

GRAMMATICAL SYNTHESIS.

THE
ART OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

BY
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AUTHOR OF "LOGIC," "RHETORIC," "RHETORICAL PRAXIS," ETC.

"He who thinks loosely will write loosely." — Coleridge.

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PREFACE

EXPERIENCE has decisively proved that the study of Grammar, Composition, and Rhetoric must regard the thought that is to be expressed in language as the ruling element in discourse,—its organic, originating, and determining principle. The reversal of this, the putting forward of the word, of style, and making this the prominent and commanding object in the study, has caused the general failure in these branches of instruction. This has occasioned the general repugnance to the study of Grammar and of Rhetoric, and to exercises in Composition. Such is the legitimate effect of this unnatural method of procedure. Thought is the organic vital element of language and of discourse, that has determined the forms of words, their kinds, their uses; that has determined the structure of the sentence, its form, and the relations of its parts. The study of language and the study of Rhetoric, as well as all exercises in Composition, or in the construction of discourse generally, should, therefore, be grounded in the thought. The forms of thought must be known before the forms of language in which they are to be embodied can be known. Beginning with the thought, and proceeding from that to the forms which are furnished in language for the suitable embodiment of the thought, we proceed naturally, easily,

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satisfactorily, because every step is in intelligence and in order. We understand why we are to use this form of expression and not that. For the study of a foreign language, the analytic method, which is the one generally in use, is the suitable method; for the object of the study is to learn how to elude the thought from the form of words in which it is embodied. But in the study of one's own tongue, the commanding object is to learn not how to get the thought out, but how to put the thought into language; and it is against nature to begin with the study of words, of style. For one who speaks English, to study the Grammar of the English language according to the method of our common systems of Grammar, is most unnatural.

A leading peculiarity of this work is, accordingly, that it develops the whole art of Composition, the whole science of Grammar, from the thought. It begins, ever, with the forms of the thought, and then inquires for the forms which the English language, under the guidance of thought, has furnished for the expression of these forms of thought.

The fundamental distinction between thought itself and the matter of thought, between thinking and that of which we think, so essential to all correct thinking and speaking, yet so generally obscured or ignored, is definitely drawn and maintained throughout. This distinction solves some of the most serious difficulties that present themselves in grammatical studies, such as those that occur in the treatment of the verb; in the distribution of modifying elements in the sentence; in the discrimination of prepositions and conjunctions.

Next, the broad distinction between the object of which we think, and that which we think of it, — the distinction

between the subject and the predicate, and the various forms of words, of modifying elements, of verbal expression generally, growing out of this distinction, is definitely presented and recognized everywhere throughout the entire development of the work. This is another vital distinction in Grammar which is but dimly recognized in existing treatises. Hence the classification of subject-words and of predicate-words, the distinctions of nouns and of adjectives, have been very obscure, erroneous, and altogether unsatisfactory.

The study of language as a historical product and growth is recent; and systems of English Grammar, in general use, have had little regard to the changes that have been taking place in our language. Hence, forms of expression have been condemned as irregular, which yet are legitimate English; other forms have been allowed, because in general use, but left unexplained; and still others approved that are in direct opposition to the very genius of the language. This treatise has been elaborated in the light of our earliest literature, and of its history onward. A large and important work, it is allowable to remark in this connection, yet remains to be done in the historical interpretation of our language and literature.

In the construction of this work, moreover, the most diligent care has been taken to be guided by the strictest method throughout. Method is of far more importance in early training than matter — the mode of study than what is studied. Right methods of thinking are of the first consequence to all mental growth. Especially is it of importance that the mind in training should be habituated to a steady growth — to a constant advance and progress, in

which what has been done shall ever be helpful to what is to be done.

Introductory exercises are presented at the beginning to initiate readily into the methods of the study, and to introduce to some technicalities of general use. The definitions and principles are here given in more rudimentary forms, but in harmony with the fuller forms presented in the body of the work. The more important teachings are presented in more conspicuous type. The beginning student may find it expedient to pass over the smaller type until the review. It has been deemed necessary to introduce more in explanation and vindication of the views that are offered than would be proper for an elementary treatise, but for their variance from prevalent doctrine. The great advance recently made in Logical Science, on which Grammar is immediately founded, has rendered necessary more of this explanatory matter than it is to be hoped will be required after this great science — this science of sciences — becomes more generally understood. Hitherto systems of English Grammar have shown little acquaintance with Logic.

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INTRODUCTORY EXERCISES.

CHAPTER I.

THE SENTENCE.

§ 1. WHEN we speak we assert something of an object. Such an assertion is called a *Sentence*. Thus, "John is a scholar," "John studies," are Sentences.

A SENTENCE is an assertion of something respecting an object; as, "The sun is bright."

§ 2. The Sentence is made up of three elements:

1. The object of which we speak, called the *Subject*;
2. That which we assert of it, called the *Predicate*;
3. The assertion itself, called the *Copula*.

THE SUBJECT of a Sentence is that of which we speak; as, "John studies," "The sun is bright."

THE PREDICATE of a Sentence is that which is asserted of the Subject; as, "John is a scholar," "The sun is bright."

THE COPULA of a Sentence is that element of it which asserts; as, "John is a scholar," "The sun is bright."

§ 3. In speaking, Sentences and Parts of Sentences are separated from one another by means of Pauses and Inflections of the voice.

In writing, Sentences are separated by means of Points and Capitals.

§ 4. There are four Points used to separate Sentences and the Parts of Sentences from one another. They are, 1. The Period (.); 2. The Colon (:); 3. The Semicolon (;); 4. The Comma (,).

§ 5. The PERIOD separates one Sentence from another.

EXAMPLE. — "Be kind and loving to one another. Honor your minister. Be not bitter nor harsh to my servants. Be respectful to all. Bear my absence patiently and cheerfully."

§ 6. The COLON, the SEMICOLON, and the COMMA separate the parts of a Sentence — the Colon most widely, the Semicolon less widely, the Comma least widely.

EXAMPLE. — "When I came to my castle, for so I think I called it ever after this, I fled into it like one pursued: whether I went over by the ladder at first contrived, or went in at the hole in the rock which I called a door, I cannot remember; for never frightened hare fled to cover, or fox to earth, with more terror of mind than I to this retreat."

"Genius will not furnish him with a vocabulary: it will not teach him what word most exactly corresponds to his idea: it will not make him a great descriptive poet, till he has looked with attention on the face of Nature; or a great dramatist, till he has felt and witnessed much of the influence of the passions."

§ 7. CAPITALS are a kind of large Letters. They are used at the beginnings of all sentences.

EXAMPLE. — "If they make no impression, it is because they are too vulgar and notorious. But the inattention or indifference of the nation has continued too long. You are roused at last to a sense of danger. The remedy will soon be in your power."

Capitals are also used at the beginning of the names

of individuals, and of leading words; as, *John, Cato, Cuba, Monday.*

EXAMPLE. — "All my calm of mind, in my resignation to Providence and waiting the issue in the dispositions of Heaven, seemed to be suspended."

§ 8. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Points used in the Appendix No. VII., and correct the faults in Punctuation, and in the use of Capital Letters in the following extracts: —*

However, as I went down thus two or three, days and having seen nothing I began, to be a little bolder: and to think there was really nothing but my own Imagination. but I could not, persuade myself fully of this; till I should go down to the shore again, and see this print of a foot and measure it by my own and see if there was any similitude or fitness that I might be assured it was my own foot; But when I came to the place first it appeared Evidently to me, that when I laid up my boat, I could, not possibly be on Shore anywhere thereabouts Secondly: when I came to measure the mark, with my own foot I found my foot not so large by a great deal.

MY uncle Toby, was a man patient of injuries — not from the want of courage — I have told you in a former chapter; that he was a man of courage and I will add here; that where just occasions presented or called it forth, I know no man under whose arm, I would have sooner taken shelter — Nor did this arise from any insensibility, or obtuseness of his intellectual parts for he felt as feelingly, as a man could do — But he was of a peaceful, placid nature no jarring element in him — all was mixed up so kindly within him; my uncle Toby, had scarce a heart to retaliate upon a fly.

§ 9. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Write, from dictation by a teacher or by one of the class, an extract taken from some prose writer, separating the Sentences and Parts of Sentences by proper Points and Capitals.*

CHAPTER II

THE ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

§ 10. THE object of which we speak in a Sentence is expressed in a word called a *Noun*. Thus in the sentence "John walks," the object, of which I speak, is expressed in a word, — John, — which word is called a Noun.

A NOUN is the name of an object; as, *John, the Sun, Grass, Truth.*

§ 11. Individual objects are expressed in words called *Proper Nouns*; as, *James, Carlo, Cuba, Wednesday, Venus.*

PROPER NOUNS are names of individual objects, whether Persons, Animals, Things, Places, or Times.

OBSERVATION. — Proper nouns are written with Capitals; as, "This year *Christmas* comes on *Friday*;" "That is *John's* book;" "The city of *London* is situated on the *Thames*."

§ 12. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Proper Nouns in the following sentences: —*

Christopher Columbus was born at Genoa, a city of Italy. The city of London is in England, on the river Thames. Joseph spoke in the language of Egypt, but he remembered the language of Canaan, his own country. John has just come back from his cousin's in Boston, with his dog Bruno. On the third day of November, 1783, the Army was disbanded at New York, and Washington bade farewell to his soldiers. The motion of light was discovered by means of the eclipses of Jupiter's moons.

THE ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

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Mention by their proper names —

Three objects that are persons;
Three that are animals;
Three that are places;
Three that are parts of time;
Three that are things.

§ 13. That which may be asserted of an object is called an *Attribute*; as, "John is *busy*;" "Carlo is *snappish*;" "Venus is *bright*;" "February is *cold*."

AN ATTRIBUTE is that which may be asserted of an object.

§ 14. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the attributes in the following sentences: —*

James was diligent. Dobbin was gentle, yet spirited. Rose was punctual in all her duties. Mars is fiery. Wednesday was cold and rainy.

Assert some attribute of each of the following objects: —

James; Emma; Rome; Washington; London; Bruno; Towzer; Bunny; Sunday; Winter; Hecla; Erie; Sicily; Madagascar.

§ 15. The attribute is often expressed in a word called an *Adjective*.

AN ADJECTIVE is a word expressing an attribute of an object; as, "The grass is *green*;" "John is *tall*."

OBSERVATION. — An adjective in the larger sense may be either a predicate of a sentence, or it may limit a noun. In the stricter sense, it is a word used to limit an object by some attribute belonging to it. See §§ 55, 170.

§ 16. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Write sentences asserting attributes of some —*

Person; Animal; Planet; Place; Time.

MODEL. — March is windy.

Write sentences asserting of some object the following attributes respectively:—

Tall; Ruddy; Heavy; Intelligent; Kind; Resolute; Large; Populous; Hilly; Temperate; Warm; Rainy; Long; Spotted; Fierce; Fleet; Bright.

§ 17. The copula or assertive element of the sentence is expressed in a word called a *Verb*; as in the sentences, "John *is* studious," "John *studies*," the assertion is expressed in the words *is* and *studies*, which words are called Verbs.

A VERB is a word that asserts; as, "The grass *is* green;" "John *speaks*;" "George *whispered*;" "Fido *will bite*;" "Soon Winter *will have passed*;" "William *is disappointed*;" "Speak, Henry;" "Charles *is running*."

OBSERVATION 1.—A verb may consist of several words; as, *Has come*; *had come*; *will come*; *may have come*; *is coming*; *will be done*; *shall have been done*; *can have been doing*." Such expressions may be regarded as one composite word.

OBSERVATION 2.—The copula and the predicate are often united in a single word; as, "John *hungers*;" "The sun *shines*." In an expression of command, the whole sentence may consist of but one word, as, *Speak!* *Go!*

§ 18. ORAL EXERCISES. Name the verbs in the following sentences:—

The grass is green. Gabriel replied. Sirius twinkles. James has gone. Rome was sacked. The fire is bright. The citizen obeys. John whips his top. The shower revives the grass. The grass was revived by the shower. The clouds pour down torrents of water. John will finish his task before dinner. James is studying his lesson. Robert must have left town before noon. It rains. It thunders terrifically.

OBSERVATION.—In naming the verb, all the words, if there be more than one, which are necessary to express all the assertive element should

be given. Thus in the sentence, "He *will be studying* at that hour," the whole assertive element is not expressed in *will*, nor in *will be*. The verb is *will be studying*.

Assert something of the following objects:—

Peter; Italy; August; Carlo; Venus; Columbus; Cæsar; Mercury; Africa; Athens; Jerusalem; Malta; Wednesday; Autumn; February; Bucephalus; Dobbin; Fido.

§ 19. WRITTEN EXERCISE. Write sentences asserting something of a Proper Noun denoting—

A person; a place; a part of time; an animal; a star.

MODELS.—Autumn approaches; Dobbin prances.

Write a Sentence asserting of some individual object that it—

Lives; acts; runs; speaks; has gone; will come; is satisfied; will be starved; must be divided; may rise; can be forgotten; is passing.

CHAPTER III.

CONCRETES.

§ 20. OBJECTS that are classes, that is, that contain individuals under them, are expressed in words called *Class-nouns*; as, *African, island, planet, dog.*

CLASS-NOUNS are names of classes.

OBSERVATION. — Any one of the class may be denoted by the name of the class: as an African named Hannibal; an Island called Cuba; a planet named Jupiter; a dog named Carlo. Hannibal was an African; Cuba is an Island; Jupiter is a planet.

§ 21. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Class-nouns in the following sentences: —*

The trees in winter are naked, withered, and bare; — they are like dry bones: in spring they are covered with blossoms and green leaves. The dog, the horse, the elephant, and some birds, are teachable and intelligent. As we approached the river, the Arabs, who were acting as our guides, suddenly stopped. The satellites revolve in orbits around the planets, as the planets move in orbits around the sun. We are affected with delightful sensations, when we see the inanimate parts of the creation, the meadows, flowers, and trees, in a flourishing state. Every stalk, bud, flower, and seed displays a figure, a proportion, a harmony, beyond the reach of art. Days crowd upon days and minutes upon minutes. The Japanese are a very jealous people. The Esquimaux have high cheek-bones, and small noses; and the eye are deeply seated in the head.

CONCRETES.

9

Name three Class-nouns denoting, —

1. Persons; 2. Places; 3. Periods of time; 4. Divisions of the earth; 5. Vegetables; 6. Animals; 7. Objects in the room.

§ 22. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Supply Class-nouns, as subjects, to the Verbs in the following parts of Sentences.*

Blooms; grows; swims; walks; feels; is moving; has been conquered; was produced; will be made; was discovered; is promised; will be multiplied; revolve in their orbits; can be mentioned; is mild; is woolly; is teachable; is scaly; is web-footed; is long-necked; is square; is high; is heavy; is long-lived; is prickly; is bulbous; is brittle; is ripe; is green; is purple; is sweet; is fragrant; is rough; is elastic.

OBSERVATION. — The noun will be apt to occur in answer to the interrogative, *What?* As, if I ask myself, "What blooms?" the word will be apt to occur to me, — "The flower."

MODEL. — The serpent creeps; the grape is round.

§ 23. Objects that are composed of a number of individuals grouped together, and are yet not classes, are expressed in COLLECTIVE NOUNS; as, *army, flock, constellation.*

COLLECTIVE NOUNS are names of groups.

OBSERVATION. — The name of the whole cannot be given to any one of the objects denoted by a collective noun, or noun of multitude, as it is sometimes called, as it can be in the case of those denoted by a class-noun. We cannot say "Stephen is an army," as we can say "Stephen is a man," although Stephen may be one of the objects denoted as well by "army" as by "man." We can always distinguish by this a collective noun from a class-noun.

§ 24. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Collective Nouns in the following Sentences, and mention of what kind of individuals each is made up: —*

The army was sadly neglected. The assembly was to

multuous. A large company collected around the prince. The tribe of caterpillars called surveyors sometimes support themselves for whole hours upon their hind-legs. A herd of buffaloes can only be kept in order by a guard of mounted keepers, armed with lances. Whales are found in companies, but mostly in pairs. A belt of trees and shrubs conceals the fence. The out-houses are placed in a group of shrubbery. A dozen or more, perhaps a score, of apples lay under the tree. Swarms of bees were found in the forest.

Name three Collective Nouns denoting, —

1. Persons; 2. Animals; 3. Things.

§ 25. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Supply Collective Nouns as subjects to the following parts of Sentences: —*

Fought; shouted; was divided; ran together; was well matched; assembled; is introduced; has bought; surrounded them; were diseased; was approaching; were sworn in the customary way; will suffer greatly; was authorized; is composed.

MODEL. — A company was formed; the span are black.

§ 26. Objects that are regarded as composite, but are not classes nor groups, are expressed in words called *Mass-nouns*; as, *earth, water, air, light*.

MASS-NOUNS are names of objects regarded as mere masses

§ 27. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Mass-nouns in the following Sentences: —*

Air is composed chiefly of two invisible gases. Ice is frozen water. Exogenous plants have bark, wood, and pith. The blood is purified by air taken into the lungs. Spirit is active; matter inert. Smoke is a product of combustion. Wheat and rye will germinate in a single day; mustard requires three days; lettuce, four; while *parsley* requires fifteen. Passion, I see, is catching.

Name three Mass-nouns that are, —

1. Minerals; 2. Gases or Vapors; 3. Vegetables; 4. Animals; 5. Spiritual objects.

§ 28. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Supply Mass-nouns as subjects to the following parts of Sentences: —*

Melts; is dissolved; scatters; rises; nourishes; is formed; will bend; will freeze; thinks; bleeds; is sweet; is bright; is ductile; is fusible; is combustible; is brittle; is pliable; is hard; is dull; is stratified; is good for food; is transparent.

MODEL. — Grass withers; thought is deathless.

OBSERVATION. — The four classes of objects named in the preceding sections, form a general class of objects of thought. They are expressed in a class of words which are called *Concretes*, and which constitute one of the two grand divisions of nouns in language. Concretes are single or composite. Single concretes expressed in single words are Proper Nouns. Composite concretes are composed either of (1.) Parts that can be numbered without being classed, constituting *Collective Nouns*; or (2.) Parts that can be measured, constituting *Mass-nouns*; or (3.) Parts that are gathered into the same class, constituting *Class-nouns*. See Appendix No. II. Concrete nouns are, in fact, subject-nouns; that is, names of objects of which something is asserted.

§ 29. A CONCRETE NOUN is the name of an object of which we may assert an attribute.

OBSERVATION. — The same word, it should be borne in mind, may be, in one use, a Proper Noun; in another, a Class-noun; in still another, a Collective Noun, or a Mass-noun. Thus when I say "Alexander was a great general," I use the word "Alexander" as a proper noun. When I say "An Alexander would have failed in such a campaign," I use the word to denote a class. In the same way, I may say "Water is fluid," using the word "water" as a mass-noun; or "Rain water is soft," using the same word as a class-noun. It is the use of the word in speaking, not the form of the word as it is given in the dictionary, that determines whether it belongs to the one or the other of the different classes of nouns; — whether it is, in a given case, a Proper noun, a Class-noun, a Collective noun, or a Mass-noun.

§ 30. WRITTEN EXERCISES. 1. *Write sentences asserting something of three Proper Nouns, of each of the following classes respectively: —*

(1.) Of Persons ; (2.) Of Places ; (3.) Of Things.

2. Of three *Class-nouns* of each of the following classes respectively : —

(1.) Places ; (2.) Divisions of Time ; (3.) Minerals ;
(4.) Vegetables ; (5.) Animals ; (6.) Rational Beings.

3. Of three *Collective Nouns* in each of the following classes : —

(1.) Living objects ; (2.) Inanimate objects.

4. Of three *Mass-nouns*.

CHAPTER IV.

ABSTRACTS.

§ 31. To every object of which we can think, there belong one or more attributes. Of these attributes there are four classes, namely, — Qualities, Actions, Conditions, and Relations. Nouns expressing attributes are called *abstracts*.

§ 32. Qualities of objects are expressed in nouns called *Quality-nouns* ; as, *sweetness, hardness, clemency*.
QUALITY-NOUNS express quality.

§ 33. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Quality-nouns in the following sentences : —*

Air owes its fluidity to heat. The magpie is noted for his loquacity. If the great Newton could utter such a sentiment, how much more becoming are modesty and humility in us. Some bodies possess so little elasticity, that they are called non-elastic. They gave themselves up to severity and rigidity of life. So that it is great weakness and silliness, and not conscientiousness that prevails with these men. We were charmed by the tunefulness of its notes. There is an interest that is beyond the disorder and mutability of the present world. The juice had an agreeable tartness, though but little flavor. Timidity, though similar to pusillanimity, is not so reproachful. All this rose from infirmity, not wickedness. The Creator is willing mankind should serve themselves of all his creatures' various excellences, in their strength, weight, light, sweetness, warmth.

Express Qualities of objects in the following classes by appropriate nouns:—

The tree; the acorn; the fowl; the serpent; silver; iron the voice; the feeling; the word; the blow; the wish; the motive.

MODELS.—To the olive belongs *bitterness*. To the rose belongs *color*. To the lamb belongs *playfulness*. To the comet belongs *brightness*.

OBSERVATION.—For assertions of quality the adjective form is the most natural, as, "The olive is bitter." We have in English few, if, in fact, any verb-forms that can be used for this purpose.

§ 34. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Assert some Quality of each of the following objects in both forms, by a noun and by an adjective:—*

Paper; the pencil; the color; the picture; the countenance; the dress; the cloth; the painting; the writing; the addition; the spelling; the manners; the speech; the sleep; the thirst; the position.

MODEL.—To the rose belongs fragrance; the rose is fragrant.

§ 35. Actions are expressed in nouns called *Action-nouns*, as *creation*, the act of creating; *race*, the act of running; *ascent*, the act of ascending; *growth*, the act of growing.

ACTION-NOUNS express action.

§ 36. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Action-nouns in the following sentences:—*

Animals are sensible of the treatment they receive from us. The remembrance of his misdeed made him falter. In the arrangement of its leaves the plant is mathematically precise. The revolution of the earth about the sun was disbelieved as irreconcilable with the Scriptures. The continual wearing of the rain had made a deep hollow in the rock. By the exercise of the mental faculties, man is distinguished from the brute. Close attention and perseverance can conquer even natural defects. The jester has seldom any rever-

ence for sacred things. Vegetable growth is effected by the absorption of fluids by the roots and the circulation through the stem to the leaves. At last I fell into a drowse, as if ~~being~~ ^{going} to sleep by the musical pattering of the rain upon the roof. The magpie had been occupied all the time in profound meditation; and, at last, broke its long silence by a perfect imitation of the flourish of trumpets it had heard. The acquisition of the lesson, however, exhausted its whole stock of intellect. If a ball be dropped perpendicularly on a smooth pavement, the rebound will be to a certain point in the line of descent. There is another matter requiring explanation. Our next conversation will be about the density of bodies. The peculiar moanings of the turtle-dove are only its wavings of its mate. His friend gave him good counsel and earnest admonition.

Assert some action of each of the following objects:—

John; England; man; the dog; the rose; gold; grass; chair; book; mind; passion; avarice; knowledge.

MODELS.—To Alfred belongs foresight; to the violet belongs blooming; to a magnet belongs attraction; to intemperance belongs degradation.

OBSERVATION.—When an action is asserted of an object, the form with the verb is more naturally employed; as we say, "The magnet attracts," rather than "To the magnet belongs attraction." But the meaning is the same. In both cases we alike assert an attribute of an object.

