense is completed.

There are two pauses between these extremes: — the

*Colon*, a little shorter than the *Period*; and the *Semi-colon*, a little longer than the *Comma*.

[Let the learner become familiar with these, before he proceeds to others, which are mere modifications of these.]

The use of these signs depends on the sense of the text:—

The *Comma* separates parts of the sentence which are most clearly connected. As—

1. Simple members of a compound sentence are separated by commas.
2. Words of the same part of speech, when not connected by conjunctions, whether nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs. As— Faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity.
3. The nominative case independent, the infinitive used elliptically, a phrase quoted, require separation by commas. As— Sir, give me your hand. To confess the truth, I am in the wrong. The phrase, "Punic faith," is a Roman slander.
4. A noun in apposition, accompanied by an adjunct, is separated by the comma. As— Paul, the Apostle. But a single name in apposition is not separated. As— The Apostle Paul.
5. All adjuncts and explanatory phrases are separated by commas; also, portions of a sentence placed out of their natural order.
6. The relative must be separated from its antecedent by the comma, except where the connection is so close that it can suffer no transposition.
7. When a verb is followed by the infinitive, which can be made the nominative, they are separated by the comma.
8. A comma supplies the place of a verb understood.
9. Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, used to introduce new members of a sentence, are separated by commas.
10. *Therefore, wherefore, however, besides, indeed, nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, formerly, now, lastly*, and all words of this sort, when emphatic, should be separated by commas.

The *Semi-colon*. When the divisions of a sentence are not close enough for the comma, and yet related, the semi-colon is used.

The *Colon*. The colon is used to separate those parts of a sentence, or those sentences, that are very near a final period.

The *Period*. When the sentence is finished, in construction and sense, a period is used.

The period should always be placed after a date, a signature, an abbreviation, and betwixt the capitals of abbreviations.

Much latitude is given to the exercise of taste in the punctuation of sentences, and in this license the other signs of pauses are used.

The *Dash* (—) is used to designate indefinitely any length of pause, especially an abrupt or unexpected stop, a significant pause, or a significant passage, clause, or words, about to follow.

The *Interrogation* (?) is used to ask a question.

The *Exclamation* (!), to designate surprise, or any sudden emotion.

The *Parenthesis*, ( ); is equal to two commas, or dashes, enclosing a remark in the body of a sentence.

The *Apostrophe* (') designates the omission of a letter; as, *lov'd*, for *loved*.

The *Curel* (^) shows that something is wanting; as, <sup>this</sup> ^ *book*.

The *Hyphen* (-) connects compound words; as, *father-in-law*: or words divided; as, *father-er*.

The *Section* (§) designates portions of a discourse.

The *Paragraph* (¶) denotes the beginning of new subjects.

*Brackets*, [ ], enclose portions assigned to any special or specified purpose.

A *Quotation* (" ") shows a portion taken from another author.

An *Index* (☞) points out something remarkable.

The *Brace* { shows what is to be considered together.

*Ellipsis* (—) designates an omission; as, *K—g*, for *King*.

*Accent, acute* (´), denotes a short or accented syllable; *grave* (`), a long syllable. *breve* (˘), marks a short vowel or syllable; *dash* (—), a long one; *dieresis* (¨), divides two vowels; as, *aërial*.

*Asterisk* (\*), *obelisk* (†), *double dagger* (‡), *section* (§), *parallels* (||), *paragraph* (¶), *small letters* (\*\*), and *figures* (123), refer to notes in the margin or at the bottom of the page.

Several *asterisks* (\*\*\*) , or *periods* (...), denote words, passages, or paragraphs omitted.

Sentences should be short. They are then most easily understood.

A subject should be divided into paragraphs. Short paragraphs, formed by the natural subdivisions of the subject, render it more readable, and more easily understood.

*Capital letters* should be used—1. To commence every chapter, letter, sentence, address, or quotation. 2. Proper names of persons, places, &c., and adjectives derived from proper names. 3. The personal pronoun *I*, and interjections. 4. The first word of any line in poetry. 5. The appellations of the Deity. 6. The first word of a quotation. 7. Common nouns when personified. 8. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books, and any word which is remarkably emphatic.

*Italics* are used for emphasis, or a call to special attention; and words of greater emphasis are printed in small capitals or capitals.