§ 37. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Assert some Action of the following objects both in the form of a noun and also of a verb:—*

Fire; the sun; the heart; the eye; the seed; the horse; the ox; the book; the architect; the soldier.

MODELS.—To the landscape may be attributed, or belongs, gratification; the landscape pleases; to heat belongs expansion; heat expands; to the student may be attributed attainment of knowledge; the student learns.

§ 38. Conditions of objects are expressed in nouns called *Condition-nouns*; as, *silence*, *poverty*, *health*.

CONDITION-NOUNS express condition.

OBSERVATION.—Conditions are of three classes: (1.) Of place; as, "Rome *is in Italy*;" (2.) Of time; as, "The departure *was on Thursday*;" (3.) Condition in the more ordinary sense, as answering to the interrogative How? as, "The boy *is in health*;" "The ship *is in decay*;" "The business *was transacted in quietness and in order*."

It will be noticed that *Italy* and *Thursday* in the above examples are originally Proper nouns. But as designating places and times, such words may be used, as here, to express conditions. As before intimated, words are not uncommonly used in these various ways.

§ 39. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the Condition-nouns in the following sentences:—*

The Parthenon was at Athens. The Coliseum is in Rome. The battle was in May. The bird is in flight. It will soon be in rest. At night many leaves are in apparent sleep. Swans are fabled to sing most sweetly in death. A market woman used to give herbs to an elephant while at work. The elephant one day, in a mood of frenzy, rushed into the market, and drove all others away, but took the child in his trunk and bore it away in safety. The queen bees are in perpetual conflict with one another. Vines climb in rank luxuriance upon the trees along the road. When in fermentation, the skins of the grape which rise are stirred down, to give the wine a high color. The fermenting tubs must then be under close cover, for the skins become sour if in contact with the atmospheric air. John remained in silent reflection for a long time. They commenced their voyage in great hilarity. Some people are always in trouble.

Assert some condition of each of the following objects:—

The horse; the ox; the grass; the sky; the sun; the wind; the pen; the paper; the clock; the knife; the street; the grain; the bread.

MODELS.—To the eagle belongs *hunger*; to Chicago belongs *prosperity*.

The word desired will be suggested in answer to the question: *In what place, time, or condition, is the object?* Or in answer to the interrogatives *Where? When? How?*

OBSERVATION.—The state or condition of an object may be expressed in other ways than by simple nouns. The noun with a preposition, as, "The nation *is at peace*;" and the participle in *ing*, as, "The lamb *is frisking*," are the forms most common. Words compounded of a noun and the prefix *a*, which is the fragment of an obsolete preposition, signifying *in* or *on*, are also expressive of condition; as, "The boat *is adrift*;" "The child *was asleep*."

§ 40. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Assert some condition of each of the following objects in each of the different forms mentioned:—*

Jarvis; the ship; the cloud; the oak; the book; the heart; the head; the sport.

MODELS.—To the door belongs *decay*; the door *is decaying*; the door *is ajar*.

§ 41. Relations of objects are expressed in nouns called *Relation-nouns*; as, *superiority, succession, suitability, discipleship*.

RELATION-NOUNS express relations.

§ 42. ORAL EXERCISE. *Name the Relation-nouns in the following sentences:—*

A dollar in paper currency should be in equality of value with a dollar in coin. The nearness of France to England makes intercourse easy between the two nations. The ancient law gave the younger sons and daughters of the king precedence before all peers. His fickleness is the chief hindrance to his success. All communication with him was on account of his waywardness suspended from that time. The behavior of John was in striking contrast with that of his brother. We state our experience and then we come to a manly resolution of acting in contradiction to it. Its usefulness and subserviency to the purposes of piety will be exhibited. When the being of the state is endangered, resistance to the person of the king is justifiable. The genuine effect of a nearer view of infinite excellency is a deep sense of our own great inferiority to it.

Assert relations of the following objects :—

A coin ; a tree ; rice ; the air ; the citizen ; the child ; the magistrate.

MODELS. — To the dollar belongs usefulness in trade ; to the shrub belongs inferiority in size to the tree ; to the spirit belongs control over the body

OBSERVATION. — Relations may be attributed to objects in the form of Abstract Nouns ; or of Verbs ; or of Adjectives ; or by means of Prepositions. Relations exist in time, as "Alexander succeeded Philip ;" in place, as "Spain adjoins France ;" as cause and effect, or aim and object, as "Heat expands iron ;" and in degree, "John outruns James ;" "John is swifter than James." They are readily expressed in Verbs compounded with Prepositions which retain their proper force in the compound ; as, *outbid, overbalance, undermine, circumscribe, counteract, exceed, interline, transcend.*

§ 43. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Assert some relation of each of the following objects in each of the forms mentioned, — by an Abstract Noun ; by a Verb ; by an Adjective :—*

Copper ; granite, the grape ; cotton ; agriculture ; painting ; commerce ; law ; government ; avarice ; wealth ; study.

MODELS. — To lead may be attributed utility for many wants in life ; lead outweighs iron ; lead subserves the wants of man ; lead is serviceable for our wants.

§ 44. Attributes, when regarded as objects, are expressed in words called *Abstracts* ; as, *walking ; sleep ; sweetness ; equality.*

An **ABSTRACT** is the name of an attribute when regarded as an object.

OBSERVATION. — An Abstract Noun and an Adjective both express attributes ; but an Abstract expresses an attribute of which we can assert some other attribute ; an Adjective does not. Thus we can say, "Sweetness is attractive ;" but not "Sweet is attractive."

§ 45. Nouns are of two classes :—

1. **CONCRETE NOUNS**, denoting subjects in thought ;
2. **ABSTRACT NOUNS**, denoting attributes in thought.

§ 46. Concretes are of four kinds :—

1. **PROPER NOUNS**, denoting individual objects ;
2. **CLASS-NOUNS**, denoting classes ;
3. **COLLECTIVE NOUNS**, denoting groups ;
4. **MASS-NOUNS**, denoting composite objects of spacial parts.

§ 47. Abstracts are of four kinds :—

1. Words denoting **QUALITIES** ;
2. Words denoting **ACTIONS** ;
3. Words denoting **CONDITIONS** ;
4. Words denoting **RELATIONS**.

§ 48. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Form sentences in which something shall be asserted of each of the following Concretes :—*

John ; Socrates ; Cicero ; Sir Isaac Newton ; Benjamin Franklin ; the Sun ; Mars ; the Amazon ; Italy.

Bird ; fish ; serpents ; mountains ; stars ; tables ; knives.

Forest ; army ; class ; convention ; mob ; corps ; clan ; bundle.

Wood ; air ; heat ; space ; mind.

Form sentences in which each of the following Attributes shall be asserted of some substance :—

Runs ; strikes ; burns ; hurts ; thinks ; feels ; makes ; directs ; learns.

Quiet ; moving ; standing ; falling ; calm ; troubled ; contented ; frisking ; flying ; silent ; distant ; indignant ; petulant.

Tall ; green ; heavy ; elastic ; fragrant ; quick ; impulsive ; kind ; rash.

Below the sun ; behind the hour ; exceeds one hundred ; excels his leader ; greater than you imagine.

Form sentences in which some quality, action, condition, and relation, shall be asserted of the following Concretes :—

1. Grass; 2. Rock; 3. Cloud; 4. Star; 5. Person; 6. Mind; 7. Army.

MODEL.— Grass is soft; grass grows; grass is dry; grass nourishes animals.

Form sentences in which one or more of the following Attributes shall be asserted of some Proper Noun, Class-noun, Collective noun, and Mass-noun:—

1. Size; 2. Shape; 3. Color; 4. Weight.

MODELS.— Cæsar is small; is deformed; is of dark complexion. The house is large; is square; is white. The constellation is large; is dipper-like; is bright. Smoke is curling; is dark; outweighs common air.

CHAPTER V.

PRONOUNS.

§ 49. IN speaking, there is ever a speaker, a person spoken to, and an object spoken of. For the convenient expression of these several elements of all discourse, a class of words called *Pronouns* are employed. As instead of saying "The speaker gives the speaker's book to the hearer," we say, "*I give my book to you.*"

A PRONOUN is a word used to distinguish the speaker, the person spoken to, and the object spoken of.

I, my, me; we, our, us, denote the speaker or speakers.

Thou, thy, thee; you, your, denote the person or persons spoken to.

He, his, him; she, her; it, its; they, their, them, denote the object spoken of.

§ 50. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Pronouns in the following sentences:—*

They soon lost sight of him. We loitered along the way at our pleasure. Thou wilt deserve thy crown. Their path lay through the forest. I will bring them my bridle with your horse. Her stay was prolonged. You will need protection. She will never deny them any thing. They will bring with them in their carriage my books in your satchel. We will then study our lessons together.

§ 51. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences, each containing one of the above Pronouns.*

§ 52. In speaking it is often needful to present again an object already distinguished as speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, in some new relation of thought. This need is met by a class of words called *Relative Pronouns*.

A RELATIVE PRONOUN is a word used to denote an object already named in the sentence ; as, "The man deserves well *who* does well." Here *who* denotes the object already named as *man*.

The Relative Pronouns are *who, whose, whom, which, that; as*.

What includes in itself both the object and the relative ; as, "*What* he will engage in, I know not ;" — a sentence equivalent to "The *business that* he will engage in, I know not."

§ 53. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Relative Pronouns in the following sentences : —*

He is like a beast of prey, that destroys without pity. Of them to whom much is given, much will be required. We value most what costs us most. They know not what they do. They are principles which I detest. His companions are not such persons as his friends would select for him. There are persons for whose good we would gladly labor. No such reasoning as that will satisfy my mind. It is easy to find some one whom you may befriend. The man that can please no one is indeed miserable.

§ 54. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences, each containing one of the above named Relatives.*

CHAPTER VI.

MODIFYING WORDS.

§ 55. WHEN we wish in speaking to confine the thought to a part of an object, we often make use of a peculiar class of limiting words, called *adjectives* ; as, "The *wild* pigeon ; "The *tall* tree."

An ADJECTIVE is a word used to limit a noun by an attribute.

§ 56. When we wish to limit the thought to a part of an attribute, we employ a peculiar class of limiting words, called *adverbs* ; as, "He was *nobly* generous ;" "They had *lately* arrived ;" "He lives *here*."

An ADVERB is a word used to limit an attribute.

§ 57. When we wish to limit an assertion we use a peculiar class of words, called *modals* ; as, "I *certainly* saw him ;" "I shall *probably* go ;" "I may *perhaps* be present."

A MODAL is a word used to limit an assertion.

The following words are properly modals : —

Assuredly, certainly, doubtless, forsooth, indeed, indubitably, positively, truly, verily, undoubtedly, unquestionably, not, necessarily, haply, perchance, perhaps, peradventure, possibly.

§ 58. Words so used to limit an element are called *Modifying Elements*, or *Modifiers*, while the words limited by them are called *Principal Elements*.

§ 59. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Adjectives, Adverbs, and Modals in the following sentences:—*

A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger. It was a cold autumnal evening; Mrs. Simons was busily sewing, and Louisa sat anxiously regarding her father. I felt very giddy while swinging from side to side, and losing rapidly the cheerful light of day. It certainly appeared a long journey. I was amazingly tired. Daylight added possibly to the effect. "Perhaps we shall go yet," said his father. The young and the old, the rich and the poor, the wise man and the fool, the brave man and the coward, all shrink from death.

CHAPTER VII.

FORM-WORDS.

§ 60. THE classes of words hitherto described all express some notion, as of an object or an attribute or assertion, or a significant modification of an object, attribute, or assertion. They are hence called *Notion-words*.

There is another class of words which are not used for these purposes. They are used to help out the expression of the thought by indicating some relation of notion-words in the sentence. The nature of this relation determines the classes of these auxiliary words, which, in order to distinguish them from Notion-words, have been called *Form-words*.

They are used thus:—

1. To express the relation of an object as either limiting another object, or as an attribute; as, "A citizen *in* Rome;" "He went *to* Athens;" "Dependent *upon* his father;" "The ring is *of* gold." In these phrases, the words *in, to, upon,* are introduced to show the relation of the objects, "Rome," "Athens," "his father," to "citizen," "went," "dependent;" and *of* to "gold" as attribute predicated of "ring." Such Form-words are called *Prepositions*.

2. To express the relation of sentences, or parts of sentences to each other, as to be connected in some way in thought; as, "The storm beat *and* the house fell;" "Poor, *yet* making many rich;" "Fearless *because* innocent." The words *and, yet, because,* here show a connection in thought between the sentence "The storm beat," and the sentence "the house fell;" and between the parts of a sentence "poor" and "fearless," and the parts "making many rich"

and "innocent." Form-words of this kind are called *Conjunctions*.

3. To express various relations denoted in the Inflection of words. Here belong, (1.) The words used in the Inflection of Verbs, usually called *Verb-auxiliaries*; as, "I may say;" "They will go." (2.) *The auxiliaries of comparison*, more, most, less, least.

4. To express a mere rhetorical relation, as in the case of the use of particles to show that the order of the sentence is inverted; as, "*It* is foul weather to-day;" "*There* will be gladness in that hour." "It" and "there" belong to a class of Form-words vaguely called *Expletives*, as they neither add to the thought nor modify it in any way.

5. To express the relations of the thought to the feelings of the speaker; as, "*O* the folly of delay!" "*Alas!* he fell." These Form-words are called *Interjections*.

§ 61. A PREPOSITION is a word used to show the relation of a noun when used as a modifier or an attribute; as "He went *from* London *to* Rome;" "The tree stands *near* the stream;" "The wheat is ready *for* the harvest;" "The sun is *in* the heavens."

§ 62. A CONJUNCTION is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences; as, "The night comes on *and* the storm still rages;" "Just *but* merciful;" "Generous *although* hasty."

§ 63. AUXILIARIES are words used in the inflection of words; as, "He *will* come;" "They *should* go;" "They are learning *to* help;" "*More* nice than wise."

§ 64. EXPLETIVES are words without significance, used to show certain rhetorical relations; as, "*It* is time that we go;" "*There* is rest in the grave."

§ 65. INTERJECTIONS are words used to express feeling; as, "*Alas!* he dies;" "*Lo!* he comes!"

§ 66. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the several kinds of Form-words in the following sentences:—*

They waited but for a few minutes. The dead, and his cruelty to the dead, were alike forgotten. Hail! holy light. It was long before he came. And shun, O shun, the enchanted cup. The most desolate in populous cities may hope, for Charity has not quite closed her hand and heart, and shut her eyes on misery. "Pshaw! pshaw! child," said the sly thief. He would not eat nor drink unless he was solicited. It was in vain that I insisted upon knowing his purpose. Thus, forlorn and distressed, he wandered through the wild. Yes! if the life and death of Socrates were those of a Sage, the life and death of Jesus were those of a God.

CHAPTER VIII.

PHRASES. — CLAUSES.

§ 67. IT is often necessary to use more than one word to express an element. The expression of an element in more than one word is either a *Phrase* or a *Clause*.

A *PHRASE* is a part of a sentence consisting of two or more words without a verb expressed or implied; as, "A cluster of ripe grapes."

A *CLAUSE* is a part of a sentence consisting of two or more words, and containing a verb expressed or implied; as, "I will go, *if it be possible*;" "I will go, *if possible*."

OBSERVATION. — A *Phrase*, it will have been seen, differs from a *Clause* in this respect, that it contains nothing either expressed or implied of the thought-element of speech — nothing of the proper *Copula*-element. The *Clause* always contains this element, although it is often not fully expressed. The distinction is fundamental and of high importance to correct speaking and writing.

§ 68. Phrases and Clauses, in respect of their use in the sentence like single words, are of four kinds: —

1. *Principal*, when they express a subject, predicate, or object of thought generally, or the copula; as, "The rising sun was now penetrating the mist;" "That their arrival was not expected is clear."

2. *Adjective*, when they modify objects of thought; as, "The slowly rising sun;" "The sun that was slowly rising."

3. *Adverbial*, when they modify attributes; as, "He arrived *unexpectedly to us*;" "The sun was rising *in the east*;" "We searched the stream *where the boat was last seen*."

4. *Modal*, when they modify the copula or the assertive element of the sentence; as, "The events might *in a certain contingency* have happened;" "If *it had been necessary*, he would have sacrificed his life."

§ 69. Phrases, in respect of their form, are of two kinds: —

1. *Adjuncts*, consisting of a Noun and Preposition; as, "A cluster *of grapes*;" "The two bright birds walked about *for a few minutes around the image of the children*, or stood *quietly at their feet*."

2. *Case Independent*, or *Absolute*, consisting of a Noun and Participle; as, "At ten o'clock, *my task being finished*, I went down to the river." This form of the phrase may be called the *Independent* or the *Absolute Phrase*.

§ 70. Clauses, in respect of their form, are of three kinds: —

1. Those introduced by a *Relative Pronoun*; as, "The man *who discovered the mine* had died;" "He *that dwelt here* is gone."

2. Those introduced by an *Adverb*; as, "*How he heard*, I have never known;" "I cannot conjecture *why he acted thus*."

3. Those introduced by a *Conjunction*; as, "It was not possible *that he could arrive in time*;" "He will find out *whether it is true*;" "I saw *he was gone*," the *Conjunction* in this sentence being omitted.

§ 71. **ORAL EXERCISE.** Point out the Phrases and the Clauses in the following extracts, and tell whether

Principal, Adjective, Adverbial, or Modal. Then go over the extracts a second time, and name the Phrases in the form of Adjuncts and in the Case Independent; and the Clauses, whether introduced by a Relative, an Adverb, or a Conjunction. —

The returning autumn. A lone Indian. Was seen standing. He must of necessity have been standing long. He stood at the consecrated spot. The fire of his eye. The Eagle of the Mohawks. A deep groan burst from the soul of the savage. For thirty wearisome years he had watched that oak with its twining tendrils. The tree that he had planted was dead. The white man carries food to his wife and children. We shall comprehend it when we know how the morning-stars sang together. To one who goes out in Nature with his heart open, it is a pleasant music. There was no creed that he did not profess; there was no opinion that he did not promulgate. If my heart were great, it would burst at this. We had not been long in the camp, when a party set out in quest of a bee-tree. He did not come, notwithstanding he had so solemnly pledged his word to be punctual, till the exercises were nearly finished. The hour having been spent, the company dispersed. Whether the old dame enjoyed or merely diffused that comfort, was a problem. When he had finished, they sank on their knees. We at length came, the sunken plain having been crossed, to the edge of the crater.

§ 72. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Write out by themselves, —*

1. The Proper Nouns in Appendix No. VII.;
2. The Class-nouns;
3. The Collective Nouns;
4. The Mass-nouns;
5. The Action Nouns;
6. The Condition Nouns;
7. The Quality Nouns;

8. The Verbs;
9. The Adjectives;
10. The Adverbs;
11. The Modals;
12. The Pronouns;
13. The Relatives;
14. The Prepositions;
15. The Conjunctions;
16. The Verb-Auxiliaries;
17. The Infinitives marked by the sign *to*;
18. The Words of Comparison marked by *more, most; less, least*;
19. The Expletives;
20. The Interjections;
21. The Adjuncts;
22. Each Case Independent;
23. The Relative Clauses;
24. The Adverbial Clauses;
25. The Conjunctive Clauses

CHAPTER IX.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

§ 73. WORDS are formed from other words in three ways:—

1. By Composition;
2. By Derivation;
3. By Inflection.

§ 74. Compound words are formed by uniting simple words without change; as, *steam-boat*, *windmill*, *headstrong*.

OBSERVATION.—For directions when to use the hyphen, see § 550.

§ 75. Derivative words are formed in three ways:—

1. By a prefix; as, *fore-go*; *under-bid*;
2. By an affix; as, *change-able*, *covet-ous*, *civil-ize*;
3. By an internal change in the word; as, *live* from *life*, *bond* from *bind*.

§ 76. Words are formed by Inflection in three ways:—

1. By an affix; as, *love-st*, *call-ed*;
2. By internal change in the word; as, *bade* from *bid*, *sunk* from *sank*;
3. By auxiliaries, forming a composite word; as, *more exact*; *may love*; *shall have loved*.

§ 77. In forming words, certain principles govern, of which the more important are those of *Cognate ori-*

gin and of *Euphony*. We have from these principles the following—

RULES FOR THE FORMATION OF WORDS.

RULE I. The parts of the word should not be taken from different languages.

OBSERVATION.—The necessities of speech allow certain infractions of this rule, and particularly in the case of words more familiarized to English use; thus we add the proper English suffix *-ness* to Latin stems, as *nobleness*. But the rule is yet one which has sway to a large extent, and should not be disregarded without authority or reason. In the use of prefixes, thus, the negative prefix *un-* is vernacular, while *in-* is of Latin origin; we do not say, therefore, *inwise* or *unavoidable*, but *unwise*, *inevitable*; nor *inscrew*, *undispose*, but *unscrew*, *indispose*. So in suffixes, *-ness* is vernacular; *-ity* is Latin. Accordingly, we say *insanity*, but *unsoundness*.

In many cases, from the same root or stem we have different derivative forms giving shades of meaning more or less different; as, *gentility*, *gentleness*; *humility*, *humbleness*.

RULE II. A silent *E* final is dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *loving*, *ripen*, *rider*, *brutish*, *curable*, *carousal*, *guidance*, *pasturage*, *combination*.

Except words ending in *ce* or *ge* before *a* or *o*; also, words ending in *ee*, *oe*, and *ye*; as, *changeable*, *courageous*, *serviceable*, *fleeing*, *hoeing*, *eyeing*.

RULE III. A single consonant preceded by a single vowel in a final accented syllable, is doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *robbed*, *dragged*, *petted*, *gladden*, *shedding*, *bagging*, *controlling*, *omitted*, *forgettest*, *foppish*, *muddy*.

OBSERVATION.—Words ending in an unaccented syllable, also *gas* and *sal*, do not double the final consonant, as *labeled*, *marvelous*, *gaseous*, *salify*, *revoler*, *baroness*, *riveting*. But we have *crystalline*, *metalline*, *coralline*, *tranquility*, these words in the original languages from which they are taken having the letter doubled.

RULE IV. *Y* final, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* before a suffix not beginning with *i*; as, *lilies*, *happier*, *decries*, *raciness*, *bodily*, *fanciful*.

Except in a few monosyllabic adjectives, and before suffixes *-ship* and *-ling*; as, *dryly*, *shyest*, *ladyship*. But *drier* and *driest* are forms authorized by usage.

OBSERVATION. — *Y* final preceded by a vowel is not changed; as, *ways*, *moneys*, *delays*, *playing*, *gayly*, *gayety*. Except *laid*, *paid*, *said*, *sail*, *slain*, *staid*, *daily*.

RULE V. *Ie* final is changed into *y* before a suffix beginning with *i*; as, *lying*, *tying*, from *lie*, *tie*.

RULE VI. A single *f* final, and *f* before *e* final, become *v* before a suffix beginning with a vowel in many words; as, *beeves*, *thievish*.

OBSERVATION. — This principle was once a general one, and applied to *s*, and *th* as heard in *thin*, as well as to *f*. We can thus account for such derivations as *thieve* from *thief*; *believe* from *belief*; *brazen* from *brass*; *breath* from *breath*. The principle was that the characters *f* and *s* represented aspirates generally, but represented phthongal or vocal sounds before vowels. Thus, the singular *lif*, pronounced *life*, became *lives*, pronounced *lives*, in the plural; and the verb *lif-an* was pronounced *lican*.