In writing, *Italics* are designated by a single underscore.

SMALL CAPITALS	"	<u>double</u>	"
CAPITALS	"	<u>triple</u>	"

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

## LETTERS — THEIR NATURE, FORM, AND NAMES.

§ 82. The Letters of the English Alphabet are *twenty-six* — each one represented by a particular form in printing and writing, and by a particular sound of the human voice in utterance.

The following are the different forms of English letters: —

ROMAN,	<i>Capitals</i> — ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.
"	<i>Small</i> — a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.
ITALIC,	<i>Capitals</i> — ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ.
"	<i>Small</i> — a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.
OLD ENGLISH,	<i>Capitals</i> — A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z.
"	<i>Small</i> — a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

The letters of the Alphabet are divided into *Vowels* and *Consonants*.

A *vowel* makes a perfect sound of itself.

The *consonants* require the aid of the vowels to sound them, and hence are called *consonants*.

There are five vowels — *a, e, i, o, u*; and sometimes *w* and *y*.

A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound.

*Diphthongs* are called *proper* when both the vowels are sounded; as, *ou*, in *loud*. *Improper*, when only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *oa*, in *boat*.

The *proper diphthongs* are two: *oi* and *ou*.

The *improper diphthongs* are numerous, and are merely the juxtaposition of two vowels, with but one of them sounded.

The *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *ieu*, in *lieu*. There are three of them — *ieu*, *eau*, and *iew*. They have but one vowel-sound.

The *consonants* are divided into *Mutes* and *Semi-vowels*: —

The *mutes* are *p, b, t, d, k*, and *c* and *g* hard.

The *Semi-vowels* are *f, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, y, z*, and *c* and *g* soft.

Four of the semi-vowels are *liquids* — *l, m, v, r*.

The *mutes* are known by the stop of the voice in an attempt to sound them, as in *hop*. The sound of a *semi-vowel* may be prolonged, as in *hall*.

The *consonants* are divided according to the part of the organs of speech they employ: —

*Labials*, pronounced by the lip; as, *p, b, f, v*. *Dentals*, by the teeth; as, *t, d, s, z*. *Palatals*, by the palate; as, *g* soft, and *j*. *Gutturals*, by the throat; as, *k, g, c* and *g* hard. *Nasals*, by the nose; as, *m* and *n*. *Linguals*, by the tongue; as, *c* and *r*.

The same letter has often different sounds, which can be learned by the ear only. These sounds are *long*, or *short*, *broad*, *flat*, *hard*, *soft*, *rough*, *smooth*, &c.

*A* has four sounds; as, *fate, fat, far, full*.

*E* has two sounds; as, *mete, mel*.

*I* has two sounds; as, *pine, pin*.

*O* has three sounds; as, *note, not, move*.

*U* has three sounds; as, *bull, bur, rule*.

*B* has but one sound, as in *but*. It is sometimes silent.

*C* sounds hard, like *k*, before *a, o, u*; soft, like *s*, before *e, i, y*. Before *e, i*, and *y*, followed by another vowel, it has the sound of *sh*; as, *occur*.

Before a consonant, or at the end of a syllable, it is always hard; as, *crawl, rubric*.

*Ch* has the sound of *tsh*, in words purely English, as in *chin*; of *sh*, in words derived from the French, as in *chaise*; and of *k*, in words derived from the Hebrew, Greek, or other ancient languages, as in *chorus, Chaldee*.

*Ch*, in *arch*, before a consonant, is always sounded like *tsh*, as in *Archbishop*.

But before a vowel, it is sometimes sounded like *tsh*, as in *arch-enemy*; and sometimes like *k*, as in *archangel*.

*D* has its own sound, as in *drum*, and the sound of *j*, as in *soldier*. Sometimes it has the sound of *t*, at the end of words, as in *tripped*.

*F* has its own sound, as in *from*; except in *of*, where it has the sound of *v*.

*G* has the hard sound, as in *give*; soft, as in *genius*; silent, as in *gnaw*; hard, before *a, o, u*; sometimes soft or hard before *e, i*, and *y*. Before a consonant, or at the end of a syllable, it is always hard.

*Ng* has a sound peculiar to itself, as in *ring*.

*Gh* has the sound of *f*, as in *tough*; of *g* hard, as in *burgh*; or is silent, as in *plough*.

*H* has but one sound, as in *holy*, and is often silent.

*J* has one sound, as in *joy*; except in *hallelujah*, where it has the sound of *y*.

*K* has one sound, as in *keep*; never sounded before *n*, as in *knife*; doubled only in *Habakkuk*.

*L* has one sound, as in *liquid*, and is sometimes silent, as in *talk*.

*M* has only one sound, as in *map*.

*N* has one sound, as in *man*; and *nk*, as in *bank*.

*P* has one sound, as in *pill*; except the sound of *b*, as in *cup-board*.

*Ph* has the sound of *f*, in *philosophy*, and *v*, in *Stephen*.

*Q* has the sound of *k*, and is always followed by *u*.

*R* is rough, as in *rock*; soft, as in *bark*.

*S* has its own sound in *sister*; *z*, in *rosy*; *sh*, in *sugar*; *sh*, in *pleasure*; and *s* is silent in *island*.

*Sc* is sounded hard before *a*, *o*, *u*; soft, before *e*, *i*, *y*; and as *sh*, in *conscious*.

*T* has its own sound in *tale*; *sh*, in *patient*; *tsh*, in *fustian*; silent, in *bustle*.

*Th* has two sounds, as in *thin* and *this*; *t*, as in *Thomas*.

*V* has one sound, as in *vain*.

*W* has the sound of *oo*, as in *water*; often silent, as in *answer*.

*Wh* has the sound of *hw*, as in *whale*.

*X* has the sound of *z*, in *Xenophon*; *ks*, in *exercis*; *gz*, in *exist*.

*Y*, consonant, has one sound, as in *yes*.

*Z* has its own sound, as in *zeal*; *zh*, as in *azure*; silent, in *rendevous*.

A *Syllable* is a distinct sound, forming as much of a word as can be sounded at once. Sometimes it constitutes a whole word.

A *Monosyllable* is a word of one syllable; a *Dissyllable*, of two syllables; a *Trisyllable*, of three syllables; a *Poly syllable*, of many syllables.

### GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING.

**RULE I.**—Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant, preceded by a short vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*. Except *z* and *k*, which are never doubled.

But when a diphthong precedes, or the accent is not on the last syllable, a consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *visit*, *visitor*.

**RULE II.**—Words ending with *ll*, generally drop one *l* before the terminations *ness*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*; as, *fulness*, *skillless*, *fully*, *skilful*.

**RULE III.**—Words ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

But *y* is not changed before *ing*; as, *deny*, *denying*.

Words ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*; *money*, *moneys*.

*Lay*, *pay*, and *said*, make *laïd*, *païd*, and *said*.

**RULE IV.**—Derivative adjectives ending in *able* are written without an *e* before *a*; as, *blamable*, *movable*. Except those of which the primitive word ends in *ce* or *ge*; in such the *e* is retained to soften the preceding consonant; as, *peaceable*, *changeable*.

### FIGURES OF SPEECH.

§ 83. FIGURES OF SPEECH — of *Etymology*, of *Syntax*, of *Rhetoric* — are departures from the ordinary form of words: from their *regular construction*, or from their *literal signification*.

#### I. FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

1. **APHERESIS** — cuts off the first letter or syllable of a word; as, *'Neath*, for *beneath*.
2. **SYNCOPE** — elision of one or more letters from the middle of a word; as, *Ling'ring*.
3. **ELISION** — the omission of one or more letters from the end of a word; as, *Thro'*, for *through*.
4. **PROTHESIS** — the addition of one or more letters to the beginning of a word; as, *Enchain*, for *chain*.
5. **PARAGOGUE** — is the addition of one or more letters to the end of a word; as, *Bounden*, for *bound*.
6. **SYNERESIS** — the contraction of two syllables into one; as, *Alienate*, for *aliénate*.
7. **DIERESIS** — the separation of two vowels standing together, so as to connect them with different syllables; as, *Aërial*.
8. **TMSIS** — the separation of a compound word by introducing another word between its parts; as, *How high soever*.