RULE VII. Words ending in a double letter drop one on taking a suffix beginning with that letter, except *ll* before *less*; as, *seen*, *agreed*, *fully*, *impression*.

But *pall-less*, *hull-less*.

RULE VIII. *C* takes *k* before a suffix beginning with *e*, *i*, or *y*; as, *trafficked*, *frolicking*, *garticky*.

RULE IX. Many words ending in *er* or *or* unaccented, preceded by *b*, *d*, *g*, *k*, *p*, or *t*, drop the vowel before a suffix beginning with a vowel other than *i*; as, *cumbrous*, *traitress*, *disastrous*.

§ 78. ORAL EXERCISE. Correct the errors in the orthography of the derivative words in the following sentences or phrases, and give the rule: —

The fertility of the soil was a decisive consideration in the purchase. The glancing of his eye and the giving of his hand both betokened the feeling which was moving his heart

They were gladdened by the return of the traveller. There was a strange forgetfulness observable in him. The chimneys were smoking, the men in the streets buried their cars under their furs; the snow creaked beneath the wheels, all indicating to the eye and the ear, as their close and warm carriage hurried through the town, with what rapidity the temperature had been changing during the night. The fading and dying leaves in the forest testified to the waning of the year. Such whimsical wonders lose their effect when mimicked in ground artificially laid. A beggar begs that never begged before. By much planing and runing he at last succeeded in having one of the men acquitted and the other expelled from the realm. The attorneys at the beginning cavilled at the conditions, but finally, after counselling together, cancelled the old contract and submitted to the terms of the new agreement. He very studiously surveyed the matter, and in a very peaceable manner signified his assent to the arrangement which was in fact very advantageous to all the parties. Desire to resemble him in goodness maketh them unweariable and ever unsatiable in their longing to do all manner of good. The string was incapable of harmony.

THE
ART OF COMPOSITION.

—◆—
GENERAL DIVISION.

§ 79. WHEN we speak we utter Thought through a word or words.

There are two things to be considered, accordingly, when we speak or write: (1.) What we speak, — the Thought; (2.) How we speak, — the Words or Expression.

§ 80. When we think, we think of something, which is called the Matter of our Thought.

The Thinking itself, or the Thought proper, is one thing, and the Matter of Thought is another thing. The two together make up what is called the Thought expressed in words; that is, the Sentence; § 1.

§ 81. The Matter of Thought consists of two things: (1.) That of which we think; (2.) That which we think of it.

That of which we think, that which we think of it, and the thinking itself, make up the three necessary elements of Thought.

These three elements, properly united, form the Sentence proper; which can contain only these three elements.

§ 82. Either of these three elements taken sepa-

rately in different sentences may appear in a broader or in a narrower form; in other words, these elements may either of them be more or less limited in use. When thus limited, they are said to be *modified*; and the parts of the sentence which are used to limit them are called modifying parts, or *modifiers*; while the elements themselves that are thus limited are called *Principal Elements*.

§ 83. The Expression of Thought in words is either in forms originally provided in Language for this purpose, or in forms that are borrowed or derived.

The Elements of Expression are accordingly, either, (1.) *Normal or Regular*; or (2.) *Abnormal or Irregular*.

Further, most words have a meaning of their own; but some words only show relations either in the thought or in the expression. Words, accordingly, are of two classes: (1.) *Notion-Words*; (2.) *Form-Words*.

Once more, the expression of an element of Thought may be either in the use of one word or of more words than one. If more words than one are used, they form a *Phrase*, if they express only matter of thought; and a *Clause*, if they express thought itself.

§ 84. In speaking, it is necessary to put together these elements of Thought and of Expression in a proper way. This process of putting together the elements of a sentence is called *Construction*.

§ 85. Corresponding to this process of Construction, is that of *Analysis*, which is the process of taking apart the elements which have been put together in Construction. This is necessary in order to detect the faults in expression, or to assure ourselves that the sentence is correctly expressed.

§ 86. We utter our thoughts to others through the ear, the sight, or other sense. In other words, we use sensible images or symbols, through which we express our thoughts. We, in fact, for the most part, think to ourselves through these sensible forms. This putting of thought into sounds or other sensible forms, is called the *Symbolism of Thought*.

§ 87. Once more, the thought which we wish to express may be complex; and if so, it may be necessary to present it part by part. This separate exhibition of the parts of our thought—this unfolding of thought—is called *Explanation*.

§ 88. The distribution of the Art of Composition will, accordingly, be into the following departments, namely:—

- PART I. Matter or Object of Thought;
- “ II. Principal Elements of the Sentence;
 - “ III. Modified Elements of the Sentence;
 - “ IV. Abnormal Elements of the Sentence;
 - “ V. The Construction of the Sentence;
 - “ VI. The Analysis of the Sentence;
 - “ VII. Symbolism of Thought;
 - “ VIII. Explanation.

PART I.—OBJECT OF THOUGHT.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS — DIVISIONS.

§ 89. AN OBJECT OF THOUGHT is that of which we think.

It is expressed in language by means of the *Noun*.

A NOUN, thus, is a form of language expressing that of which we think. In brief, it may be defined as *the name of an object of thought*; as, *James, tree, cluster, light, spirit, wish, sleep, sweetness, equality*.

OBSERVATION 1.— It will be noticed that the definition here given differs from that under § 10 in the addition of the words “of thought.” Nouns are names of objects only as thought. Language, indeed, universally deals with objects not strictly and immediately as they are, but mediately, as they are thought to be.

Further, that which we think of any thing is as truly an object of thought as that of which we think; the predicate, in other words, is as truly an object of thought as the subject. Thus, in the two sentences, “John is a biped” and “John is two-footed,” *biped* and *two-footed* are alike, in a certain sense, objects of thought. But when we speak generally of an object of thought we mean that which can be used either as subject or as predicate indifferently. Now the word *two-footed* cannot be used as a subject of a sentence. We cannot say “Two-footed is an animal,” as we can say “A biped is an animal.” In this way a noun is distinguished from the predicate-adjective, called by some grammarians the *noun-adjective*, in distinction from the *noun-substantive*. A noun, therefore, is always a subject-word; that is, a word which may be used as a subject in a sentence, and always denotes that of which we may assert something. It may be used, indeed, as a predicate, or in modifying a subject or predicate, or even in modifying a modifier; but it is ever a word which can properly be used as a subject in a sentence.

OBSERVATION 2. — Whenever we think, the matter of our thought consists, as has been stated, of two parts: (1.) That of which we think — the subject; (2.) That which we think of it — the attribute. Now we may wish to make the attribute itself an object of which we shall think something. Thus, we first think, "Grass is green," in which, *grass* is the subject and *green* is the attribute, the two together making up the matter of our thought. But we afterward wish to speak of the attribute itself, and to assert something of it, and we say, "Greenness is prevalent in spring." We have thus two classes of subjects in thought: (1.) Those which were originally thought as subjects, called *Concretes*; (2.) Those which were originally thought as attributes, called *Abstracts*. These latter change their form generally, although not always, in order to be used as subject-words; that is, to become nouns, properly so called.

§ 90. Nouns are of two classes: (1.) *Concretes*; (2.) *Abstracts*.

§ 91. CONCRETES are names of those objects which we originally think as subjects.

Concrete nouns are of two classes: (1.) Names of Individual Objects; (2.) Names of Composite Objects.

ILLUSTRATION. — We may think of an object either without reference to any parts of which it is made up, or in reference to such parts. So far as it is thought without reference to any parts, it is viewed, if a concrete, as individual; if an abstract, as simple. So far as it is viewed as having parts, it is to our thought Composite.

§ 92. Individual Objects are expressed in words called Proper Nouns. Hence,

A PROPER NOUN is the name of an Individual Object of Thought; as, *James, Carlo, Mars, Spain, Thursday*.

OBSERVATION. — A Noun is Proper, strictly speaking, only when it is a name appropriated to the individual object. When a Composite object is limited by a modifying word to an individual, as, *That man, the sun, some man*, the whole expression denotes indeed an individual object; it is not, however, a normal Proper Noun, which is a single word appropriated to a single object. The following are the leading classes of objects for which language furnishes Proper Nouns as names, namely: —

1. *Space, Time*, — the primitive conditions of all thought.
2. *Places*; as, *Africa, Vesuvius*.

3. *Times*; as, *January, Monday, Youth*.
4. *Persons*; as, *James, George*.
5. *Animals*; as, *Fido, Dobbin*.
6. *Heavenly Bodies*; as, *Sirius, Venus*.
7. *Sciences and Arts*; as, *Logic, Galvanism, Music*.

§ 93. Composite Concrete Objects are of three classes: —

1. *Masses*;
2. *Groups*;
3. *Classes*.

ILLUSTRATION. — Of the first class is the object expressed by the word *man*, when viewed as made up of the parts *head, body, limbs*. The parts are here viewed as filling certain portions of space — as extended.

Of the second class is the object expressed by the word *army*, when viewed as made up of parts that may be counted as one, two, three, etc.; that is, as so many soldiers.

Of the third class is the object expressed by the word *man*, when viewed as made up of parts that are individuals, having some attribute or attributes in common, as *rational*. See Appendix No. II.

§ 94. A Composite Object viewed as made up of spacial or extended Parts, is expressed in a word called a *Mass-noun*; as, *man*, regarded as made up of *head, body, limbs*; *water*, regarded as a mass made up of this, that, and the other portion.

Hence a MASS-NOUN is a name of an object regarded as a mere mass; as, *water, air, spirit, thought*.

OBSERVATION. — We think of spiritual objects as we think of material objects, as in space, and as filling certain portions of space. We think thus of mind, spirit, as we think of *water, air, breath*, as if they had extension. When so regarded they are proper Integrate Wholes, and are expressed in proper Mass-nouns.

§ 95. A Composite Object viewed as made up of simple numerical parts, or parts that may be counted one by one, is expressed in a word called a *Collective Noun*; as, *army*, regarded as made up of parts, in this case *soldiers*, that may be counted as one, two, three,

etc. ; *forest*, regarded as made up of a number, or as a group of trees.

Hence a COLLECTIVE NOUN is the name of a group, as, *army, flock, herd*.

§ 96. A Composite Object, viewed as made up of parts having the same attribute or property, is expressed in a word called a *Class-noun*.

Hence a CLASS-NOUN is the name of a class ; as, *man, tree, star*.

OBSERVATION 1. — A Class is formed by uniting objects that have a common, that is the same, attribute or property, or properties. Thus, as we observe that Mercury revolves about the Sun, that Venus revolves about the Sun, and that Mars revolves about the Sun, we gather the several subjects in these sentences having the same predicate, into one, and thus form a class which we call *Planet*. Such a union of subjects on the same predicate Base, is called in Logic an Extensive Whole. Such an object is ever a class. The word expressing it is a Class-noun.

Because a class always regards this predicate Base as belonging alike to each of the individuals or parts making up the class, the class-name may be correctly applied to every part. Thus, every individual making up the class *man*, may be called a *man* ; as, *John is a man*. This property distinguishes it from a Collective Noun, which expresses an object to whose parts the name of the whole cannot be so applied. Thus, *John* is one of the parts—one of the soldiers—that make up the collective or grouped whole, *army* ; but we cannot say, *John is an army*. *Man* is a Class-noun ; *Army* is a Collective Noun.

A Collective Noun, it may be further observed, is but a plural noun expressed in a singular form, with a more or less definite indication of the number intended, and of the mode of union. Thus, *forest* means simply trees of a certain number and in a certain relation to one another ; *dozen* is twelve units ; *brace* is two things.

OBSERVATION 2. — Certain terminations originally and appropriately denote, respectively, particular kinds of concretes. The following are of leading importance to be distinguished : —

1. PERSONS are denoted by the following terminations : —

Agents ; (1.) Anglo-Saxon ; as, *man, ar, er, eer, ier, yer, ster, or* ; Female, *ess* ; as, *carman, beggar, writer, auctioneer, clothier, sawyer, teamster sailor, hostess*. (2.) Latin and French ; *ant, ent, ist, ive, ary* ; Female, *ina, is* ; as, *assailant, regent, florist, captive, notary, heroine, executrix*.

Objects of Action, by Latin *ee, ate, ite* ; as, *grantee, associate, favorite*.

2. DIMINUTIVES are denoted by (1.) Anglo-Saxon, *et, el, ie, kin, let, ling*

ock ; as, *caskct, satchel, minnie, lambkin, streamlet, seedling, hillock*. (2.) Latin *cle, ule* ; as, *particle, globule*.

3. PLACES *where* are denoted by Latin *ary, ory* ; as, *library, dormitory*.

4. SCIENCES and TREATISES are denoted by Greek *ics or ic, logy, graphy* ; as, *optics, logic, geology, geography*.

5. CLASSES are denoted by Anglo-Saxon *ard, kind* ; as, *laggard, mankind*.

§ 97. An attribute, when to be used as a general object of thought, is expressed in a word called an Abstract Noun, or simply an *Abstract* ; as, *brightness* viewed as an attribute of the sun ; *truthfulness*, as an attribute of George Washington.

Hence an ABSTRACT NOUN is a noun expressing an attribute.

§ 98. Abstract Nouns are of two classes : (1.) Names of simple attributes ; as, *existence, whiteness* ; (2.) Of composite attributes ; as, *intelligence*, composed of *observation, reflection*, and the like.

OBSERVATION. — Grammarians have not furnished particular words to distinguish names of simple attributes from those of composite attributes, as they have to mark these distinctions of single and composite in concretes. The distinction is, however, obvious, although practically not so necessary. The classification of abstracts given in the next section includes all abstracts, simple and composite alike.

§ 99. Attributes are of four classes : (1.) Qualities ; (2.) Actions ; (3.) Conditions ; (4.) Relations.

Hence, Abstracts are of the four classes : (1.) Quality-nouns ; (2.) Action-nouns ; (3.) Condition-nouns ; (4.) Relation-nouns. See Appendix No. II.

OBSERVATION. — There are certain terminations which are used originally to denote attributes. Although in the progress of the language, and especially in the free admission of words into it from foreign languages, these distinctions are obscured, yet it will be found of great service to facility and correctness in expression, to become familiar with them so far as is practicable. The following may be indicated as of leading importance : —

QUALITIES are denoted by (1.) Anglo-Saxon *ness*, as, *goodness* ; (2.) Latin *ice, ty* ; as, *malice, devilty*.

ACTIONS are appropriately expressed by the terminations, (1.) Anglo-

Saxon *ing, th, t* as, *rising, truth*, (from *to trow*), *rift*. (2.) Latin *age, nce, ion, ment, ure*; as, *ferrriage, deliverance, diversion, description, refinement, capture*.

STATES or CONDITIONS are denoted by (1.) Anglo-Saxon *hood, ship dom*; as, *boyhood, hardship, thralldom*; (2.) Latin *acy, ncy, nce, ude*; as, *privacy, turbulency, penitence, solitude*.

§ 100. ORAL EXERCISE. *Name objects to which the following qualities may be attributed:—*

Wisdom; boldness; depth; duration; smoothness; heaviness; hardness; blueness; softness; sweetness; quickness; density; timidity; credulity; magnanimity.

Name objects to which the following actions may be attributed:—

Breathing; growth; drift.
Tillage; acceptance; science; suspicion; persuasion; creation; enticement; seizure.

Name objects to which the following conditions may be attributed:—

Childhood; ripeness; wardship; freedom.
Lunacy; occupancy; convalescence; lassitude.

Name objects to which the following relations may be attributed:—

Foundation; substratum; superintendence; center; boundary; inclosure; foreground; opposition.
Priority; sequel; concurrence; anticipation; seniority; minority; postponement.
Preponderance; equality; disadvantage; preëminence; decrease.
Production; construction; extinction; suppression.

OBSERVATION.—In a relation there must of course be two terms. In these exercises, accordingly, both should be expressed as in these models: The *foundation* of the *structure* was a wall of brick and mortar. The *pre dominance* of *caution* over other qualities was a striking characteristic.

§ 101. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Construct sentences in which the following words shall be used to denote their objects as qualities:—*

Feebleness, tardiness, rashness, closeness, justice, cowardice, civility, dignity, ferocity.

Construct sentences in which the following words shall be used to denote their objects as actions:—

Bidding, winding, growth, ruth, trust, plaint, portorage, stoppage, severance, hindrance, extension, mission, circulation, mention, desertion, improvement, disbursement, nurture, conjecture.

Construct sentences in which the following words shall be used to denote their objects as conditions:—

Neighborhood, knighthood, kingship, censorship, freedom, earldom, lunacy, degeneracy, vigilancy, occupancy, affluence, absence, lassitude, solicitude.

Construct sentences in which the following words shall be used to denote their objects as relations:—

Excess, preference, antecedence, inferiority, neighborhood, remoteness, attention, comparison, equality.

MODEL.—The dullness of the axe delays the work.

CHAPTER II.

NOUNS — NUMBER.

§ 102. WE may wish to express one object singly, as one individual, one mass, one group, one class, or more than one taken together. This gives rise to the distinction of nouns in respect of *number*.

If the word denoting the object presents it as single, it is said to be of the *singular number*; if it present the object as consisting of more than one, it is said to be of the *plural number*.

There are, accordingly, two classes of nouns in respect of number, Singular Nouns and Plural Nouns.

§ 103. NUMBER is the distinction of nouns as denoting one or more.

There are two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

A noun denoting its object as taken but once is of the Singular Number; as, *Milton, water, army, tree*.

A noun denoting its object as taken more than once is of the Plural Number; as, *Miltons, waters, armies, trees*.

§ 104. The noun is changed in its form to denote more than one. Hence the following rules for forming the plural. The first rule is the general rule; the others are specific rules or exceptions.

RULE I. To form the plural noun, add *s* to the singular; as, *star-s, ship-s, virtue-s, race-s*.

RULE II. If the last letter of the singular cannot unite in one syllable with the regular plural termination (*-s*), insert the connecting vowel *e*, as *arch-es, gash-es, atlas-es, box-es*.

OBSERVATION. — This is a mere principle of Euphony. It applies also to the inflection of the verb. In the English it prevails to a far less extent than in the classical and modern European languages.

RULE III. Figures, letters, signs, and symbols, used as words, to form their plurals insert an apostrophe before the *s*; as, *5's, n's, B's, + 's, []'s, *'s*; the *m's* were all in italics.

RULE IV. In compound words and modified words the plural sign is affixed to the leading object; as, *step-fathers, horse-thieves, brothers-in-law, cousins-german, knights-templar, the Generals Sherman, the brothers Smith, Messieurs Thompson, the Misses Johnson, billets-doux*.

OBSERVATION. — We find such expressions as *men-singers, women-singers, men-children*. Such use, however, is antiquated.

In such expressions as "the Generals Smith," "the Misses Johnson," the meaning is: the Generals of the name of Smith; the Misses of the name of Johnson. Emphasizing the title is more complimentary and respectful; hence the preference to such forms as "the General Smiths," "the Miss Thompsons."

§ 105. EXCEPTIONS. (See Appendix No. III.) 1. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, insert *e* before the plural *s*; as *hero-es, echo-es, cargo-es*. But *canto, duodecimo, fresco, grotto, halo, junto, lasso, memento, octavo, portico, quarto, sirocco, solo, two, tyro, zero*, omit the *e*; as, *cantos, zeros*.

2. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change the *y* into *i*, and add *es*; as, *sky, skies; duty, duties; colloquy, colloquies*. If preceded by a vowel, they are regular; as, *keys, valleys, moneys*.

The following nouns change *f* or *ff* into *v* before *es*: *beef, calf, elf, half, leaf, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, thief, wharf, wolf, knife, life, wife*.

But compounds not accented on the final syllable, simply add *s*, as *flag-staff-s*, *distaff-s*; so *house-wife-s* is pronounced *hussifs*.

Formerly *distaves*, as, —

“The women find him not worthy of their distaves.”

Beaumont and Fletcher.

4. The following nouns are irregular: *man, men*; *woman women*; *foot, feet*; *tooth, teeth*; *goose, geese*; *mouse, mice*; *louse, lice*; *ox, oxen*; *cow, kine*; *sow, swine*; *child, children*; *brother, brethren*.

5. The following have two plurals in different significations: *die, dice* and *dies*; *pea, peas* and *pease*; *penny, pence* and *pennies*; *brother, brethren* and *brothers*; *genius, genii* and *geniuses*; *medium, media* and *mediums*; *index, indices* and *indexes*; *vertex, vertices* and *vertexes*; *vortex, vortices* and *vortexes*; *stamen, stamens* and *stamina*; *phalanx, phalanges* and *phalanxes*.

6. Many nouns from foreign languages have the same plurals as in those languages; as, from the Hebrew, *cherub cherubim*; *seraph, seraphim*.

FROM THE GREEK.

Antithesis, antitheses.	Exanthema, exanthemata.
Aphelion, aphelia.	Helix, helices.
Aplis, aphides.	Hypothesis, hypotheses.
Apsis, apsides.	Metamorphosis, metamorphoses.
Cantharis, cantharides.	Parenthesis, parentheses.
Caryatid, caryatides.	Phasis, phases.
Chrysalis, chrysalides.	Phenomenon, phenomena.
Criterion, criteria. <i>r.*</i>	Stoma, stomata.
Diæresis, diæreses.	Synthesis, syntheses.
Ephemeris, ephemerides.	Thesis, theses.

FROM THE LATIN.

Abscissa, abscissæ. <i>r.</i>	Alumnus, alumni.
Addendum, addenda.	Analysis, analyses.
Alga, Algæ.	Animalculum, animalcula.
Alumna, alumnae.	Anta, antæ.

* Those words having *r.* annexed to them, have also regular plurals.

Antenna, antennæ.	Ignis fatuus, ignes fatui.
Apex, apices	Incubus, incubi. <i>r.</i>
Appendix, appendices. <i>r.</i>	Index, indices. <i>r.</i>
Aquarium, aquaria.	Lamina, laminæ.
Ascaris, ascarides.	Larva, larvæ.
Automaton, automata.	Legumen, legumina.
Axilla, axillæ.	Lustrum, lustra.
Axis, axes.	Macula, maculæ.
Basis, bases.	Magus, magi.
Calculus, calculi.	Mausoleum, mausolea. <i>r.</i>
Calx, calces. <i>r.</i>	Maximum, maxima.
Calyx, calyces. <i>r.</i>	Medium, media. <i>r.</i>
Candelabrum, candelabra.	Memorandum, memoranda. <i>r.</i>
Centumvir, centumviri.	Miasma, miasmata.
Cicada, cicadæ.	Minimum, minima.
Cirrus, cirri.	Modulus, moduli.
Clavis, claves. <i>r.</i>	Momentum, momenta.
Cloaca, cloacæ.	Naiad, naiades. <i>r.</i>
Collyrium, collyria.	Nebula, nebulae.
Corypheus, coryphei. <i>r.</i>	Nucleus, nuclei.
Crisis, crises.	Oasis, oases.
Criterion, criteria.	Obolus, oboli.
Cumulus, cumuli.	Ovarium, ovaria.
Curriculum, curricula.	Ovum, ova.
Datum, data.	Palladium, palladia. <i>r.</i>
Decemvir, decemviri.	Pallium, pallia.
Denarius, denarii.	Panacea, panacæ. <i>r.</i>
Desideratum, desiderata.	Papilla, papillæ.
Dictum, dicta.	Parhelion, parhelia.
Discus, disci. <i>r.</i>	Polypus, polypi. <i>r.</i>
Duumvir, duumviri.	Pupa, pupæ.
Effluvium, effluvia.	Radius, radii. <i>r.</i>
Emeritus, emeriti.	Radix, radices.
Emporium, emporia.	Rhombus, rhombi. <i>r.</i>
Erratum, errata.	Rostrum, rostra.
Focus, foci.	Sarcophagus, sarcophagi
Foramen, foramina.	Scholium, scholia. <i>r.</i>
Formula, formulæ. <i>r.</i>	Schirrhus, schirri. <i>r.</i>
Fulcrum, fulcra. <i>r.</i>	Sensorium, sensoria. <i>r.</i>
Fungus, fungi. <i>r.</i>	Sepia, sepiae.
Genius, genii. <i>r.</i>	Septum, septa.
Genus, genera.	Spectrum, spectra.
Gymnasium, gymnasia.	Speculum, specula.
Herbarium, herbaria. <i>r.</i>	Stadium, stadia.
Hippopotamus, hippopotami. <i>r.</i>	Stamen, stamina. <i>r.</i>
Hydra, hydræ. <i>r.</i>	Stigma, stigmata. <i>r.</i>
Iambus, iambi. <i>r.</i>	Stimulus, stimuli

Stirps, stirpes.	Tumulus, tumull.
Stratum, strata. <i>r.</i>	Tympanum, tympana.
Succedaneum, succedanea. <i>r.</i>	Vertebra, vertebræ.
Syllabus, syllabi. <i>r.</i>	Vertex, vertices. <i>r.</i>
Terminus, termini	Vortex, vortices. <i>r.</i>

FROM THE FRENCH.

Aid-de-camp, aides-de-camp.	Monsieur, messieurs.
Beau, beaux.	Morceau, morceaux.
Billet-doux, billets-doux.	Plateau, plateaux.
Flambeau, flambeaux.	Rouleau, rouleaux.
Gen-d'arme, gens-d'armes. <i>r.</i>	Savant, savans.
Jet d'eau, jets d'eau.	Tableau, tableaux.
Madame, mesdames. <i>r.</i>	

FROM THE ITALIAN.

Banditto, banditti.	Libretto, libretti.
Cicerone, ciceroni.	Scudo, scudi.
Cicisbeo, cicisbei.	Soprano, soprane.
Conversazione, conversazioni.	Soprano, soprani.
Improvvisatore, improvisatori.	Virtuoso, virtuosi.

OBSERVATION 1. — *Alms* and *riches* were originally singular nouns spelled *almesse* and *richesse*. When taken in a singular sense, they may properly be regarded as in the singular number; as, " *Asked an alms.*" — Acts iii. 3; "What is the riches [= richness] of the glory." — Col. i. 27 But they may both be used in a plural sense; as, "Thine alms [= alms deeds] are come up." — Acts x. 4; "Your riches [= possessions] are corrupted." — Jas. v. 2.

Words from the Greek ending in *ics*, for the most part denoting sciences, as *mathematics*, *optics*, *ethics*, seem to have a plural form, but may be used either in a singular or a plural sense, according as they denote the science or the objects of which the science treats; as, "Physics, that is, Physical Science, treats of matter;" "Physics, that is, Physical things, are learned through a different medium from that through which we study metaphysics."

Amends, *news*, *pains*, likewise have a plural form, but have either a singular or plural sense; more commonly the former.

Bellows and *gallows*, like *billiards*, *hysterics*, *measles*, *odds*, *tongs*, (= tongues), *scissors*, *shears*, and *wages*, are real plurals, but being applied severally to a single object, may be used as if of the singular number; but the plural is preferable.

OBSERVATION 2. — Some nouns do not vary their form to express the plural; as, *cannon*, *cattle*, *deer*, *head*, *sail*, *salmon*, *sheep*, *shot*, *trout*. Others are used in the plural in both singular and plural forms; as, *fish*, in the plural *fish* and *fishes*. Some have no singular, at least, in a part of their significations; as, —

Aborigines,	Fauces,	Paraphernalia,
Annals,	Filings,	Pinchers,
Antipodes,	Gaskins,	Principia,
Archives,	Goggles,	Proceeds,
Assets,	Goods,	Ravelings,
Belles-lettres,	Greens,	Regalia,
Bellows,	Hatches,	Scissors,
Billiards,	Head-quarters,	Shambles,
Bitters,	Hose,	Shears,
Bowels,	Hysterics,	Sheers,
Breeches,	Ides,	Snuffers,
Calends,	Infusoria,	Spectacles,
Cattle,	Jackboots,	Statistics,
Clothes,	Lees,	Suds,
Colors,	Letters,	Sweepstakes,
Compasses,	Literati,	Teens,
Consols,	Mammalia,	Thanks,
Corrigenda,	Manes,	Thews,
Cortes,	Manners,	Tidings,
Crampons,	Matins,	Tongs,
Crustacea,	Minutiae,	Trousers,
Customs,	Morals,	Tweezers,
Debris,	Nippers,	Vernicelli,
Drawers, a garment,	Nones,	Vespers,
Dregs,	Nugæ,	Victuals,
Eaves,	Nuptials,	Vitals,
Embers,	Obsequies,	Wages,
Entrails,	Orgies,	Witherr
Environs,	Pampas,	

§ 106. ORAL EXERCISES. *Mention the nouns in the singular number, and also those in the plural number, in the following sentences, and give the reason for so regarding them:—*

John is absent. The man was insane. The mountains were high. The ores were rich. The oats were ripe. The grass was green. The molasses was made from the sap. The scissors are sharp. The errata were numerous. These are the stamina of a good character. What do you think of his hypotheses? He places the scholia separately. He made careful memoranda of his observations. What formulæ do you apply? What does he say of the nebulae? He

describes the oases of the desert. To what phenomena does he allude? Where shall we look for true criteria? I have spoken of the larvæ. The eccentricity of an ellipse is the distance of the foci from the center. We have an example in the radii of a circle. He penetrated into the arcana of the science. He was negligent of his manners. The wicked shall drink the dregs thereof. He plays billiards excessively. The market was filled with goods. He had had no victuals for thirty-six hours. He returned at vespers. He was wounded in the lungs. Whatever is sold in the shambles, that eat. Let him grind the shears. He killed the sheep. He caught a fine parcel of fish. No parallel can be found in the annals of the world. He had none of the coin of the country. It was buried in the ashes. The conclusion was drawn from questionable data. The cattle can be sold. Courts-martial were held. The fathers-in-law were reconciled. The antennæ were long. He studied hydraulics. He examined the larvæ. As to his hypotheses, all his hearers disagreed with him. He scrutinized the phenomena.

Correct the errors in the following sentences —

Their heros were celebrated in song. The delaies were fatal. The shelves were high. The elfs were sporting. Among the cherubims. The stratats were thin. The kines were all over three years old. Economics were pursued with other sciences. The wharfs were overflowed. The cantoes contained over five hundred verses each. The media was unexceptionable. The data was false. All the punctilioes of ceremony were observed. The monies of the country were changed. The chimnies were tall. The folioes were all bound. There were eight porticoes, arranged in twoes. The childs were neglected. The foots were sore. The seraphims had harps in their hands. The vertexes of the two figures were equi-distant from the base. The price was two shillings and six pennies. He was an alumni

of the institution. He lived on potatos. I heard distant echos. Twelve bodys of the victims were found afterward. The Misses Potters were present. The brother Smiths had enlisted. The Generals Jacksons took command of the respective divisions. The neighbor Washingtons were reconciled. The cousin Allstons went together. The proves were decisive. The dwarves were absent. He never crossed his ts nor dotted his is. The octavoos were as large as ordinary quartoos. No mementoos were preserved in any of the folioes. All the regimental flag-staves were broken. Four spirital media, so called, were there. He addressed the brothers of the association. The brethren Townsends were omitted. There were five loafis. Politics are properly ranked among the sciences. The dice for casting the coin were badly cut. The poem contained twelve cantoes. The beaus of the company were elated. The flower had six stamina. The arcanums of the temples were exposed. The strives of the chiefs were ruinous. The crop of potatos was abundant.

§ 107. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences having in them the following words, changed to their plural forms: —*

Folio, valley, surf, genus, madam, turf, portico, two, entry, seraph, alumnus, genius, chimney, fresco, m, 50, soliloquy, tornado, postman, son-in-law, the bookseller Smith, the Miss Wharton, memorandum, man-slayer, step-son.

CHAPTER III.

NOUNS — GENDER.

§ 108. OBJECTS of thought may further be distinguished as having or as not having sex.

Words denoting objects of the male sex are said to be of the *Masculine Gender*; those denoting females are said to be of the *Feminine Gender*; those denoting subjects that have sex without indication of which sex, are said to be of the *Common Gender*.

Words denoting objects that have not sex, are said to be of the *Neuter Gender*. We have thus the following definitions and divisions.

§ 109. GENDER is the distinction of nouns in reference to the sex of their objects.

§ 110. Nouns, in respect of their Gender, are of four classes: (1.) Masculine; (2.) Feminine; (3.) Common; (4.) Neuter.

A noun denoting an object as male, is of the **MASCULINE GENDER**; as, *John, boy, drake*.

A noun denoting an object as female, is of the **FEMININE GENDER**; as, *Mary, girl, duck*.

A noun denoting an object as having sex, without indicating of which sex, is of the **COMMON GENDER**; as, *child, parent, sheep*.

A noun denoting an object without sex is of the **NEUTER GENDER**; as, *tree, book, stone*.

§ 111. Nouns may distinguish sex by their form in the following ways:—

1. By change of termination; as, *heir, heiress; abbot, abbess; hero, heroine; testator, testatrix*.

2. By prefixing or affixing a sex-word; as, *man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; land-lord, land-lady*.

3. By words of different origin; as, *boy, girl; uncle, aunt*.

§ 112. The more common mode of forming the feminine from the masculine, is by adding *ess*; as *host, hostess; priest, priestess*.

Nouns ending in *or* or *er*, often drop the *o* or *e*; as, *actor, actress; tiger, tigress*.

A few words from the Latin ending in *tor*, change *tor* into *trix*; as, *administrator, administratrix*.

The following are more or less irregular:—

Abbott, abbess.	Earl, countess.
Bachelor, maid, spinster.	Father, mother.
Beau, belle.	Fox, vixen.
Boar, sow.	Friar and monk, nun.
Boy, girl.	Gaffer, gammer.
Bridegroom, bride.	Gander, goose.
Brother, sister.	Gentleman and lord, lady.
Buck, doe.	Hart, roe.
Bull, cow.	Hero, heroine.
Chamberlain, chambermaid.	Horse, mare.
Cock, hen.	Husband, wife.
Czar, czarina.	King, queen.
Dog, bitch.	Lad, lass.
Don, donna.	Landgrave, landgravine.
Drake, duck.	Male, female.
Duke, duchess.	Man, woman.

Margrave, margravine.	Son, daughter.
Master, mistress.	Stag, hind.
Negro, negress.	Steer, heifer.
Nephew, niece.	Sultan, sultana.
Ogre, ogress.	Swain, nymph.
Ram, ewe.	Uncle, aunt.
Signore, signora.	Votary, votaress.
Sir, madam.	Widower, widow.
Sire, dam.	Wizard, witch.
Sloven, slut.	

§ 113. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the genders of the nouns in the following sentences :—*

The aunt was absent. The duke and the duchess were elated. The wizard deluded his victims. He exiled the monks. His niece was an heiress. The tigress was enraged. The sportsmen brought back a roe, a buck, a wild goose, a hind, and a pea-hen. There were in the company a queen, a duke, a viscount, an earl, a marquis, and an empress. The witch escaped. He punished the sloven. The bridegroom was sent for. The donna was at home. The testatrix had omitted the seal. He had nothing save one ewe-lamb.

Correct the errors in the following sentences :—

Among the ladies of the household were a duchess, a chamberlain, a marquis, a viscountess, an earl, a baron, four peers of the realm, a princess, the dauphin, the young czar, a landgrave, and a margravine. He divided the males from the females, placing in one field the oxen, the ewes, the bucks, the heifers, the geese; and in another, the females, the pea-hens, the he-goats, the fillies, the drakes, the young does.

WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Write out the feminines of the following words :—*

Arbiter, czar, don, gaffer, director, duke, prince, earl, dauphin, executor, hero, landgrave, marquis, sultan, peer, viscount, negro, friar, testator, tiger, votary, beau, drake, master, sir, gentleman.

Write out the masculines of the following words :—

Lady, niece, witch, vixen, roe, abbess, infanta, bride, lass, dam, hind, landlady.

CHAPTER IV.

NOUNS — CASE.

§ 114. OBJECTS are distinguished not only in respect to their own nature and their relations to other objects, but also in respect to their relations in discourse. There are two classes of these relations; one, the relations of the object to the other parts of the sentence; the other, the relations to the person speaking. The first class of relations furnishes the distinctions of *Case*; the second, the distinctions of *Person*.

§ 115. *Case*, in grammar, is the distinction of nouns in respect of their relations to the other parts of the sentence.

§ 116. In the English language there are but three different ways of expressing case; one called the *Nominative Case*, expressing the relation of subject; as, *John studies his lessons*; one called the *Possessive Case*, expressing a limitation of some object spoken of; as, *John's book*; one called the *Objective Case*, expressing an object of an action or relation; as, *John brought the book to me*.

OBSERVATION. — If we were to determine the number of cases in respect to the thought itself, there would evidently be as many as there are different relations or classes of relations to be distinguished in the sentence; and there would be, accordingly, the same cases in all languages. If we determine them, however, in respect to the forms in actual use, the system of cases would vary in different languages. In point of fact, the Sanskrit language has, including the vocative, eight cases; the Greek, five; the

Latin, six; these languages having, respectively, in use so many different forms for expressing the relations of case. The Anglo-Saxon language had, besides the nominative or subject-form, the three modifications called the Genitive, the Dative, and the Accusative or Objective. Of these, the modern English retains only the Genitive, now more commonly called the Possessive, except in the pronouns. In the larger part of nouns, the Anglo-Saxon Genitive ended in *s*, preceded by the connecting vowel *e*, sometimes by *a*, and also by *i* or *y*. The apostrophe, which was introduced to mark the omission of the connecting vowel, was not in use to mark the possessive until the later stages of English literature; not, indeed, till after Shakespeare's time.

The Genitive Case properly denotes that of the two terms of a relation from which the relation is thought to proceed, and is called from this, the Whence Case. The Objective Case denotes the other term of the relation or that to which it is thought to proceed, and is hence called the Whither Case.

§ 117. The Genitive or Possessive Case is formed by adding *s* with an apostrophe to the simple form of the noun; as, *Peter's book*.

Plural nouns ending in *s* take the apostrophe only; as, the *girls' class-room*.

EXCEPTION. — For the sake of euphony, the *'s* is sometimes omitted after singular nouns ending in the sound of *s*, especially if they are not monosyllables, or if the next word begins with that sound; as, *For justice' sake*; *Peleus' son*.

OBSERVATION 1. — The apostrophe properly denotes the dropping of a letter. As sign of the Possessive Case, it indicates that the connecting vowel is dropped. It was once used also in the case of plurals; as, "those *inamorata's* of abstracted beauty;" "about *chimæra's*." — *Berkeley's Alciphron*, printed in 1732. This use is still continued in the case of signs or characters; as, "These *5's* are counterfeit." § 104, Rule III.

OBSERVATION 2. — We find in earlier writers not unfrequently such expressions as "Sir Satyrane his steed," for Sir Satyrane's steed. Ben Jonson, who died in 1637, left among his papers an able treatise on English Grammar, in which he calls this "monstrous syntax." It arose, doubtless, from the desire to emphasize the object, just as the nominative was often repeated in the form of the pronoun, as in Cowper's "John Gilpin": —

"So 'fair and softly,' John *he* said;
But John *he* cried in vain."

But by a mistake in regard to the origin of the form of expression, in supposing that the *his* in such cases was another way of writing the genitive, formerly ending in *'s* in words ending in *s*, *sh*, *g*, and *ch*, as *prince's house*,

the usage became very general of writing "John his book;" a "monstrous syntax" indeed, although sanctioned even by Addison.

§ 118. ORAL EXERCISES. *Name the cases of the nouns in the following sentences: —*

Many men mistake the love for the practice of virtue. Action and contemplation are in no way inconsistent. The good man's treasure is in himself. Order is Heaven's first law. Mens' opinions vary with their interests. And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears. How wretched is that poor man that hangs on princes' favors. Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's, thy God's, and truth's. She suffers from her tyrant brother's blaze.

Correct the errors in the following sentences: —

Mans highest knowledge is himself to know and Him that formed him what he is. Despairs long sigh and Griefs convulsive sob. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are Natures gift's for mans' advantage. The picture of her son's does not much resemble him. Socrates's teachings were in advance of his age. I have not read Horace' epistles. Neither John nor his brother's scholarship was very high. The peace of Westphalia closed the Thirty Years War. King James' translators revised former translations. The measure gained the king as well as the peoples approbation. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. For goodness's sake, do not go. I expect to visit his brother's John's monument.

§ 119. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences containing the following nouns in the Possessive Case: —*

Forest; ocean; judge; chance; vice; coach; peeress; Watts; girls; city; lynx; oxen; artist; my brother Augustus; Bolton the carriage-maker; Robert Burns; Catharine Philips; Sir William Jones; Demosthenes, the Athenian statesman.

CHAPTER V.

PERSON. — PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 120. OBJECTS of thought, further, are distinguished into classes in discourse in respect of their relations to the speaker. As an object, the speaker is distinguished from the person spoken to, and also from the object spoken of. We have thus what are called in grammar the distinctions of *Person*.

These distinctions are conveniently represented in language by a particular class of words called *Personal Pronouns*, having no other meaning in themselves originally but to distinguish objects in their relations as *speaking*, *spoken to*, and *spoken of*, and applicable alike to all objects thought of under these several relations. They serve, indeed, incidentally and derivatively, to prevent the repetition of the noun; but this is not their proper office or object in language.

PERSON in grammar is the distinction of objects in their relations as speaking, spoken to, and spoken of; as, *I am your friend*.

A PERSONAL PRONOUN is a word used to express grammatical person; in other words, to distinguish the speaker, the person spoken to, and the object spoken of.

§ 121. There are Three Persons, which are called respectively, *The First*, *The Second*, and *The Third Persons*.

The **FIRST PERSON** marks the person speaking ;
 The **SECOND PERSON** marks the person spoken to ;
 The **THIRD PERSON** marks the person spoken of.

§ 122. Pronouns, like nouns, admit of the distinction of number, and have peculiar forms for the singular and the plural respectively. Corresponding to the Singular of the First person, *I*, we have the plural form *we* ; to *thou*, *ye* or *you* ; to *he*, *they*.

OBSERVATION.— In the English language, the plural form of the second person, *you*, is generally used also for the singular, and the proper singular form, *thou*, is used only in solemn address, as in prayer to God.

Formerly, as is the case now in some other languages, the second person singular pronoun, in English, *thou*, was used in familiar address, as to intimate friends, as well as in religious worship. Hence as treating persons with undue familiarity is one mode of expressing contempt, it was used for that purpose. Thus Coke, to insult Sir Walter Raleigh at his trial, cried, "All that Lord Cobham did was at *thy* instigation ; *thou* viper ! for I *thou thee*, *thou* traitor !"

It is customary for a sovereign to use the first person plural form instead of the singular, when he means only himself. Thus, the King of France, in his treaty with the United States in 1778, uses this language :— "For such is *our* pleasure. In testimony whereof, *we* have hereunto set *our* seal. So reviewers and editors use the plural of the first person. They write a if personating their readers and as their organ, just as a king personates the nation. In public worship, the use of the plural in prayer is proper, as the speaker is but the mouthpiece of the assembly ; in the discourse or address to the assembly, it is improper, although not uncommon.

§ 123. Pronouns of the third person are, likewise, distinguished in respect of gender.

The masculine form is *he*.

The feminine form is *she*.

The form for objects without sex is *it*.

The plural form is the same, *they*, for each of the three singulars of the third person.

§ 124. Pronouns are, moreover, like nouns, distinguished in respect to *case*, which expresses the rela-

tions of an object to the parts of the sentence (§§ 114, 115), as in the following Paradigm of Inflections :—

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative.</i>	I,	We,
<i>Possessive.</i>	My, Mine,	Our, Ours,
<i>Objective.</i>	Me.	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative.</i>	Thou,	Ye, You,
<i>Possessive.</i>	Thy, Thine,	Your, Yours.
<i>Objective.</i>	Thee.	You.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
	MASC. FEM.	NEUT.
<i>Nominative.</i>	He, She,	It, They,
<i>Possessive.</i>	His, Her, Hers,	Its, Their, Theirs,
<i>Objective.</i>	Him, Her.	It. Them.

OBSERVATION.— There are two forms, it will be observed, for the possessive case, except in the masculine and neuter singular of the third person. The shorter form is used before the noun which the pronoun limits ; the longer when it is separated from the limited noun ; as, "It is *my* book ;" "The book is *mine* ;" "The seats are *theirs*, not *yours*."

The forms *mine* and *thine* were the only forms used in the earlier stages of the language. They now appear in our earlier literature, as in the Scriptures. They are, hence, sometimes used in solemn discourse, instead of the shorter forms.

The plural of the second person has, also, two forms in the nominative case, — *ye* and *you*. The earlier form was *ye*. It is hence used in more elevated discourse. The tendency to do away with inflections in the language involved in it for a while the confusion of *ye* and *you*, which originally were distinct, the one a subject-form, the other an object-form. We may account in this way for the use of *ye* in the objective, by Milton, as, "Will destroy *ye* both," as well as by other writers. The usage now is to regard "*ye*" as always in the nominative, if used at all. "*You*" is used in both cases as well as in both numbers. Poetry and dramatic literature are allowed the use of the old forms ; as :—

"Scenes of fond day-dreams, I behold ye yet."

"So you must ride

On horseback after we." — *Cowper's* "John Gilpin."

It has been a question whether the forms, *my, mine, thy, thine, etc.*, should be regarded as possessive adjectives or as personal pronouns in the possessive case. This question would seem to be settled by the consideration that these forms denote not qualities, but relations in the object; that is, designate a case. "*His* speech" corresponds to the expression "*partisan's* speech," not to "*partisan* speech."

§ 125. The Personal Pronouns are compounded with *self* and *selves*, as follows: —

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative and Objective.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.
<i>Objective.</i>	Myself.	Ourselves.

SECOND PERSON.

<i>Nominative and Objective.</i>	Thyself.	Yourselves.
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THIRD PERSON.

<i>Nominative and Objective.</i>	Himself,	} Themselves.
	Herself,	
	Itself.	

EXAMPLES. — I went myself. The work explains itself. He himself did the deed.

OBSERVATION. — When the proper plural form of the Personal Pronoun is used for the singular, *self* is used; as, "You, John, *yourself* are in fault;" "Done by *ourself*, the King;" "While editor of this journal, we announce *ourselves* as individually responsible for every article that appears."

Both of the forms *one's self* and *oneself* are in use. The former is the older and more proper form; the latter is a contracted form and more current in familiar discourse. *Itself* was formerly written *it self*, in two words.

§ 126. ORAL EXERCISES. Name the Personal Pronouns in the following sentences, mentioning at the same time the respective person, gender, number, and case: —

I have searched. I have found it. Having resigned his office, he retired. They searched every room: he was gone.