#### II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

1. **ELLIPSIS** — the omission of one or more words, which must be supplied to complete the sense; as, *Reading makes a learned man*; *conversation* (makes) *a ready man*; *writing* (makes) *an exact man*.
2. **PLEONASM** — the use of more words than are necessary to express an idea; as, *This here is the book*.
3. **ENALLAGE** — the use of one part of speech for another; as, *Slow rises merit by poverty depressed*.
4. **HYPERBATON** — the transposition of words; as, *Ill fares the land to threat'n'ing ills a prey*.

## III. FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

The principal Figures of Rhetoric are —

1. SIMILE—a direct comparison; as, *He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of water.*
2. METAPHOR—an implied comparison; as, *Thy word is a lamp to my feet.*
3. ALLEGORY—a continued metaphor. *Pilgrim's Progress* is a lengthened allegory.
4. ANTI-THESIS—denotes opposition or contrast; as, *Virtue ennobles its possessor—vice degrades.*
5. HYPERBOLE—exaggeration of facts or truth.
6. IRONY—adds force to expression, by representing vividly a palpable improbability; as, *Elijah's challenge to the priests of Baal, 1 Kings xviii. 27.*
7. METONYMY—changes the name: 1. The *cause* for the *effect*, or the *effect* for the *cause*; as, the debauchee says of his disease, *This is my life.* 2. The *container* for the *thing contained*; as, *The kettle boils.* 3. The *sign* for the *thing signified*; as, *The sceptre shall not depart from Judah.*
8. SYNECOCHE—by which the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole, a definite number for an indefinite, &c.; as, *Man is mortal—his body.*
9. PERSONIFICATION, or PROSOPOPEIA—attributes life and action to inanimate objects; as, *The clouds frowned, and the ocean was angry.*
10. APOSTROPHE—is an address to the dead or absent as if they were present; as, *England, with all thy faults, I love thee!*
11. INTERROGATION—is a question put in such a shape that it answers itself affirmatively, with an increased power of affirmation; as, *What God affirms, who will deny?*
12. EXCLAMATION—a passionate expression of feeling; as, *O, the wonders of redeeming love!*
13. VISION—employs the present tense in describing things past or future.
14. CLIMAX—rises, in description, with each successive fact, more important than the preceding, so that a rhetorical effect is produced by the whole description.

## § 84. DICTIONARY OF GRAMMAR.

[TO BE CAREFULLY STUDIED AND RECITED BY THE PUPIL.]

- ABSTRACT—as applied to words, signifies those which express a quality without regard to the subject in which it exists; as, *whiteness, beauty.*
- ACCENT—a mark to direct the stress of voice to be used in pronunciation.
- ACCIDENT—something belonging to a word, but not essential to it; as, *gender, number, and case.*
- ACTIVE—as applied to the verb, designates not only those which signify action, but those which are transitive.
- ADJECTIVE—is a word joined to nouns, to express a quality or to define them. Sometimes the adjective is so necessary to the name of the thing, that the name is imperfect without it, and we therefore call it the *adjective-noun.*
- ADJUNCT—a word or words added to illustrate or amplify the force of other words.
- ADVERB—a word *added to the verb*, to qualify it. Its name is derived from its leading use. But it is used also to modify *participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.*
- AGREEMENT—in grammar, implies a conformity of words with one another in some of their accidents; as, of the adjective with the noun in number, of the verb with its nominative in number and person.
- ALPHABET—the letters of a language, which form the elements of speech.
- AN—the indefinite article, derived from a Saxon word which means *one.* This is the general import of the word: *a man, one man.* Before consonants, and before the silent *h*, the *n* is omitted, for euphony; as, *a father.*
- ANALYSIS—resolves that which is compound into its simple elements. In grammar, it reduces the words of a sentence to their natural order, defines their relations to each other, and shows their government and agreement, under the laws of language.
- APOSTROPHE—a mark which indicates the omission of a letter, or it expresses the possessive case.
- ARRANGEMENT—classification of facts or principles connected with any subject, in regular, systematic order.

**ARTICLE** — means a definitive clause. In grammar, it is the adjective which defines particular from many. *An acorn* defines a particular kind of seed; *the acorn*, some particular one referred to.