We could not aid them; but they were in a condition to help us. The book is ours; the satchel is theirs. As you wish it, I will go. "Cast thy eyes eastward," said he, "and tell me what thou seest." Those lips are thine; thy own sweet smile I see. 'Twas for your pleasure you came here, you shall go back for mine. Yourself shall be accommodated as well as your brother. I shall be there myself.

Correct the errors in the following sentences: —

As for meself, I am indifferent which course be taken. They came on behind John and I. Samuel and me went to town, yesterday. He praises hisself. The book is yourn, not his, nor theirs. By authority of ourselves the king. We used the privilege of an editor and took a free passage for ourselves and our good wife. Their's is a sad case. The effects of the act do not end with it self. They prostrated their selves before the king. The difficulty will cure its self. This lot is ourn; that is hisn. Our's is a great land; a great nation must here raise up its self. It is not her's but yourn. Our wife has tied our cravat too tight. We have spoken thus far in this discourse of the external circumstances of this transaction; I now proceed to consider its real nature and character.

§ 127. WRITTEN EXERCISE. Construct five sentences containing, each, one of the following inflections of the Personal Pronouns: —

- First person in each case and number;
- Second person in each case and number;
- Third person in each case, number, and gender;
- Compound form with *self* in each person and number.

§ 128. An object of thought once introduced is often conveniently presented a second time in a new relation by the use of a class of words called *Relative Pronouns*, or, more briefly, *Relatives*.

A RELATIVE PRONOUN is a word used to denote an object already named in the sentence ; as, "The man *who* is ever speaking of himself we naturally dislike ;" "He *that* is already corrupt is naturally suspicious."

The ANTECEDENT of a Relative Pronoun is the object to which the pronoun refers. *Man* and *he* are the antecedents in the examples given.

§ 129. The Relative Pronouns are *who* in the nominative, *whose* in the possessive, and *whom* in the objective case, denoting persons ;

Which, denoting things, although formerly applied to persons ;

That and *as*, denoting both persons and things ;

What, a compound relative, including both antecedent and relative, equivalent to *the thing that* ; as, "I know not *what* he says."

§ 130. *Who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, and *what* are compounded with *ever* and *soever* ; as, *whoever*, *whosoever*. These compounds generally include both antecedent and relative ; as, "Whoever transgresses the law must suffer the penalty ;" equivalent to "*He that* transgresses," etc.

Who is also compounded with *so* ; as, *whoso*.

Whose formerly was applied to things as well as to persons ; as, —

"I could a tale unfold, *whose* lightest word," etc. — *Shakespeare*.

It is not now used thus so freely.

As was originally a conjunction of comparison, but has come, by an elliptical form of expression, to stand in the place of a relative. It is so used, however, only after *same*, *such*, *so*, and *as*.

That generally may be used as a relative wherever *who* or *which* may be, except after a preposition. It is generally to be preferred in the following cases : —

1. To distinguish definitive adjective clauses from epithet

clauses, especially after demonstratives and distributives ; as, "Earthly pleasures, *which* are short and uncertain, cannot be the highest for man ;" "These pleasures *that* are from earth," etc. ; "It is of all the troubles *that* have been reported, the most embarrassing."

2. When the antecedent embraces both persons and things, or is of doubtful application ; as, "The cities and their inhabitants *that* escaped from this desolation," etc.

3. In elliptical expressions, and especially when the preposition is omitted ; as, "The last time *that* I saw him ;" "He was the last *that* came ;" equivalent to "He was the last of those that came."

4. When *who* or *which* has been already used in the same sentence, in order to prevent ambiguity ; as, "In the city *which* had gates *that* had been celebrated for their number, size, and costliness."

5. After *same*.

§ 131. When the object is not known, but sought after, it is presented in interrogative sentences by a class of words called *Interrogative Pronouns*.

AN INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN is a word used to denote an unknown object in an interrogative sentence ; as, "*Who* will go for us ?" "*Whose* book has he brought ?" "*Whom* will he take with him ?" "*What* will he do ?" "*Which* is Jupiter ?"

The Interrogative Pronouns are *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *what*. They are distinguished from the relative pronouns only by their use in asking a question.

What and *which* are used as adjective interrogatives : as, "*What* book and *which* pen will he take ?"

§ 132. ORAL EXERCISES. *Point out the Relative Pronouns and their antecedents, and also the Interrogative Pronouns in the following sentences : —*

If you have a friend that will reprove your faults and foibles, consider that you enjoy a blessing which the king upon the throne cannot have.

To labor and be content with what a man hath, is a sweet life.

He who begins soon to be good will be likely to be very good at last.

He whose ruling passion is love of praise, is a slave to every one who has a tongue for detraction.

No man hath a thorough taste of prosperity to whom adversity never happened.

He that forecasts what may happen shall never be surprised.

What good morals are to society in general, good manners are to particular ones.

You have obliged a person; very well, what would you have more?

Whatever can please, whatever can charm, solicits his attention.

Who will say there are no pleasures in knowledge?

And, after all, what is there in life that may be justly reckoned of sufficient importance to move a person to a violent passion?

And which is the nobler benefactor, patriot, and philanthropist?

Whose work is this?

Whoso mocketh the poor reproacheth his Maker.

This undertaking, so noble in its beginning, so illustrious in its progress, so promising in its future results, must be sustained, whosoever or whatsoever may stand in the way of it.

What man has done, man can do.

Such of the combs as were entire were placed in camp-kettles to be conveyed to the encampment.

As many as were of that persuasion united in resisting the government.

Correct the faults in the following sentences: —

They which seek wisdom will certainly find her. This is the country whose boundaries you were to trace out. Sidney was one of the wisest and most active governors which Ireland had enjoyed for several years. He is like a beast of prey who destroys without pity. Flattery, whose nature is to deceive and betray, should be avoided as the poisonous adder. He was the ablest minister which James ever possessed. The child, whom we visited, has recovered. Humility is one of the most amiable virtues which we can possess. They are the same persons who went out in the ship. The people and the cattle which were on board were saved. Moses was the meekest man whom we read of in the Old Testament. Of all what he said he could not prove a particle. This is one of the duties which require circumspection. His speech contains one of the grossest calumnies which was ever uttered. How happy are the virtuous, that can rest on the protection of the powerful arm, who made the earth and the heavens? The man is prudent which speaks little. Not a creature is there that moves, nor a vegetable that grows, but what, when minutely examined, furnishes evidence. This is the same article which I saw yesterday.

§ 133. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct five sentences containing Relative Pronouns relating to persons; five relating to things; five containing Interrogative Pronouns.*

PART II.—PRINCIPAL ELEMENTS OF
THE SENTENCE.

CHAPTER I

ELEMENTS AND DIVISIONS.

§ 134. WHEN we assert any thing of an object of thought, we are said to *judge*,—to *form a judgment of it*. Such a judgment expressed in words is termed a *Sentence*, and also a *Proposition*; as, *The grass is green*; *The sun shines*.

§ 135. In every judgment, and consequently in every sentence or proposition, there are necessarily three elements, namely:—

1. An object concerning which we make the assertion, called the *Subject*;
2. That which is asserted of the object, called the *Predicate*;
3. The assertion itself, called the *Copula*.

The Subject and the Predicate are called the *Terms* of the Judgment. Thus, in the sentence, "Man is mortal," *man* and *mortal* are the Terms; and in the sentence, "The grass is green in the valleys," *the grass* and *green in the valleys* are the Terms.

OBSERVATION 1. The necessity of the concurrence of these three elements in every judgment is self-evident. The *form*, however, in which the judgment is expressed, may

sometimes seem to indicate the absence of one or more of them. All must nevertheless be implied when not fully expressed. The proposition "It rains," Latin "*pluit*," contains in disguise all of the three elements, and is imperfect only in form. They are all contained in the one word *pluit* or *rains*; for the word *it* means nothing and is a mere expletive (§ 339). There is contained an object of which something is asserted, *rain*; also, something asserted of it, *reality* or *existence*; and, moreover, the assertion itself. *Pluit*, *rains*, means something more than *rain*, more than *raining*. It is an asserting word, while also it contains the object of which something is asserted, and that which is asserted of it.

The copula or asserting element is the life of the judgment, and consequently of the proposition or sentence. If not expressed, it is necessarily implied in every proposition. Only as there is a copula, that is, only as there is an assertion, can an object of thought become subject or predicate. See Appendix No. IV.

OBSERVATION 2. When it is said that every sentence must contain an *assertion*, the word must be understood to be used in a wide signification, to include *negation*, *interrogation*, *command*, and the like. So when it is said that the copula expresses identity, it must be understood as applying not only to the positive form of the sentence, but also to the negative, and thus including non-identity or difference. To avoid cumbrous expressions we may sometimes use language in our exposition of the sentence, which might, if construed strictly, imply that there are no sentences but those which positively assert sameness or identity. In such cases, the expressions must be taken in a wider sense, as inclusive of all sentences, negative and interrogative as well as positive.

OBSERVATION 3. Essentially, the copula is merely the expression of the identity or non-identity of the subject and the predicate. See Appendix No. IV. As this identity may be either total or partial, we have two classes of propositions.

§ 136. Propositions are (1.) *Totally Identical*; or, (2.) *Partially Identical*.

TOTALLY IDENTICAL PROPOSITIONS assert a sameness in all respects between the Subject and the Predicate.

PARTIALLY IDENTICAL PROPOSITIONS assert a sameness only in some respect or respects between the Subject and the Predicate.

§ 137. The sameness asserted in every proposition may respect (1.) The Thought merely; or (2.) The Expression merely; or (3.) Both the Thought and the Expression; as, (1.) "The stranger was Washington;" (2.) "A mouse is a mouse; but mouse is a syllable, and mouse eats cheese; therefore, a syllable eats cheese;" (3.) "John is John."

In the first example, the thought expressed by *stranger*, and that expressed by *Washington*, are the same; the form, the words, differ. In the second, the word is the same, *mouse*; but the thing meant, the thought, is different. In the sentence "mouse is a syllable," a grammatical word is meant; while in the sentence "mouse eats cheese," an animal is meant.

In the third example, the thought and the form of expression are the same in the subject and the predicate. Such a sentence there is seldom occasion for using. It is used, however, sometimes for exemplification, or as a figure of speech, to express something different from what the word would properly express; or for emphasizing the essential attributes of the subject, as in the sentences "*Money is money* in these times;" "*A man 's a man for 's that*."

OBSERVATION. — In order to avoid the unnecessary multiplication of distinctions and names, as no especial inconvenience is likely to result, we will call the Totally Identical Propositions simply Identical Propositions; and call the other class, which make up the great body of propositions, by the general name — Propositions or Sentences.

Further, closely approximating to Totally Identical Propositions, are those in which, of the two terms — the Subject and the Predicate — one expresses the whole, and the other term the parts which compose the whole; as, "Two and two are four;" "Man is rational animal." To this class belong all perfect definitions. It will be convenient, and will expose to little danger of error, to rank these also with Identical Propositions. The great body of discourse is made up of the other partially identical propositions. Thus, when I say "Man is rational," I mean that *man* in one respect is th

same as *rational*; that is, of the different attributes which make up my notion of *man*, one is *rational*, or what is nearly although not exactly equivalent, *man* is the same as one of the species that make up the class of beings called *rational*. Here is only partial sameness affirmed. Only in one respect — in respect to one attribute or to one species — is *man* asserted to be the same as *rational*.

So, when I say "Man strikes," I mean that in one respect, as an acting being, as an agent, *man* is one that strikes. I think of him, in other words, as an active nature which here goes out in the form of striking; that is, in one respect, *man* is the same as *striking*.

The statement in the following section, thus, is sufficiently exact for practical uses.

§ 138. IDENTICAL PROPOSITIONS express an entire sameness between the Subject and the Predicate, and are of the following classes: —

1. *Demonstrative Propositions*; as, "The ship was the Pacific;"

2. *Mathematical Equations or Formulas*; as, "Two and two are four;"

3. *Perfect Aggregations*; as, "Great Britain is composed of England, Scotland, and Wales;" "A Tree has root, trunk, branch, and foliage;" "The Government is constituted of the Executive, the Legislative, and the Judicial Departments;"

4. *Exact Definitions*; as, "A Triangle is a three-sided figure;" "A Brute is an irrational animal;" "Geography is a description of the earth;"

5. *Complete Classifications*; as, "Animals are vertebrate and invertebrate;" "Triangles are right-angled, acute-angled, or obtuse-angled;" "The kingdoms of Nature are the mineral, the vegetable, and the animal kingdoms."

§ 139. The general forms of the Sentence are, —

1. *Perfect*, where the three elements appear distinct; as, "Man is mortal;"

2. *Imperfect*, where two or more of them are combined in whole or in part in the same word; as, "The sun shines," where the copula and predicate are com-

bined in one word, *shines*; "It thunders," where all three elements are contained in the one word, *thunders*, it being a mere expletive, without any significance.

OBSERVATION.—It is of importance to distinguish actual judgments from such as are only represented as such. It is obvious that we may think of a judgment, as, for example, one expressed by another person, without affirming it ourselves when speaking. When I say, "That happiness consisted in virtuous pleasure was the doctrine of both Plato and Aristotle," the only actual judgment which I express respects what Plato and Aristotle taught. I do not affirm that "happiness consists in virtuous pleasure;" but only that Plato and Aristotle agreed in so teaching. "That happiness consisted in virtuous pleasure" is a merely represented judgment so far as the speaker in this sentence is concerned. It is, in fact, only an *object of thought*, not an actual judgment so far as it respects him.

In the same way, when I say, "That matter is infinitely divisible, has been questioned," I do not assert my own judgment that "matter is infinitely divisible." I merely present the proposition as an object of thought. My only affirmation in the sentence is contained in the words "has been questioned." I should express all I mean to say if I were to use the form, "The infinite divisibility of matter has been questioned." "That matter is infinitely divisible" is, indeed, only one kind of noun; it has the *form* of a logical proposition only. When we speak of a subject, copula, and a predicate in a proposition so used as a logical noun, we must understand they are only such in form, not really, so far as the speaker is concerned. He affirms nothing by it. It may be conceived as affirmed; but it is not really affirmed in the sentence, but something else.

Parts of sentences expressing such represented judgments have been sometimes called "subordinate propositions." But the name is inapposite and leads to confusion and error. We will call them *represented judgments*. As expressed in language they are called *clauses*.

§ 140. Judgments are *actual* or *represented*.

ACTUAL JUDGMENTS are such as are thought by the speaker. They are expressed in *sentences*.

REPRESENTED JUDGMENTS are such as are not so thought by the speaker, but only represented by him. They are expressed in *clauses*.

In the sentence, "It must be owned *that Henry felt the weight of this great man's opinion*," the words in italics contain a represented judgment. It is the subject of which *must be owned* contains the predicate and copula; and the actual judgment is made up of this subject, and the copula and predicate expressed in the words *must be owned*. It is a mere grammatical expletive having no meaning in itself; and *that* is a mere sign of a clause.

A SENTENCE is the verbal expression of an actual judgment.

A CLAUSE is the verbal expression of a represented judgment.

§ 141. Represented Judgments are of four classes:—

1. *Objects of thought* represented in *noun-clauses*; as, "We have every reason to conclude that *moral action extends over the whole empire of God*."

2. *Modifiers* of objects expressed in *adjective clauses*; as, "The heart which can peruse the fate of Chatterton without being moved, is little to be envied for its tranquillity."

3. *Predicate modifiers* expressed in *adverbial clauses*; as,

"No, I never, *till life and its shadows shall end,*
Can forget the sweet sound of the bells of Ostend."

4. *Copula modifiers* expressed in *modal clauses*; as, "They would have deserved the greatest praise, *if they had effected this*."

§ 142. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the Actual and the Represented Judgments, in the following sentences, and the clauses as Noun-clauses, Adjective Clauses, Adverbial Clauses, or Modal Clauses:—*

Aristotle alleges that poetry regards general truth, while history is conversant only with accidental truth.

It is remarkable that the most poetical of Sir Thomas More's poems is written in Latin.

We are not required to affirm universally that there never are cases in which the state of the internal government of a foreign nation may become a just ground of war.

It cannot be doubted that, before the Persian wars, Athens had produced eminent speakers.

Mr. Montagu's opinion that Bacon desired power only in order to do good to mankind, appears somewhat strange to us.

Mr. Gladstone conceives that the duties of governments are paternal.

He never considered that governments were made for men, and not men for governments.

It was a wonder how he contrived to keep his treasury always empty.

Was it to be rich that you grew pale over the midnight lamp?

"Salt of the earth, ye virtuous few,
Who season human-kind;
Light of the world, whose cheering ray
Illumes the realms of mind;
Where misery spreads her deepest shade,
Your strong compassion glows;
From your blest lips the balm distills
That softens mortal woes."

It is by words, by tones, by gestures, by looks, that affection is won and preserved.

He who neglects these trifles, yet boasts that, whenever a great sacrifice is called for, he shall be ready to make it, will rarely be loved.

The wise ones tell us that it is intellect that has done it.

When intellect exerts itself, — when it thinks, and invents, and discovers, — it then labors. Through the medium of labor it does all that it does.

Evil indeed must be the disease which is not more tolerable than such medicine.

Release them not too rashly lest they curse their freedom and pine for their prison.

The soldiers forgot that they were citizens, and the orators that they were statesmen.

If the Commons impeached Hastings, all danger was at an end

CHAPTER II

THE SUBJECT.

§ 143. THE SUBJECT of a sentence is that of which something is asserted; as, "Grass is green;" "John performed his part wisely."

§ 144. The subject of a sentence is expressed in the nominative case (§ 116).

§ 145. The subject of a sentence may be *modified* or *unmodified*. It is unmodified when expressed in a single word; as, "Birds sing;" modified when expressed in more than one; as, "The long-expected summer came;" "Threatening clouds darken the sky."

The word which is limited or modified is the *principal* part; and the other words are the *modifying* part of the subject.

§ 146. ORAL EXERCISES. Name the subjects of the several sentences that follow, and mention whether modified or unmodified: —

OBSERVATION. — The subject may be readily determined if the question be asked, Of what is something asserted in the sentence?

MODEL. — "This position of affairs did not last long." The subject is *this position of affairs*, as it is the answer to the question, Of what is it asserted, that it did not last long? It is modified by *this* and *of affairs*.

Joan sprang from the ground. His pretty little nephew, Arthur, had the best claim to the throne. People are not sufficiently anxious to be correct. In the whole business of the world, truth is of great importance. One part, one little

part, we dimly scan. There is yet another species of falsehood. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods. The solitudes, the afflictions, the aspirations of this life, are a proof that man, less contented than the brute, has another destiny. About forty years ago, there lived in that castle a noble gentleman, whom we shall call Baron Mansberg.

CHAPTER III.

THE PREDICATE.

§ 147. THE PREDICATE is that element of a proposition which expresses what is asserted of the subject.

§ 148. Predicates are of two classes: —

1. *Concretes*; as, "*Man is a mortal*;" that is, man belongs to the class of mortals.
2. *Abstracts*; as, "*Man is mortal*;" that is, man has the quality of mortality.

§ 149. Concrete Predicates may be of either of the four classes: (1.) Individuals; (2.) Masses; (3.) Groups; or, (4.) Classes.

OBSERVATION. — All propositions having individuals as predicates are Identical Propositions. Individuals being of the lowest genus or class, cannot be predicated of lower varieties, since there are none; and having all the properties of the class to which they belong, together with those which characterize them as individuals, they cannot be predicated of a class. We cannot say "Man is John," but only "That particular man — that one man's John."

Predicates denoting masses as such, must express them as making up or constituting the subject; as, "The ring is *gold*;" "The wall is *brick and mortar*;" "Man is *head, body, and limbs*;" "A tree is *root, trunk, branches, and foliage*."

In the same way, predicates denoting groups must express the parts that make up the group; as, "The live stock of the farm was a span of horses, a yoke of oxen, a flock of sheep, a brace of ducks, and a dozen hens." We cannot predicate the group expressed in a collective noun of a part of the group, as we can the class of its part. We cannot thus say, "Richard is *army*," or "Richard is *an army*," as we can say, "Richard is *an American*," unless we use the word figuratively, and then it is no longer a collective but an abstract.

The more common form of concrete predicates is that of class-nouns; as,

"John is a man;" "Plato and Socrates were Athenians." In all such propositions the assertion declares the subject to be included under the class denoted by the predicate. The meaning is simply this: the subject as an individual or a species is one of the individuals or one of the species denoted by the predicate. If the predicate be modified in such case, it can accordingly be modified only by definitives (§ 173.)

§ 150. Abstract Predicates may be of either of the four classes of Attributes:--

1. *Qualities*; as, "The sea is *salt*;"
2. *Actions*; as, "John is *striking*;"
3. *Conditions*; as, "The bird is *resting*;"
4. *Relations*; as, "Nine is *more than seven*."

OBSERVATION. — An abstract predicate, expressed separately from the copula, is of a nature midway between a noun and an adjective; and on this is grounded the name sometimes given it, of *noun-adjective*. When I say, "Socrates was mortal," I mean that "the attribute of mortality belonged to him" — I predicate that attribute of him. And this attribute is as truly an object of thought in the one case as in the other. But it is not in the first case definitely represented as separated from a concrete. It points to a concrete to which it may belong: it is an attribute implying a concrete. Yet it is not, on the other hand, explicitly connected with such a concrete, as is the proper adjective. It does not modify the subject or any other noun, and should not be parsed as such a modifier; for this, although a common practice, is to confound a modifier with a predicate, and to overlook the distinctive nature of a predicate. The mere circumstance that in languages largely inflected, the abstract predicate, when standing disconnected from the copula, is an adjective in form, and agrees, in its terminations marking gender, number, and case, with the subject, has no force against the correctness of this view. When I say, "Socrates was mortal," — *Socrates fuit mortalis*, — the subject, *Socrates*, is not modified as a subject at all by the predicate, *mortal*; but of *Socrates*, as an unmodified subject, the attribute *mortal* is predicated. It is the very object of the proposition to attribute this *mortality* to *Socrates* — a subject before this attribution unmodified. The attribute-adjective no more modifies the subject, than does the verb-attribute, *died*, in the sentence, "Socrates died." Nor is the predicate in this case to be regarded as a modifier of some noun understood. To say "Socrates is mortal," is a very different thing from saying "Socrates is a mortal man;" "a mortal creature;" "a mortal being." There is just the difference that there is between saying that "Socrates belongs to a class," and that "Socrates has the qualities of that class." If the one proposition may be logically derived from the other, they present very distinguishable truths. No one can fail to recognize the difference between the proposition, "Socrates was mortal," and the proposition, "Socrates was a mortal."

§ 151. The Predicate may appear in language in either of three several forms:—

1. **PURE**, that is, by itself; as, "The sun is *bright*;"
- or,
2. **WHOLLY COMBINED** with the copula; as, "The sun *shines*;" or,
 3. **PARTIALLY COMBINED** with the copula; as, "The sun *quickens all things*." In this last form the copula is combined with only a part of the predicate.

§ 152. Concrete Predicates can be only in the first form. Accordingly in all propositions of the second and third forms, the predicates are abstracts.

§ 153. Abstract Predicates of either of the four classes may be in either of the three forms.

OBSERVATION. — In the English language, however, as also in some others of the Indo-European family, no verbs occur with predicates denoting quality simply, of the second or third forms. Such words as *hardens*, if not denoting state, include the idea of *becoming*, besides that of quality. In other languages, such words occur; as Latin *candet*, is white; *riget*, is stiff.

§ 154. Abstract Predicates may be expressed either, —

1. In combination with the copula; as, "The sun *enlightens*;" or,
2. Separated from the copula either in the form of adjectives, adjuncts, adverbs, infinitives, or clauses; as, "The sun is *bright*;" "The sun is *above the horizon*;" "The sun is *there*;" "The sun is *to rise*;" "The sun is *where it may now be seen from the bottom of the valley*."

§ 155. Qualities are properly predicated in the English language, uncombined with the copula; as, "The sea is *blue*;" "The lion is *fierce*." They are generally expressed in the form of the adjective.

OBSERVATION. — If the form of the noun is taken, the significance of the sentence is changed. The predicate then is to be regarded as a concrete; as, "The lion is *fierceness* itself," an Identical Proposition; "Knowledge is *power*," that is, *knowledge* is one of the class of objects named *power*. In this last example, a force is given to the expression very differ-

ent from that given in the form "Knowledge is *powerful*." Or still better perhaps, as in the preceding case, the proposition may be viewed as an Identical Proposition, in which the subject, *knowledge*, is identified with the predicate, *power*.

§ 156. Actions are more commonly predicated in combination with the copula; as, "John *ran*;" "The lightning *flushed*."

OBSERVATION. — Most verbs in English express action.

§ 157. Conditions are predicated in nouns with prepositions, that is, in adjuncts; as, "The sea is *at rest*;" "The lion is *asleep*," (= in sleep;) they are also expressed in adverbs; as, "John is *here*;" also in participles; as, "The sea is *resting*;" "The lion is *sleeping*."

They may, also, be predicated in union with the copula, as in a large class of the verbs, which, as there is no object implied, are called Intransitive; as, "The sea *rests*;" "The lion *sleeps*." But here condition is expressed under the form more appropriately expressing action.

OBSERVATION. — The preposition in such expressions as "The sea is *at rest*," "John is in *debt*," must clearly be regarded as indicating only the general relation of subject and predicate. It expresses no relation between the predicate and the copula; between *rest*, or *debt*, and *is*, in these examples.

§ 158. Relations are predicated either combined or uncombined with the copula.

If the relation is immediate or direct, it is properly combined; as, "The enemy *outnumbers* us."

If the relation is mediate or indirect, it is properly uncombined; as, "Salt is *useful* for many purposes."

If the relation is immediate and one of action, it is more commonly combined; if of condition or quality, properly uncombined; as, "Frost *benefits* the soil;" "Frost is *beneficial* to the soil."

OBSERVATION 1. — This view of the different modes which language prescribes for predicating the different classes of attributes, explains to us the grounds of the peculiar force or significance severally belonging to these modes. When I say thus: "The sea *rests*," I express a condition or state under the form properly belonging to an action-predicate. I use an expression that properly ascribes action to the sea. When I say "The sea is *at*

rest," I express proper condition, but it is in truth not an original normal form. When I say "The sea is resting," I predicate proper condition by the proper normal form. It is more forcible than the second form — *at rest*. It is less so than the first — *rests*, as expressions under the form of action are generally more forcible than others.

OBSERVATION 2. — The predicated attribute must be regarded as the original ground of the attribute-adjective used to limit or modify an object of thought. Only as an attribute can be supposed to have been predicated of an object can it be assumed to limit such object. The predicate-adjective is thus the original ground of the proper limiting adjective. We can think "the dark cloud," only as we may be supposed first to have thought *clouds* to be *dark*, and so have been able to assert "the cloud is dark."

§ 159. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Predicate in each of the following sentences; say whether it is a Concrete or an Abstract, and of which kind; and whether it is Pure or Combined, and if combined, whether wholly or only in part: —*

MODEL. — "These instances should satisfy." The predicate is expressed in the words "should satisfy;" it is an abstract expressing action, and wholly combined with the copula.

Charlotte was an artist. His name was George. He might have been an orator. He studied his lessons well. No one came to his assistance. The British Parliament is composed of king, lords, and commons. Passion is the drunkenness of the mind. Although great has been his disobedience, yet, if penitent, he shall be forgiven. Health is preferable to riches. History is the most popular species of writing. It adapts itself to the highest or the lowest capacity. He is now about to set his superhuman shaft upon the string; he is to become dreadful in his invective. No monumental column is there. The chosen hour for the landing was when the moon should have withdrawn her light behind the horizon.

§ 160. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Construct sentences in which the predicate shall be, —*

1. A *Proper Noun*;
2. A *Mass-noun*;
3. A *Collective Noun*;
4. A *Class-noun*.

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Construct sentences which shall predicate some quality of the following subjects :—

Field, mountain, acorn, coral, figure, complexion, avarice, sympathy, beneficence, prosperity.

Construct sentences which shall predicate action of the following subjects :—

Hero, leaf, rock, sound, air, heat, storm, grief, recollection, wish, trade, government.

Construct sentences which shall predicate condition or state of the following subjects :—

Clock, plow, wheat, head, foot, memory, desire, fear.

Construct sentences which shall predicate some relation of the following subjects :—

Benjamin Franklin, Mount Etna, London, lead, gold, smoke, hail, ignorance, sloth, ambition, summer, language, art.

CHAPTER IV.

THE COPULA.

§ 161. THE COPULA is that element of a proposition which expresses the relation of identity, or non-identity, total or partial, between the subject and the predicate.

The Copula is, accordingly, the asserting element of a judgment; it is, of course, the vital, essential element, so that when there is no Copula expressed or implied, there is no assertion, no judgment, no sentence.

§ 162. The Copula, if expressed in words, is always expressed in the verb.

OBSERVATION. — The Copula is sometimes not expressed at all. It may be expressed by a sign; as, "Two and three = five." But when expressed in words, it is in the verb. The normal verb ever contains the copula of the sentence; and may always be distinguished and known by this characteristic. See Appendix No. IV., VI. Hence the following definition, to which that given, § 17, is equivalent, as is also this: The verb is the copula expressed in language.

A VERB is the asserting element of a sentence.

§ 163. The Copula is *Pure* or *Combined*. It is combined when united in the same word with the whole or a part of the predicate (§ 151); as, "The sun *shines*;" "The water *has frozen*;" "The fields *are clothed* in green;" "He *had studied* diligently."

OBSERVATION 1. — As the copula expresses the identity, in whole or in part, of the subject and the predicate, any word which can properly express this identity, may with propriety be regarded as a *puro copula*. The following verbs are thus proper copula-words, expressing the copula un-

combined with the predicate: *To be*, as, "The sun *is* bright;" *to equal*, as "Two and three *equal* five;" *to make* or *to make up*, *to form*, *to compose*, *to constitute*, and those words which express the identity of the parts with the whole; as, "Two and three *make* five;" "Oxygen and hydrogen *compose* water;" *to contain*, *to include*, *to comprehend*, *to involve*, and those words which express the identity of the whole with its parts; as, "Water *contains* oxygen and hydrogen;" "Great Britain *includes* England, Wales, and Scotland."

OBSERVATION 2. — A judgment may be regarded as complete or incomplete; as determined or undetermined. When undetermined, it may be expressed in the form of a question. Thus, "John is studious," is a completed, a determined judgment. Such a judgment, when expressed, is called a *Categorical Proposition*; "Is John studious?" is an incomplete, an undetermined judgment — a doubt. Such a judgment, when expressed, is called an *Interrogative Proposition*.

Further, I may judge affirmatively or negatively; I may assert "John is studious," or "John is not studious." There are accordingly *Affirmative and Negative Judgments*.

These last, moreover, may each be determined or undetermined, and accordingly be expressed in positive assertions, or as questions; as, "Is John studious?" "Is not John studious?"

§ 164. There are four general forms of the Copula, and four corresponding kinds of sentences: —

1. The *Affirmative*; as, *The sun shines*.
2. The *Negative*; as, *The sun does not shine*.
3. The *Affirmative-Interrogative*; as, *Does the sun shine?*
4. The *Negative-Interrogative*; as, *Does not the sun shine?*

§ 165. The Interrogative expression properly transposes the subject and copula, placing the copula first; as, *Lovest thou me? Is he absent? Does he depart?*

This form of expression is often introduced by a class of words called *Interrogatives*. There are thus, —

1. *Interrogative Pronouns*; as, "Who struck the first blow?" See § 131.
2. *Interrogative Adjectives*; as, "Which book did he bring?" "What business does he follow?"
3. *Interrogative Adverbs*; as, "Where has he been?" "Why did he go?" "How will they bear it?"

§ 166. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the words containing the Copula in each of the following sentences; say whether it is Combined or Uncombined; and whether Affirmative, Negative, Affirmative-interrogative, or Negative-interrogative: —*

MODEL. — "Virtue is the universal charm;" *is* is the copula uncombined and affirmative.

The spirit of true religion is social, kind, and cheerful. Piety and virtue are particularly graceful and becoming in youth. Truth and candor possess a powerful charm. When will they arrive? Every heart knows its own bitterness. He does not live within his income. Disappointments derange and overcome vulgar minds. What has become of decency and virtue? Whose works are these? They are Cicero's, the Roman orator and patriot. Why does he wish for clearer evidence? To whom was the prize awarded? The council did not agree. The sea had been smooth for several days; it was now becoming rough. Where is the monarch who dares resist us? Virtue confers the highest dignity on man. Do I put my faculties to their best use? Will he not keep an account of this? Before her steps walketh prudence; virtue attendeth at her right hand. Observe those who have listened to temptations. Are they not meager? Are they not sickly? Are they not spiritless? Perhaps they began, but did not I carry it on? They gave the provocation; but did not I take it? Should I allow myself in any little froward humors? Should I not be ashamed to appear peevish and ill-natured? Why was I born a man to see the sufferings of wretches I cannot relieve? Why was this heart of mine formed with so much sensibility?

§ 167. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct three sentences with Copula uncombined; three with Copula combined; three Affirmative, three Negative, three Affirmative-interrogative, and three Negative-interrogative Sentences.*

PART III.—MODIFYING ELEMENTS OF THE SENTENCE.

CHAPTER I.

NATURE AND KINDS OF MODIFYING ELEMENTS.

§ 168. ANY one of the three principal elements of the sentence may be modified in ways more or less peculiar to each, in order more precisely to express the thought.

Such modifications are of two kinds:—

1. One of mere *form*, to indicate the relationship between parts of the sentence, as between the verb and its subject.

2. The other of *significance*. In this case a word or a part of a sentence is simply limited in its meaning to a narrower import.

OBSERVATION.—As there is not for every form of thought a form of expression furnished in language, it becomes necessary often to borrow forms of expression already in use. When words in use are too limited, form-words (§ 272, Observation 2) are used to connect or combine them. When they are too indefinite, either limiting words or changes in the form of the word are resorted to. We have, in this way, modifications by modifying words, and modifications by Inflection.

The word or part of the sentence modified, in distinction from the modifying part, is called the *principal part*.

The principal part, when a single word used as subject, or predicate, or copula in a sentence, is sometimes called the *Grammatical subject, predicate, or copula*; while the whole element, consisting of this principal part and all the words that modify it, is sometimes called the *Logical subject, predicate, or copula*.

NATURE AND KINDS OF MODIFYING ELEMENTS. 89

MODIFIERS are words used to limit the meaning or relation of words.

INFLECTION is a change in the form of a word to limit its meaning or its relation in the sentence.

OBSERVATION.—For the sake of convenience, auxiliaries are treated as parts of the one word which is made up of them and the principal word; and modifications by auxiliaries are accordingly regarded as Inflections.

The modifications of the subject in respect of its form to show its relation in the sentence have been sufficiently treated in the chapter on division of nouns in respect of case, Part I., Chapter iv., §§ 114–116.

§ 169. The modifier of the subject, and so of any object of thought that may be used as a subject, is an *adjective* modification;

That of the predicate, or of any part of the sentence that may be used as a predicate, is an *adverbial* modification;

That of the copula, or of any part of the sentence that may be regarded as primitively a copula, is a *modal* modification.

§ 170. There are three classes of Modifiers: the *Adjective*; the *Adverbial*; and the *Modal*.

AN ADJECTIVE is the modifier of a subject-word, or noun (§ 55).

AN ADVERBIAL is the modifier of a predicate-word (§ 56).

A MODAL is the modifier of a copula-word (§ 57).

§ 171. Modifiers are either derived from the matter of the thought, that is, from the subject or predicate, or from the thought itself, that is, from the copula.

They consist of single words, or of several words taken together.

If consisting of several words, they are called, when derived from the matter of the thought exclusively, *modifying*

phrases; when derived in part from the copula, *modifying clauses*. See Int. Ex., Chap. viii.

OBSERVATION.—If the verb is not expressed, as in such expressions as “if possible,” “although with caution,” the term *clausal* or *clausal phrase* is sometimes applied to them, to distinguish them from proper clauses in which the verb appears but does not express an actual judgment. See § 140. They are properly elliptical clauses.

CHAPTER II.

MODIFICATIONS OF AN OBJECT OF THOUGHT.—ADJECTIVES.

§ 172. As in the several kinds of composite objects, masses, groups, and classes, the parts differ in their essential nature, the limiting words or modifiers so far differ. Thus the modifier of a mass-noun must limit to a spacial or extended part; as, “*Much water*,” “*Little water*;” the modifier of a collective noun must limit to one or more of the numerical parts; as, “*One of the army*;” the modifier of a class-noun, to one or more of the individuals, or of the varieties or species that make up the class; as, “*The book*;” “*Several men*;” “*White sheep*;” “*Mortal body*.”

Of these examples of the various kinds of modifications of subject-words or nouns, the one last given, “*mortal body*,” differs from all the others in this respect, that while the first given all limit in respect of the *quantity* of the object in the stricter sense, that is, limit to a spacial or numerical part of the object, the last limits in respect of the quality of the object, that is, limits to one of the attributes that make up the object *body*. Thus, when we say “*white sheep*,” we generally mean a certain kind of sheep which we wish to distinguish from other sheep that are not *white*; but when we say “*mortal body*,” we do not ordinarily mean to distinguish *mortal body* from *body* which is *not mortal*, for all earthly body is mortal. We wish only to separate that particular attribute of *body* called *mortal*, from other attributes, as *extended*, *organic*, and the like. We have thus two kinds of adjectives: (1.) Those which limit in respect of the Quantity

including kind, of the object; and (2.) Those which limit in respect of the Properties or Relations of the object.

§ 173. Adjectives are of two classes:—

1. *Definitives*, which limit the object as to its quantity or kind; as, "*Much* money;" "*Six* men;" "*Those* trees;" "*Learned* men."

2. *Epithets*, which limit the object in respect of its attributes; as, "*The righteous* Lord;" "*The leafy* oak;" "*Jocund* spring;" "*Happiness* is found with *the purring* cat no less than with *the playful* kitten;"

"I have seen tempests when the *scolding* winds
Have rived the *knotty* oaks."

OBSERVATION.—This distinction, but little recognized in systems of Grammar, and, perhaps, for that reason, somewhat unfamiliar, is yet one of great importance in order to correct and free expression. A little thought will familiarize the distinction. It is plain that when I say "*the white* kitten," I mean ordinarily to distinguish one of this color from one of some other color. But in the sentence quoted above, the writer does not at all intend to distinguish *playful* kittens from those that are not playful; he wishes to fix the attention of the reader on one of the attributes that belong to all kittens—*playful*.

It must be borne in mind that the same word may be used either as a Definitive or as an Epithet. Thus when Spenser says, "Then came the jolly summer," he uses the adjective *jolly* not as a Definitive—not to indicate what kind of a summer he meant, but as an Epithet to indicate upon what attribute of the summer he wished the attention directed. But when I say "It was a jolly summer," I mean to define a certain kind of summer. An accurate writer will ever distinguish between these two uses of adjectives, although language, from its imperfection, may not enable him always to show clearly to the reader which one he intended.

§ 174. Definitives are of three classes:—

1. *Numerals*;
2. *Demonstratives*;
3. *Attributives*.

§ 175. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES designate how much or how many of the parts of the composite object are meant.

They include two classes:—

1. *The Definite Numerals*; as, *all, both, every, each, either*; the negatives, *no, none, neither*, together with the cardinal numbers, *one, two, etc.*

2. *The Indefinite Numerals*; as, *some, few, several, certain, divers, sundry, any, enough, only, many; much, little.*

OBSERVATION.—Of the Numerals, *much* and *little* are used properly to limit mass-nouns; that is, to limit in spacial or geometrical rather than in proper numerical quantity. *Whole, some, any, enough, only*, are used in both ways. *Large, small*, and the like, properly limit, likewise, mass-nouns. We should, indeed, for the most rigid exactness, distinguish modifiers of mass-nouns from those of collective and plural nouns. But most of these adjectives are applicable to both; and it is frequently necessary or convenient to denominate a class from one of the species. We have called all modifiers which limit either to spacial or to numerical parts, thus, *Numeral Adjectives*.

Further, *every, each, either, none, neither*, are distinguished from others of the class as *distributives*. *Every* denotes that all of the parts contained in the object are taken *one by one*. *Each* is used of an object containing two as well as more parts; it is the distributive of *both* and *all*. *Either* limits to the one or the other of two parts; is the alternative of *both*. *One another* is the alternative form of *all*; *none, no one* the negative of *all*; *neither, of either*.

The numerals generally may be used as nouns without further indication of the objects to which they properly belong. We may suppose in such use an *ellipsis* of the noun. *Certain, divers, sundry, only*, are not thus used as nouns; and *any* is not used by itself as a subject, but only as the object of an action or relation. *Every, no*, are used as nouns only in connection with *one*; as, *every one, no one*, contracted into *none*.

§ 176. To this class, numerals, belongs what has been called by distinction, *the indefinite article, a or an*. Etymologically this article was originally the cardinal numeral. But the necessities, or at least the conveniences of speech, demanded a ready way of converting an abstract into a concrete. This want is met in the indefinite article. Thus in the phrase "*Man is mortal*," *mortal* is an attribute and of course an abstract. By inserting the indefinite article, so that the phrase shall read "*Man is a mortal*," *mortal* becomes a concrete, a class-noun.

This use of *an*, that is, as a definitive, limiting the object

as to its sphere, but not as a demonstrative which indicates which one is meant, distinguishes it from the definite article *the*, which is demonstrative (§ 178); and to mark this distinction it is called the *indefinite* article. It is, however, essentially a *definitive*, although not so precisely defining or limiting as the definite article *the*.

In this use, it has come to drop the *n* before consonant sounds, while it is still written *an* in full before vowel sounds.

In accordance with this principle, it is written and sounded *an* before a silent *h*, as, *an honest man*; also before an aspirated *h* in an unaccented syllable, as the consonantal power of the letter is then weak, as *an historical essay*; *an hypothesis*. But before an aspirated *h* in an accented syllable, the general principle applies, and it is written without the *n*; as, *a history*; *a hypothetical case*. For analogous reasons the *n* is omitted in writing and in pronunciation before the consonantized sound of *y* and of *w* as sounded at the beginning of words; as, *a youth*, *a war*, *such a one* (*won*).

§ 177. DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES point out the particular parts or individuals meant in the composite object; as, *this*, *that*; *these*, *those*.

§ 178. To this class belongs what has been called the *definite article*, *THE*.

This article may be used with or without other modifiers; as, *the man*, *the brave man*. It demonstrates, that is, *points out* the particular individual meant in the class *man*; *brave man*.

It sometimes demonstrates the species; as, "*The fish swims*." This sentence, it will be seen, is ambiguous; as the definite article either indicates that the word *fish* is here used to denote an object originating in the thought, a class or species, giving the meaning that one of the attributes, a part of the Base on which the class *fish* is formed, is

swimming; or simply indicates that the word is used to denote some particular *fish* with the meaning that it actually *swims*. In one meaning a general property of the class is indicated; in the other, an act is asserted of some individual.

The article *the* is always, however, a definitive, as it limits the noun in respect to quantity.

A definitive prefixed to a proper abstract word changes it at once to a class-word. Thus in the phrase, "The justice of which I speak," the article suggests a particular kind of justice. In the same way the article placed before adjectives converts them into concretes; as, "The busy and the active."

§ 179. To this class — Demonstratives — also may be assigned those adjectives which determine which of the individuals contained under the general object are meant by referring them to the particular place or time to which they belong; as, *yonder*, *adjacent*; *former*, *latter*.

Here belong, moreover, *Ordinal Adjectives*, so called; as, *first*, *second*, *third*, &c.

§ 180. ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES limit the noun in respect to some species contained under it through some attribute; as, "*Dark clouds*;" "*An ill fortune*;" "*Malicious passions*;" "*An unyielding firmness*."

§ 181. EPITHETS are adjectives, which limit the object to some of its attributes; as, "*Balmy spring*;" "*Fiery Mars*;" "*Silent flowers*."

OBSERVATION. — Rhetoricians prescribe vague rules for the use of epithets, indicating the want of a clear understanding of their nature. Dr. Whately, thus, directs that an epithet should be used only when it either will explain a metaphor, or when it expresses something that is implied, but not likely to be noticed by the hearer; that is, should be used only when necessary. The distinction between definitives and epithets will guide better to the use. As a composite object may be made up of individuals or of properties; as, for instance, *star* may denote either a number of bodies, or a complement of properties, as *material*, *heavenly*, *shining*; the object may

be limited in either of these respects. We can accordingly define or limit by designating which or how many of the bodies included in the class, by using a definitive, or limit in regard to the property to which we would particularly direct attention, by using an epithet. And the same law applies to the use of both kinds of adjectives; namely, — *Limit as the particular object in speaking requires.* If the noun includes under it more individuals or more parts, or more species than the object in speaking requires, the definitive adjective is to be used to limit it to such part as is desired. If the noun includes in it more attributes than it is desired to have prominently in view in speaking, an epithet which shall direct to the particular attribute to be made prominent, is to be used.

§ 182. ORAL EXERCISES. *Mention the Adjectives in the following phrases, and name them as Numerals, Demonstratives, or Attributives. Distinguish, also, Definitives from Epithets, and Modifying Adjectives from Predicate-adjectives : —*

Three royal messengers. That lofty eminence. Six hundred years. The eighty-fifth year of the government. An unimportant abstract. A former message. The latter date. That excellent man. Either circumstance. Any portion. The eight-hundredth year of the Christian era. Playful wit. Three centuries. Barbarous tribes. The voiced expression. There was a peculiar, a more than human solemnity. His voice trembled on every syllable. On the fifth day of the moon. The arm-chair of dozing age. Stern-eyed justice. The spirit deathless in its very nature. A single human being. Great was the love which poor silly I had for this little kitten.

“O glorious malice, dearer than the prize!
Frail hour which one frail minute could destroy!”

The giddy multitude are not always judicious in their approbation.

Correct the faults in the following expressions : —

An highway was there. An heart of evil. A open door. A hussar. Many an one. An humorist. An humble roof. A honorable man. A heir-loom. An wisacre. A Hibernian. A hiatus. A heroic act. A herbarium. An heroine. An hierarchy. An Hebrew.

It was strange kind of goodness. The pleasure attends benevolence. A mercy is God's attribute. The prosperity in a nation endangers the good morals. I will walk in the ways of the righteousness. The copiousness of expression is to be acquired. The gravity is ballast of soul. The memory is treasure-house of mind. Do nothing in the passion.