**ASTERISK** — a star which refers the reader to a note in the margin.

**AUXILIARY** — those words which help the verbs to form the different modes and tenses are called auxiliary.

**BRACE** — a line, in writing, which connects two or more lines.

**CARDINAL** — principal or positive numbers; as, one, two, three, &c.

**CARET** — denotes something wanting, which is interlined.

**CASE** — declension, or falling from the first form of a word, by which relation to other words is indicated.

**CLASS** — objects or things placed under one denomination, because they have something in common.

**CLASSIFICATION** — a distribution into sets, sorts, or classes.

**COLLECTIVE** — expressing many, or several united.

**COLON** — a point denoting a pause in reading but little shorter than a period.

**COMMA** — a point denoting the shortest pause in reading.

**COMMON** — belonging equally to many, or to more than one.

**COMPARATIVE** — expressing more or less in degree.

**COMPARISON** — the formation of the adjective in its several degrees of signification.

**CONJUGATION** — the variations of the verb in mode, tense, voice, number, and person.

**CONJUNCTION** — a part of speech that connects or conjoins others.

**DASH** — a pause marked by a small horizontal line.

**DECLENSION** — inflections or changes in nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, to express changes of case.

**DEFECTIVE** — that which is wanting in some of the regular parts.

**DEFINITE** — defining, limiting, that which defines the meaning.

**DEMONSTRATIVE** — showing with clearness the thing or things referred to.

**DIÆRESIS** — a mark, showing that two vowels are pronounced in distinct syllables.

**DISTRIBUTIVE** — that which divides, or represents the individuals of a collective.

**ELLIPSIS** — the omission of one or more words implied in the sense.

**ETYMOLOGY** — shows how words are derived from their simple roots, with their various inflections and *modifications* in grammar.

**EXCLAMATION** — an utterance expressing passion or emotion.

**GENDER** — distinction of sex.

**GOVERNMENT** — the controlling influence of one word over another in construction, requiring it to be in a particular case, number, mode, &c.

**GRAMMAR** — is derived from a word which signifies *to write*. It is a treatise on the science and the art of speaking and writing a language.

**HYPHEN** — a short horizontal line, used to connect two parts of a compound word, or a word divided at the end of a line.

**IDIOM** — a mode of expression peculiar to a language.

**I. E.** — contraction for *id est*, *that is*.

**IMP.** — imperfect.

**IMPERATIVE** — expressive of command. In application to the verb, it is used also for entreating, exhorting, &c.

**IMPERFECT** — a tense expressing time past, but indefinite.

**INDEFINITE** — not determinate, not certain or limited.

**INDEX** — a table of contents, or a reference to a marginal note.

**INDICATIVE** — that which shows or affirms directly and absolutely.

**INFINITIVE** — indefinite in person or number.

**INTERJECTION** — a word *thrown in*, expressing sudden passion or emotion.

**INTERROGATIVE** — used in asking a question.

**INTRANSITIVE** — a form of assertion in which the action of the verb does not pass over to the object.

**IRREGULAR** — deviating from the common rules in inflection.

**LANGUAGE** — is derived from a word which means *tongue*. It is the expression of ideas, according to the rules of grammar, in articulate sounds or in written words.

**LETTER** — is the first element of written language, out of which syllables and words are formed.

**MEASURE** — the arrangement of short and long syllables and accents in poetry.

**MODE, manner** — applied to the verb, it expresses the manner of the action or affirmation; as, commanding, conditional, potential, &c.

**NEUTER, neither** — applied to a noun, it means neither gender, or no gender.

**NOM.** — nominative.

**SUPERLATIVE**—the highest degree of quality expressed by the adjectives or adverbs.

**SYNCOPE**—an omission of one or more words, from the middle of a word, supplied by the apostrophe.

**SYNTAX**—the right construction of words in a sentence, with the rules of government and agreement.

**TRANSITIVE**—the verb which passes the action or assertion to an object.

**TENSE**—the time of the action or of the thing affirmed.

**VERB**—the word which asserts or affirms something. It may be derived from the Latin *fero*—ferb—verb. It is the word which carries an idea from one mind to another. It is therefore *the word* of principal importance—the Latin *verbum*.

**VIZ.**—a contraction for *videlicet*, to wit, namely.

**VOICE**—language or mode of expression. Hence, it is applied to the mode of inflecting verbs, in the active and passive forms, called the active and passive voices.

**WORD**—is two or more letters so combined as, when written or spoken, to designate an object or subject of thought.

*&c.*, for *et cetera*—means *and so on*, or *others of the kind*.

THE END.