The rich and poor are alike mortal.* It has been the ambition of good and noble in all ages. The patrician and plebeian were equally concerned. The North and South have common interests and common destiny. The old and young may alike profit by experience. He regards the cries of the widow and orphan. How do the duties of a good wife, good mother, and worthy matron, well performed, dignify a woman! Gratitude regards the giver rather than gift. The desires may be classed as twofold: the animal and rational. All minerals have the common properties of fracture, the degree of hardness, and the specific gravity. The perch, the mackerel, and pilot-fish belong to the sharp-finned order of fishes. The class of quadrumans includes the ape and baboon. The frog and toad belong to the order of batrachia. The study of English language is making daily advancement.

§ 183. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Modify the following words by Definitives of each class : —*

Acorn, horse, cloud, tree, animal, shrubs, feet, chance, virtue, decis'on, doubt, hypothesis, yellowness, hygrometer, their, hallucination, wilderness, youth, antipathy, yawl, hour-glass, horizon.

Modify the above, and also the following, by Epithets : —

Humility, gratitude, obeisance, animosity, hosanna, magnanimity, sentence, rebukes, wreaths, thrift, stupidity, recital, membrane, truth, ambiguity, revelry, testimony.

* The definitive should be prefixed to each distinct class to prevent ambiguity.

§ 184. In order to a still more precise expression of the thought, it often becomes necessary to limit the modifier itself. Thus the adjective comes to be modified; and this in two ways:—

1. *Absolutely*, or without express reference to other objects or other attributes; as, "The *willingly* obedient;" "*Entirely* empty;" "*Exceedingly* rich." This kind of modification is by adverbials. See § 228.

2. Relatively either in degree or in quantity, as compared with other objects or attributes; as, "A metal *richer* than gold;" "The *longest* life of all." This relative modification of the adjective is called, in Grammar, *Comparison*. It is effected by Inflection.

In Comparison, the object modified by the adjective is compared with other objects in two ways:—

1. *Coördinately*, that is, as an individual or class with other individual or individuals, or another class or classes of the same rank or order; as, "John is *taller* than James;" "John is *taller* than his brothers;" "The vultures are *larger* than the falcons."

2. *Subordinately*, that is, as one of the class with the whole class itself; as, "John is the *tallest* of the brothers;" "The vulture is the *tamest* of the birds of prey."

These two modes of comparison furnish the ground for the two ways of modifying the adjective relatively, called the *Two Forms* of Comparison—the *Comparative* and the *Superlative*. The adjective when unmodified relatively is said, in order to distinguish it from the modified forms, to be of the *Positive Form*.

OBSERVATION.—The forms of comparison have been sometimes called *degrees*; and definitions have been given which make the superlative form to differ from the comparative in denoting a higher degree. This is altogether incorrect. In the sentences "Moses was meeker than all other men," and "Moses was the meekest of men," we discover no such difference of degree. There are two fundamental relations of thought, that of Whole to Part, and that of Part to Part. The two forms of relative modification, that is, the two forms in comparison, are determined by this twofold relationship, the one being that of subordination, the other that of coördination.

§ 185. Comparison may be between different attributes or between different modifications of the same attribute as well as between different objects; as, *More nice than wise*; *Mightier in words than in deeds*; "Her large charity not *freer* is to give than *meek* to bear."

In the following from Shakespeare we have an instance in which the comparison is between different objects and different attributes at the same time:—

"Oh she is
Ten times more gentle than her father's crabbed."

§ 186. When the modification of the Adjective is relative, the modification is said to be by *Comparison*.

GRAMMATICAL COMPARISON is the relative modification of the Adjective.

§ 187. Comparison, in respect of objects, is either with a part of the class or with the whole class. There are thus three forms of the adjective distinguished in respect of relative modification:—

1. The relatively unmodified, called the *Positive Form*. as, *tall, bright*;

2. The modified relatively to a part, called the *Comparative Form*; as, *taller, brighter*;

3. The modified relatively to the whole, called the *Superlative Form*; as, *tallest, brightest*.

OBSERVATION.—It should be remarked that comparison may be expressed between parts of masses or groups, as well as between parts of classes.

For the purpose of a more formal statement, this doctrine of Grammatical Comparison is repeated in the following section.

§ 188. The Adjective may be of either of three forms: the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*; as, *tall, taller, tallest*.

The **POSITIVE FORM** is that in which the Adjective is not relatively modified.

The **COMPARATIVE FORM** is that in which the Adjective

tive is relatively modified in the relation of its object to some other part or parts.

The SUPERLATIVE FORM is that in which the Adjective is relatively modified in the relation of its object to the whole of which it is a part.

OBSERVATION. — Briefer definitions may be given of these forms of comparison which, with sufficient precision, distinguish them from one another; thus —

The POSITIVE FORM of the Adjective is its form when relatively unmodified.

The COMPARATIVE FORM of the Adjective is its form when modified relatively to other parts.

The SUPERLATIVE FORM of the Adjective is its form when modified relatively to the whole of which its object is a part.

§ 189. From the nature of grammatical comparison, the following general rules are at once derived: —

1. *The Comparative should be used only when its object as one part is compared with another part or with other parts.*

2. *The Superlative should be used only when its object as a part is compared with the whole.*

§ 190. The Comparative Form adds *r* or *er* to the Positive, or prefixes the words *more* or *less*; as, Positive, *wise*, Comparative, *wiser*, *more wise*, *less wise*.

§ 191. The Superlative Form adds *st* or *est* to the Positive, or prefixes *most* or *least*; as, Positive, *wise*, Superlative, *wisest*, *most wise*, *least wise*.

OBSERVATION 1. — If the positive form end in *y*, this letter is changed to *i* before *er* and *est*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*. See § 77, Rule IV.

OBSERVATION 2. — The following adjectives are irregular in their comparison:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Bad, ill, evil,	Worse,	Worst.
Good,	Better,	Best.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Much or many,	More,	Most.
Aft,	After,	Aftermost.
Far,	Farther,	Farther, farthermost.
Fore.	Former,	First, foremost.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
(Forth, adv.)	Further,	Furthest.
hind,	hinder,	Hindmost, hindermost.
	hither,	Hithermost.
In,	Inner,	Inmost, innermost.
Late,	Later, latter,	Latest, last.
Low,	Lower,	Lowest, lowermost.
Near and nigh,	Nearer,	Nearest, next.
	Nether,	Nethermost.
Old,	Older, elder,	Older, eldest.
Out,	Outer, utter,	Outermost, uttermost, utmost.
Up,	Upper,	Uppermost, upmost.

OBSERVATION 3. — A number of superlatives, besides those in the above list, are formed by adding *most* to the positive form of the adjective, or to nouns, prepositions, or adverbs; as, *easternmost*, *topmost*, *hithermost*.

OBSERVATION 4. — Generally, the formation of comparatives and superlatives in *er* and *est*, from positives of more than one syllable, is inelegant, and such forms are to be avoided; as, "beautiful^{est}," "hopeful^{est}," "profitablest," "abominablest." Dissyllables ending in an accented syllable or in *le* or *y*, are exceptions; as, *remoter*, *gentlest*, *holiest*.

OBSERVATION 5. — It has been a question whether the use of the Comparative form is proper in such an expression as "The taller of the two." In the classical languages this use is allowed; and it is found in the best forms of English literature. The preposition in such use must not be regarded as expressing a partitive relation, but as signifying *in respect of*. Such interpretation has abundant support in the analogy of the classical languages, in which the object with which the comparison is made is expressed in three ways: (1.) As by a mental view turned toward it, — looking to it, — through the Accusative or Whither-case, expressed in Latin by *quam*; (2.) Through the Ablative in Latin, = *wherewith*, and the Genitive in Greek, *in respect of*; (3.) By a disjunctive, as in Greek, pointing to another or complementary part of the class.

In the expression "The tallest of the two," the whole class is regarded, but the class here is made up of two. There can be no objection to this form of expression in the principles of thought, as we may think of two as a class.

OBSERVATION 6. — Some adjectives from foreign languages, particularly from the Latin, which were proper comparatives, are used in English as adjectives of relation, being followed by *to*, not by *than*. Such are *anterior*, *posterior*, *prior*, *ulterior*, *superior*, *inferior*, *interior*, *exterior*; also *minor*, *major*, *junior*, *senior*, which do not admit *than* or *to* after them. It is generally incorrect to prefix to them the words of comparison *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, or to add the terminations *r* and *st*.

In the same way superlatives from other languages are used in English as positives; but it is not in good use to join to them the superlative sign

except in rare cases for emphasis; as, *maximum, minimum, supreme, extreme, ultimate*.

Words, moreover, that are superlative in their own meaning, should not, generally, receive the signs of comparison; such as *chief, final*; and also numerals and demonstratives.

§ 192. ORAL EXERCISES. *Distinguish the several forms of comparison in the Adjectives in the following sentences:—*

John was tall: taller than either of his brothers: the tallest man, in truth, in the town. A less objectionable, if more difficult course, would have been to remove the hindrance. An abler or an angrier combatant could not easily be found. The nearest as well as the remotest branches were loaded with fruit. The veriest child could not have been guilty of a worse or a sillier fraud. The tourne is like a race horse, which runs the faster the less weight it carries. His chief concern and his highest enjoyment was to be approved by his Captain. Multitudes in the most obscure stations are not less eager in their petty broils, nor less tormented by their passions, as if princely honours were the prize for which they contend.

Correct the errors in the following sentences:—

He is a person of the most great abilities. He is the powerful man of his company. The knife was the usefulest instrument he had. He soon formed an advantageous connection. The amiablest disposition seen in my regard. The fartherest distance. The worsor qualities. The latere editions. The lowerest strata. The furtherest position. The highest of the flock. Virtue is the unprejudiced duty of man. He was the more junior of the son. I thought him the memorialist of the forgotten Margraves. He is recognizable as one of the remarkablest of mankind. It was the beautifullest, hopefulest of little drummers. The greatest maximum of temperature was ninety-seven degrees. They were the greatest generals of any others in the army. The fairest of her daughters, Eve.

The youngest was the comelyest; the littlest was the amiablest. His more ulterior object was to reach Athens. The dispute was a more minor affair than the blows he inflicted. It was the extremest cold of the season.

CHAPTER III.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE. — RELATIVE MODIFICATIONS.

§ 193. THERE are three distinct reasons for modifying the predicate in discourse: (1.) To show to what subject the predicate refers; (2.) To embody in it or combine with it the copula for which element language generally fails to supply a special form; and, (3.) To limit the meaning of words when those precisely expressing the thought are wanting.

The predicate may, accordingly, be modified either relatively to the other elements of the sentence, or in itself.

Relatively, it may be modified either in respect to the subject or in respect to the copula.

§ 194. The modifications of the Predicate are threefold:—

1. Relatively to the subject;
2. Relatively to the copula;
3. In itself.

§ 195. Relatively to the subject, the predicate may be modified either as to its form or as to its significance.

The modifications in respect of *form* give the distinctions of *number* and *person*, and are for the purpose of showing more distinctly the reference to the subject.

Thus in the sentence, —

“Money and man a mutual falsehood *show*,” —

the form of the verb, *show* instead of *shows*, indicates that it refers to the subjects *money* and *man*, not to the word immediately preceding it, *falsehood*.

In like manner the reference to the proper subject is indicated by the forms of the verb in the following verses:—

“Some pious drops the closing eye requires.”

“High stations tumult, but not bliss, create.”

OBSERVATION. — The reference of the predicate to its own subject is indicated in language, to a greater or less extent, by special forms. In those languages which are largely inflected, this reference is indicated by changes in the predicate in respect (1.) To the person of the subject in the three grand distinctions of *speaking*, *spoken to*, and *spoken of*; (2.) To the sex of the subject; and, (3.) To the number denoted in the subject as one or more. The English language retains but a part of these modifications in the form of the predicate. It rejects entirely those of sex. It retains but few of the others.

To indicate the reference of the predicate to its subject, the English language changes the forms of the predicate in respect to the person of the subject, but only in the singular number. To indicate its reference to a subject in the first person, that is, to the person speaking, it uses the termination *m*, but only in one word, *am*; as, “I am.”

For the second person it employs the termination *st*, which is added to the general tense form, as, *thou love-st*; *thou loved-st*. If necessary for euphony, the connecting vowel is inserted; as, *thou ful-est*; and the general rules of euphony in the formation of words have here full application. Int. Ex., Chap. ix. This connecting vowel is sometimes replaced by an apostrophe; as, *thou thine-st*.

The five following auxiliary verbs are slightly irregular: *art*, *wast*, *wert*, *shall*, *will*.

For the third person the English language employs the termination *s*, or in ancient and in solemn style, *th*; as, *he loves*; *God loveth*. When *th* is added, the connecting vowel *e* is inserted if euphony requires; as, *bids*, *biddeth*; *robs*, *robbeth*.

§ 196. To mark the reference of the predicate to its subject through the number of objects denoted by the subject as one or more, the English language makes no change in the plural from the proper tense-forms; as, *we love*; *they loved*. But the above named distinctions of person being confined to the singular, so far serve to distinguish the number of the subject. Thus the *s* in “*he loves*” indicates both the third person and the singular number.

§ 197. ORAL EXERCISES. Name the Person and Number of each verb in the following sentences:—

He is kind. I am glad. They are studious. John loves

his books. They assist their companions. He lives in state. Seest thou a man wise in his own eyes? Iron sharpeneth iron. Faithful are the wounds of a friend. Slothfulness casteth into a deep sleep. When thou goest, it shall keep thee. He was absent when the clock struck. You were tardy.

Form the Second Person Singular and the Third Person Singular, of the following verbs, applying in each case the rule of euphony (§ 77) : —

Fib, throb, shed, plod, bestud, pin. Rule III.

Fly, fancy, eddy, remedy, bandy, edify. Rule IV.

Frolic, mimic. Rule VIII.

Nib, begin, glory, levy, minnie, parody, grub, shun, club, physic, study, qualify, testify, shy, weary, occupy, hurry, pity.

Correct the errors in the following sentences : —

He dare not disobey. When was you there? The number of inhabitants do not exceed forty thousand. He is as strong as I is. The goods was sold at a high price. Thou, who art the Author of life, can restore it also; thou doth thy own pleasure; and ever ordereth wisely. Was you certain of the fact? They was going along the street, when the bricks was falling.

§ 198. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Construct five sentences with verbs in the Second Person Singular ;*

Five with verbs in the Third Person Singular ;

Five with verbs in the Third Person Plural.

Construct sentences with the following verbs in the Second Person Singular, and also in the Third Person Singular : —

Am, was, shall, will, care, move, rest, call, bed, threaten, plot, cast, inherit, fan, dip, caress, fix, loved, curbed, laugh, lend, help, think, accept, get, peril, level, ferret, clog, drug,

dread, linger, wrap, throb, slip, mar, purr, envelop, forfeit, intermit, play, cloy, apply, deny, obey, cry, harass, forego.

§ 199. Relatively to the subject, the predicate is modified as to its significance in two ways: (1.) *Concretely*, when it respects the subject as to *kind*, or by a noun; as, "She walks a queen;" (2.) *Abstractly*, when it respects the subject as to attribute, or by an adjective; as, "She walks calm and majestic."

OBSERVATION. — In the examples given, it is plain that the modifying words a *queen*, and *calm* and *majestic*, do not modify the verb *walks* in the same way as *gracefully* modifies it in the expression "She walks gracefully." There is a manifest reference to the subject in the former cases, while there is none in the last. We find the two kinds of modifications sometimes in the same sentence; as, "Such a one beats about him, bleeding, hungry, and convulsively." *Bleeding* and *hungry* modify the predicate here in respect to the subject; *convulsively* does not respect the subject at all.

But these modifiers do not belong to the subject; they pertain exclusively to the predicate element. The meaning is not at all, "Such a bleeding, hungry one beats about him convulsively." And any analysis that disposes of them as modifying the subject, or separates them from the predicate elements, misses the true significance of the expression. They are modifiers of the predicate, but of the predicate not in itself, but relatively to the subject. Every one must see that in the sentences "We came in unexpected," and "We came in unexpectedly," the modifying word in one case refers to the subject; in the other, does not refer to it.

Further, these modifications of the predicate relatively to the subject which abound in language, are necessarily of one of the two classes determined by the respective nature of a subject and a predicate, the one being *concrete*, or that of "kind," and denoted by a noun; the other *abstract*, or that of "attribute," and denoted by an adjective.

The expressions "Dido, the queen, walks," "Dido walks a queen," "Dido walks queenlike," "Dido walks majestically," give distinguishable shades of meaning. The first presents the subject as modified — limited to the queen, of whom the action is then asserted. The second is nearly equivalent to "Dido is a queen walking;" the word *queen* being employed not to limit the subject, but to express a concrete predicate of the subject. In the third, *queenlike* being here regarded as an adjective, the predicate is not a concrete, but an attribute, and the thought is turned upon the person as so far as *queenly*, not upon the action, *walking*. In the last, the action itself, *walking*, is modified, being characterized as *majestic walking*.

These may be deemed to be nice distinctions; but they are distinctions which, as observed or not, mark the difference between accurate and ele-

gant expression on the one hand, and inaccurate and inelegant expression on the other. They will dispose of some questions that have provoked much discussion; as whether it is correct to say "The sky looked *dark*;" "He stood *musings*;" "The grass smells *fresh and sweet*," and how the words in italics should be parsed. These words certainly are not adjectives limiting the subjects; nor are they adverbs. They limit the predicate in each case, but carry a reference to the subject. Strictly speaking, they partake of the nature of concrete predicates, which as concretes may be modified either by definitives or epithets, that is, either concretely or abstractly; in other words still, in the manner of subject-words or of predicate-words. § 170.

§ 200. Relatively to the copula, the predicate cannot be modified in significance, but only in form, and in this way only as it is combined with the copula. These modifications have been already considered (Part II., Chapters iii. and iv., §§ 147-167.)

CHAPTER IV.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE IN ITSELF. — INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB.

§ 201. THE Predicate may be modified in itself either as a whole or in its parts.

Thus in the sentence "Teneriffe was formerly an active volcano," the predicate as a whole is modified by the tense distinction in the imperfect *was*, and also by the adverb *formerly*; it is modified in its parts by the adjective *active* modifying the part *volcano*.

§ 202. The predicate as a whole is modified in language in two ways: —

1. By changes in the word itself, that is by *Inflection*; as, *I love, I loved, I was loved*;

2. By the use of other words, that is, by *adverbials* (§ 228).

§ 203. There are only two modifications of the predicate in itself expressed in the English language by appropriate inflections or changes in the form of the verb. They are, —

1. The modifications of the direction of an action or relation as *to* or *from* the subject, called the modifications of *Voice*;

2. Those of the time of the predicate, called the modifications of *Tense*.

§ 204. Verbs, in the earlier stages of language, combined the copula with the predicate, which originally expressed the attribute of action. Now action may be viewed from either of two points, — either from its beginning or from its end; either from its source or from its object. All action, thus,

may be regarded as proceeding *from* the object spoken of or *to* it. It, of course, becomes desirable to distinguish easily these two relations of the attribute of action to the object spoken of. Language meets this want by furnishing different forms in the verb. Thus in Latin, the form *amat*, he loves, expresses the action as proceeding *from* the object; while the form, *amatur*, he is loved, expresses the action as passing *to* the object spoken of. This distinction is that technically called *Voice*.

It will be remarked that voice does not respect the copula at all. It has no relation to the judgment expressed in the sentence. It is confined to the predicate of the sentence; and indicates which of the two possible directions of action *from* or *to* the object spoken of, is meant. This distinction is possible, of course, only in the case of verbs expressing the attributes of action or relation. In other words, only active verbs, so called, which include the two classes of verbs, these predicating *action* and these predicating *relation*, admit of the distinctions of voice.

§ 205. VOICE is the form of Verb-Inflection to express the direction of the action or relation predicated in the sentence as *from* or *to* the object spoken of. Or more briefly — VOICE expresses the direction of the action or relation as *to* or *from* the subject.

§ 206. There are two Voices, the *Active* and the *Passive*.

The ACTIVE VOICE expresses the action of the predicate as proceeding from the subject; as, *I strike the ground*.

The PASSIVE VOICE expresses the action of the predicate as directed to or upon the subject; as, *The ground is struck*.

§ 207. The PASSIVE VOICE is formed from the Act-

ive by prefixing the passive auxiliary, *to be*, to the past participle of the verb, as *to be loved*, *I am loved*, *I was loved*.

§ 208. TENSE is the form of Verb-Inflection to express the time of the predicate; as present, past, or future.

OBSERVATION. — The word *tense* is an altered form of the Latin word *tempus*, which signifies *time*.

The distinction between the *tense* modifications and those of *mood*, will at once be recognized. *Tense* respects the predicate; *mood*, the copula of the judgment.

The first and obvious distinction of time is into *present*, *past*, and *future*. We may, however, still further divide these primary divisions. The time of a past or of a future event may be regarded not only as simply past or future, that is, irrelatively to any other event; but also relatively either to the time of speaking or to the time of some other event.

Still further, an event may be regarded either simply as having transpired, or as transpiring, that is, as in progress. We may found tense-distinctions on this view of time, either as measured off into stages or as continuous.

While we may multiply indefinitely subdivisions of these general divisions, we yet can have no other distinctions of time or tense than those of the two kinds mentioned; time as present, past, or future, with their subdivisions respectively, and time as measured off or as continuous.

The distinctions of time for which the English language has provided special forms, are: —

1. Those marking continuousness of time, and those which do not — the *continuous*; as, *I am writing*; and the *simple*; as, *I write*.

2. Those into the —

(1.) Present; as, *I write*.

(2.) Past, with three sub-divisions: (a.) The irrelative; as, *I wrote*; (b.) The relative to the time of speaking; as, *I have written*; (c.) The relative to the time of some other event; as, *I had written*.

(3.) Future: (a.) The irrelative; as, *I shall write*; (b.) The relative; *I shall have written*.

We have thus the following distinctions and definitions: —

§ 209. TENSE is either *simple* or *continuous*.

SIMPLE TENSE expresses the predicate without respect to continuousness; as, *I wrote*.

CONTINUOUS TENSE expresses the predicate in the

aspect of continuousness, or as in progress; as, *I was writing*.

§ 210. TENSE, whether simple or continuous, is *Present, Past, or Future*.

The PRESENT TENSE presents the predicate as of the present time; as, *I write; I am writing*.

PAST TENSE has three distinctions, — *the Imperfect, the Perfect, and the Pluperfect*.

The IMPERFECT TENSE expresses the predicate as simply past; as, *I wrote; I was writing*.

The PERFECT TENSE expresses the predicate as past, and with a reference to the time of speaking; as, *I have written; I have been writing*.

The PLUPERFECT TENSE expresses the predicate as past, and with a reference to some past time; as, *I had written; I had been writing*.

FUTURE TENSE has two distinctions, called, respectively, *the Future, and the Future Perfect*.

The FUTURE TENSE expresses the predicate as simply future; as, *I shall write; I shall be writing*.

The FUTURE PERFECT TENSE expresses the predicate as future, but with a reference to some future time; as, *I shall have written; I shall have been writing*.

OBSERVATION. — If further modifications of time are to be expressed, recourse must be had to adverbials.

§ 211. The Simple Past tense, and also the Past Participle, appear in two forms: (1.) In the *Regular Form*, or what is sometimes called the *Weak Conjugation*; (2.) In the *Irregular Form*, or the *Strong Conjugation*.

§ 212. The Regular Form, or the Weak Conjugation adds *d*, generally with the connecting vowel *e*, to the simple form of the verb; as, *hear, imperfect heard; learn, learned*,

end, ended. If euphony requires, when the connecting vowel *e* is omitted, as is the case after all merely breathed or aspirated letters, the *d* becomes *t*; as, *sleep, slept*.

OBSERVATION. — The tendency in the language, and especially in this country, is to use the form in *d* or *ed*; and instead of such forms as *leant, learnt, tost, blent, dreamt, leapt, roast, dropt*, to write *leaned, learned, tossed, bleuded, dreamed, etc.*

The form in *t* is generally more ancient, and more energetic. It is generally to be preferred when the participle is used as a simple adjective, as in compounds; as, *tempest-tost*. In the following words it is still preferred: — *drest, dwelt, meant, slept, slit, smelt, spilt, split, sweat, swept, wept, wet, whet, wont*.

In the following both forms are used: *bended and bent; bereaved and bereft; blessed and blest; burned and burnt; gilded and gilt; girded and girt; kneeled and knelt; passed and past; penned and pent; rapped and rapt; wrapped and wrapt; reared and rest; spelled and spelt; spoiled and spoilt, worked and wrought*.

The following forms are found in late British writers of high reputation. They would hardly be admitted by correct writers on this side the Atlantic: *Establisht, cherishd, vanisht, polisht, pickt, triumpht, markt, checkt, outgallopt, promist, possessd*.

§ 213. The *Irregular*, sometimes called the *Strong Conjugation*, changes the vowel of the simple form to make the Imperfect and the Passive Participle; as, *drink, drank, drunk*.

In this conjugation, the Passive Participle is frequently formed by adding *n* or *en*; as, *rise, rose, risen*.

In many verbs the passive participle has two forms; one like the Imperfect and one in *n* or *d*; as, *awoke, awaked; besought, beseeched; got, gotten; beat, beaten; bid, bidden; bit, bitten; chid, chidden; cleft, cloven; eat, eaten; held, holden; rode, ridden; shrunk, shrunkn; struck, stricken; trod, trodden*.

Duplicate forms occur also in *d* and *n*; as, *graved, graven; hewed, heven; mowed, moon; proved, proven; rived, riven; sawed, sawn; shapd, shapen; shaved, shaven; sheared, shorn; shined, shone; showed, shown; slid, slidden; sowed, sown; strowed, strown; weaved, woven*.

§ 214. In the Inflection of Verbs, there are three forms upon which other forms are built. They are called *The Fundamental Forms*, or *The Principal Parts*. These are, —

1. *The Simple Present*; as, *love, hear, write*;
2. *The Simple Past, or Imperfect*; as, *loved, heard, wrot*.

3. *The Past, or Passive Participle*; as, *loved, heard, written*.

OBSERVATION. — The two last forms are derived from the Simple Present, and in the greater number of verbs the two are alike; as, Past, *moved*; Past Participle, *moved*.

§ 215. The Present Tense in the Indicative Mood appears in the simple form of the verb. It is varied to express person and number; as:—

<i>First Person Singular,</i>	love;
<i>Second “ “</i>	lovest;
<i>Third “ “</i>	loves.
<i>Plural in the three Persons,</i>	love.

§ 216. In the other Moods the auxiliaries are varied, but somewhat irregularly, to express Person; as,—

<i>First Person Singular,</i>	may, can, shall, will, must.
<i>Second “ “</i>	mayest, canst, shalt, wilt, must.
<i>Third “ “</i>	may, can, shall, will, must.
<i>Plural Forms,</i>	may, can, shall, will, must.

§ 217. The Imperfect Indicative is the Simple Past, varied to express person and number; as, *Singular, loved, lovedst, loved*; *Plural, loved*.

§ 218. In the other Moods, the forms of the auxiliaries are irregular.

<i>First Person Singular,</i>	might, could, should, would.
<i>Second “ “</i>	mightest, couldst, shouldst, wouldst.
<i>Third “ “</i>	might, could, should, would.
<i>Plural Forms,</i>	might, could, should, would.

OBSERVATION. — These forms are more commonly employed to express the contingent judgment without reference to past time; as, “*I might go, if I would,*” is equivalent to the forms expressing present time; as, “*I am able,*” or, “*I am permitted to go, if I wish.*” This is in accordance with the general fact in languages, that the forms of the Indicative Past are borrowed to express the contingent judgment; the determination of time being left to be gathered from the connection.

§ 219. The Perfect Tense in the Indicative Mood is

formed by the auxiliary, *have*, prefixed to the Past Participle; as, *I have loved*.

In the Potential Mood it prefixes the Potential auxiliaries *may* and *can* to the Indicative form; as, *I may have loved*; *I can have loved*.

§ 220. The Pluperfect Tense prefixes the forms of the Imperfect Tense of the auxiliary, *have*, to the Past Participle; as, *I had loved*; *I might have loved*; *I must have loved*.

§ 221. The Future Tense prefixes the Tense auxiliaries *shall* and *will* to the simple verb; as, *I shall love*; *he will love*.

§ 222. The Future Perfect Tense prefixes the Tense auxiliaries *shall* and *will* to the forms of the Perfect; as, *I shall have loved*; *he will have loved*.

§ 223. LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

OBSERVATION. — Those words in the list which are marked with an *r* have also the regular forms. The italicized forms are less in use.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am or be,	Was,	Been.
Awake, <i>r.</i>	Awoke,	Awaked.
Bear,	Bore, <i>bare,</i>	Borne.*
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend, <i>r.</i>	Bent,	Bent.
Bereave, <i>r</i>	Bereft,	Bereft.
Beseech,	Besought	Besought.
Bet, <i>r</i>	Bet,	Bet.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bidden, bid.
Bind,	Bound,	Bound
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.

* In the sense to *bring forth*, the passive participle of this verb is *born*, when not followed by the preposition *by*, and the agent expressed or understood.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke, <i>brake</i> ,	Broken, <i>broke</i>
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build, <i>r.</i>	Built,	Built.
Burn, <i>r.</i>	Burnt,	Burnt.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch, <i>r.</i>	Caught,	Caught.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, <i>chid.</i>
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave (adhere), <i>r.</i>	<i>Clave</i> ,	Cleaved.
Cleave (split),	Clove, cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	Cloven, cleft.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe, <i>r.</i>	Clad,	Clad.
Come, <i>be-, over-</i>	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow, <i>r.</i>	Crew,	Crowed
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare * (venture), <i>r.</i>	Durst,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt,	Dealt.
Dig, <i>r.</i>	Dug,	Dug.
Do,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream, <i>r.</i>	Dreamt,	Dreamt.
Drink,	Drank,	Drank, drunk.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell, <i>r.</i>	Dwelt,	Dwelt.
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten, <i>eat.</i>
Fall,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.

* *Dare*, to challenge, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight, <i>r.</i>	Freighted,	Fraught.
Get,	Got,	Got, <i>gotten.</i>
Gild,	Gilded, <i>gilt</i> ,	Gilded, <i>gilt.</i>
Gird, <i>r.</i>	Girt,	Girt.
Give,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave, <i>r.</i>	Graved,	Graven, <i>graved.</i>
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang, * <i>r.</i>	Hung,	Hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave, <i>r.</i>	Hove,	<i>Hoven.</i>
Hew, <i>r.</i>	Hewed,	Hewn.
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, <i>hid.</i>
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold,	Held,	Held, <i>holden.</i>
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel, <i>r.</i>	Knelt,	Knelt.
Knit, <i>r.</i>	Knit,	Knit.
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade (load), <i>r.</i>	Laded,	Laden.
Lay (to place), <i>in-</i>	Laid,	Laid.
Lead,	Led,	Led.
Lean, <i>r.</i>	<i>Leant</i> ,	<i>Leant.</i>
Leap, <i>r.</i>	Leapt,	Leapt.

* *Hang*, to take life, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie * (recline),	Lay,	Lain.
Light, <i>r.</i>	Lit,	Lit.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow, <i>r.</i>	Mowed,	Mown.
Pay,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen * (enclose), <i>r.</i>	Pent,	Pent.
Prove, <i>r.</i>	Proved,	<i>Proven.</i>
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit, <i>r.</i>	Quit,	Quit.
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode, <i>rid,</i>	Rode, ridden, <i>rid.</i>
Ring,	Rang, rung,	Rung.
Rise,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive, <i>r.</i>	Rived,	Riven.
Run,	Ran,	Run.
Saw, <i>r.</i>	Sawed,	Sawn.
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe, <i>r.</i>	<i>Sod,</i>	Sodden.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape, <i>r.</i>	Shaped,	Shapen.
Shave, <i>r.</i>	Shaved,	Shaven.

* *Lie*, to deceive, and *Pen*, to write, are regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Shear, <i>r.</i>	Sheared,	Shorn.
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine, <i>r.</i>	Shone,	Shone.
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show, <i>r.</i>	Showed,	Shown.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, shrank,	Shrunk, <i>shrunken.</i>
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, sung,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, sank,	Sunk.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide, <i>r.</i>	Slid,	Slidden, <i>slid.</i>
Sling,	Slung,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit, <i>r.</i>	Slit,	Slit.
Smell, <i>r.</i>	Smelt,	Smelt.
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, <i>smit.</i>
Sow (scatter), <i>r.</i>	Sowed,	Sown.
Speak, <i>be-</i>	Spoke, <i>spake,</i>	Spoken, <i>spoke.</i>
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell, <i>r.</i>	Spelt,	Spelt.
Spend,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill, <i>r.</i>	Spilt,	Spilt.
Spin,	Spun, <i>span,</i>	Spun.
Spit,*	Spit, <i>spat,</i>	Spit, <i>spitten.</i>
Split,	Split,	Split.
Spread,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, sprung,	Sprung.
Stand,	Stood,	Stood.
Stave, <i>r.</i>	Stove,	Stove.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.

* *Spit*, to put on a spit, is regular.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, <i>strid</i> ,	Stridden, <i>strid</i> .
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, <i>stricken</i> .
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow, <i>r.</i>	Strowed,	Strown.
Swear,	Swore, <i>sware</i> ,	Sworn.
Sweat, <i>r.</i>	Sweat,	Sweat.
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell, <i>r.</i>	Swelled,	Swollen.
Swim,	Swam, <i>swum</i> ,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take,	Took,	Taken.
Teach,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think, <i>be</i>	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive, <i>r.</i>	Throve,	Thriven.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, <i>trod</i> .
Wax (<i>grow</i>),	Waxed,	Waxed, <i>waxen</i> .
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven, <i>wove</i> .
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet, <i>r.</i>	Wet,	Wet.
Whet, <i>r.</i>	Whet,	Whetted.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound,	Wound.
Work, <i>r.</i>	Wrought,	Wrought.
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote, <i>writ</i> ,	Written, <i>writ</i> .

§ 224. The Irregular Verb To BE is thus inflected in the Indicative Mood:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.		
<i>Present, Am.</i>	<i>Past, Was.</i>	<i>Past Participle, Been.</i>

PRESENT TENSE.		
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person,</i>	I am,	1. We are,
<i>2d Person,</i>	{ You are, Thou art,	2. { You are, Ye are,
<i>3d Person,</i>	He is.	3. They are.

IMPERFECT TENSE.		
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1	I was,	1. We were,
2.	{ You were, Thou wast,	2. { You were, Ye were,
3.	He was.	3. They were.

PERFECT TENSE.		
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1.	I have been,	1. We have been,
2.	{ You have been, Thou hast been,	2. { You have been, Ye have been,
3.	He has been.	3. They have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.		
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1.	I had been,	1. We had been,
2.	{ You had been, Thou hadst been,	2. { You had been, Ye had been,
3.	He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.		
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1.	I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2.	{ You will be, Thou wilt be,	2. { You will be, Ye will be,
3.	He will be.	3. They will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I shall have been,
2. { You will have been,
 { Thou wilt have been,
3. He will have been.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We shall have been,
2. { You will have been,
 { Ye will have been,
3. They will have been.</p> |
|---|--|

§ 225. The Regular Verb To LOVE is thus inflected in the Indicative Mode, successive time.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I love,
2. { You love,
 { Thou lovest,
3. He loves.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We love,
2. { You love,
 { Ye love,
3. They love.</p> |
|---|---|

IMPERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I loved,
2. { You loved,
 { Thou lovedst,
3. He loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We loved,
2. { You loved,
 { Ye loved,
3. They loved.</p> |
|--|---|

PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I have loved,
2. { You have loved,
 { Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We have loved,
2. { You have loved,
 { Ye have loved,
3. They have loved.</p> |
|---|---|

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I had loved,
2. { You had loved,
 { Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We had loved,
2. { You had loved,
 { Ye had loved,
3. They had loved.</p> |
|--|---|

FUTURE TENSE.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I shall love,
2. { You will love,
 { Thou wilt love,
3. He will love.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We shall love,
2. { You will love,
 { Ye will love,
3. They will love.</p> |
|---|--|

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I shall have loved,
2. { You will have loved,
 { Thou wilt have loved,
3. He will have loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We shall have loved,
2. { You will have loved,
 { Ye will have loved,
3. They will have loved.</p> |
|---|--|

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I am loved,
2. { You are loved,
 { Thou art loved,
3. He is loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We are loved,
2. { You are loved,
 { Ye are loved,
3. They are loved.</p> |
|--|---|

IMPERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I was loved,
2. { You were loved,
 { Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We were loved,
2. { You were loved,
 { Ye were loved,
3. They were loved.</p> |
|--|---|

PERFECT TENSE.

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p><i>Singular.</i></p> <p>1. I have been loved,
2. { You have been loved,
 { Thou hast been loved,
3. He has been loved.</p> | <p><i>Plural.</i></p> <p>1. We have been loved,
2. { You have been loved,
 { Ye have been loved,
3. They have been loved.</p> |
|---|---|

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been loved,
2. { You had been loved,
Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved.

Plural.

1. We had been loved,
2. { You had been loved,
Ye had been loved,
3. They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall be loved,
2. { You will be loved,
Thou wilt be loved,
3. He will be loved.

Plural.

1. We shall be loved,
2. { You will be loved,
Ye will be loved,
3. They will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall have been loved,
2. { You will have been loved,
Thou wilt have been
loved,
3. He will have been loved,

Plural.

1. We shall have been loved,
2. { You will have been loved,
Ye will have been loved,
3. They will have been
loved.

§ 226. ORAL EXERCISES. *Indicate the Tenses in the following sentences, and also the Time, as continuous or successive:—*

I am writing. He walked two miles before he breakfasted. They drank too freely of iced water. We had not gone far before it began to rain. You will have seen him before you receive my letter. They have all forgotten their promise. He will not show himself to-day. He has built his house. They durst not deny it. They abode there six months. No one has begun. I besought him to go. The wind blew a hurricane. He had brought his friend with him. The storm will have caught him before he leaves the forest. It crept slyly up. He had driven the cattle under a shed. You will hit the mark if you aim well. She had knelt before the altar. I knew my lesson, before the clock

had struck. John had swept the hall. He won the prize. The veterans led the attack. A bitterness which the heart only knoweth; a joy with which a stranger intermeddled not. They will, certainly, when they see the consequences of what they have done, be sorry, and will, also, when they have opportunity, ask forgiveness. The ship was much strained by the storm, but it reached its port finally without loss. By the time this reaches you, the message will have been published. They had not been better instructed. The former colonies have been recognized as independent states.

Correct the faults in the following sentences:—

He has abided there a long time. They been here often. I had awoke and had arose from my bed before the bell rung. They begun wrong. I beseeched him not to do it. They blowed the trumpet long and loud. The police brung him to the station. She had caught a cold. Thompson was chose corporal. They come home an hour ago. The cat creeped up very softly. He done the job yesterday. He drawed his dagger. They drunk no cider. I had drove the sheep into the pasture. The boy had ate green apples, and had fell sick. The bird has forsook its nest. The stream was froze over. The horse had went home. The vine growed astonishingly last year. I have hearn tell. The vessel laid in the stream. He meaned well. I had no sooner rose from my bed, than the water run in streams over the floor. I had never saw such a sight before. The earthquake had shook down every house. He had showed all his wares. She has spoke but once. The man had stole two watches and had swore he was not guilty. Five were took prisoners. The soldiers had wore out their shoes and the captain had wrote for a fresh supply. From the drawer in which it had laid so long forgotten. I intended to have writ soon. The assembly had took a recess. The river had sank below ordinary low-water mark. The sale had fell off greatly. He had came some hours before. He had mistook

the word. You was there yesterday; and they been there to-day. The murderer was convicted by a jury, sentenced by the court, and hung by the sheriff.

§ 227. WRITTEN EXERCISES. Construct five sentences each containing one of the following verbs in Continuous Time:—

Five in the Imperfect Tense, Successive Time;

Five in the Perfect;

Five in the Pluperfect;

Five in the Future;

Five in the Future Perfect.

Obey; recedè; ransom; forget; buffet; travel; delay; reply; bear; begin; break; hew; forgive; wring; stick; strive; smite; seethe; shake; show; lie; fall; fell; teach; thrive; kneel; mow; seek; beseech; shear; shrink; fly; freeze; choose.

Construct five sentences each containing one of the Active Verbs in the above list expressed in the Passive Voice in each Tense.

CHAPTER V.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE BY ADVERBIALS. — ADVERBS.

§ 228. THE second way mentioned, § 202, in which the Predicate in itself may be modified, is by Adverbials.

An ADVERBIAL is a modifier of an attribute; as, "He is *strictly* honest;" "He acted *discreetly*;" "He acted in a *discreet* manner."

§ 229. The normal adverbial is a single word, and is called simply an *adverb*. Other predicate modifiers are called generally *adverbials*. They include *adverbial phrases* and *adverbial clauses*, as well as single words.

An ADVERB is the normal modifier of an attribute.

§ 230. Modifications of the Predicate may be of either of four kinds corresponding to the four classes of Attributes, — Qualities, Actions, Conditions, and Relations. It will be more convenient, however, and at the same time more in accordance with the general teachings of grammarians, to recognize but two general classes, — one embracing those of the internal attributes, qualities and actions, which may be called *adverbs of Property*; the other, embracing those of the external attributes, or those of condition and relation, called generally *adverbs of Relation*.

§ 231. Adverbial Modifiers are of two general classes:—

1. Those of *Property*;
2. Those of *Relation*.

§ 232. Predicate Modifiers of Property are of two kinds:—

1. *Manner*;
2. *Quality*.

§ 233. ADVERBIALS OF MANNER are grounded upon the internal attributes, or those of quality and action; as, *heavily, clearly, wisely, laughingly, intelligently*.

They answer the question, *How?*

§ 234. ADVERBIALS OF QUANTITY include those,—

1. Of *Amount*; as, *largely, richly, abundantly*.
2. Of *Extent*; as, *widely*.
3. Of *Frequency*; as, *often, once, seldom*.
4. Of *Intensity*; as, *vehemently*.

They answer the question *How much?* as applied to magnitude, content, number, and degree.

§ 235. ADVERBIALS OF RELATION are of four kinds:—

1. Of *Condition*;
2. Of *Comparison*;
3. Of *Dependence*;
4. Of *Order*.

§ 236. ADVERBIALS OF CONDITION include those:—

1. Of *Time*, present, past, and future, and also successive and continuous; as, *now, then, when, formerly, hereafter, repeatedly, meanwhile*.
2. Of *Space*, absolutely, as, *there, here*; and relatively, as, *hence, hither, whence*.

§ 237. Adverbials of Comparison respect relations to other predicates; as, *equally, subordinately*: "He ate *excessively*," that is, as compared with what he should eat; "They fought *most gallantly*," that is, as compared with other fighting.

§ 238. ADVERBIALS OF DEPENDENCE include those which respect the relation,—

1. Of *cause and effect*; as, *hence, thence*;

2. Of *reason and consequent*; as, *therefore, consequently*;
3. Of *motive or aim, and result or object*; as, "He labors *for fame*;"

4. Of *means and end*, in the three just mentioned relations; as, "The stream was crossed *by a raft*;" "The tree is known *by its fruits*."

OBSERVATION.—There are no normal adverbs of the last two varieties.

§ 239. Adverbs of Order include the proper Ordinal Adverbs; as, *first, secondly, thirdly*, etc.; and also such as, *next, further, furthermore, again, finally*.

SCHEME OF ADVERBIAL PREDICATE MODIFIERS:—I. In whole, or Proper; II. In respect to parts.

Proper Predicate Modifiers:—I. Adverbs; II. Adverbials.

I. Property:

1. *Manner*.
2. *Quantity*; (a.) amount; (b.) extent; (c.) frequency; (d.) intensity.

II. Relation:

1. *Condition*; (a.) Time, successive, continuous; present, past, future; (b.) Place, in, to, and from.
2. *Comparison*.
3. *Dependence*; (a.) cause and effect; (b.) reason and consequent; (c.) motive and result; (d.) means.
4. *Order*; place, time.

§ 240. Some adverbs are relatively modified by means of grammatical comparison in a way similar to that of adjectives, by adding *r* or *er* for the comparative, and *st* or *est* for the superlative; as, *soon, sooner, soonest*.

They are also relatively modified by the auxiliaries of comparison, *more, most*; *less, least*; as, *more probably, most probably*; *less probably, least probably*.

OBSERVATION.—The following are irregular:—*Far, farther, farthest, with, further, furthest*; *ill, worse, worst*; *little, less, least*; *much, more, most*; *well, better, best*.

§ 241. Adverbs of Property are readily formed from adjectives by adding the suffix *-ly* (= like), subject of course to the laws of word-formation. See Introduction, Chapter ix. Examples: *Joyful-ly, great-ly, late-ly, happy-ly, gay-ly, dry-ly*.

Some adverbs are old genitives or possessives in *s* or *es*,

now in some cases written *ce* or *se*, and in a few words passing into *st*; as, denoting Quantity, *once, twice, thrice*; denoting Condition; as, *else, hence, thence, whence, since, besides, midships, unawares, inwards, afterwards, sideways, whiles, whilst, always, betimes, sometimes.*

Some adverbs are compounds of original nouns and prepositions; as, *a-shore, a-foot, a-thirst, to-day, be-sides, in-deed, up-stairs, under-hand.*

Other parts of speech are used in their own proper forms as adverbs. Thus Nouns, by the omission of the preposition; as, "He went *home yesterday*," equivalent to *to home on yesterday*; Adjectives, as "Drink *deep*;" "Dripping *wet*;" Verbs, as, "*Whiz* went the arrow."

§ 242. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Adverbials and the Adverbs in the following sentences, and in the first extract in the Appendix No. VII.; indicate also to which class they belong, and name the predicate which they modify:—*

We were clearly and particularly shown how the work was done. The birds sing sweetly. We often resolve; we rarely fulfill. Still waters are commonly deepest. He has been much deceived. They have been long absent. He spoke with a clear and full voice. They showed us the work with much patience. He was here yesterday, and will return to-day at two o'clock. He labored excessively upon his task; it was therefore well done. On all occasions she behaved with propriety. Mentally and physically we are curiously and wonderfully formed. The task is already more than half done. First, I am to show the nature, and, secondly, the importance of this virtue. I shall for that reason warmly befriend him.

§ 243. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct five sentences with predicates modified by Adverbials, and five by Adverbs of manner.*

Five each by Adverbials and Adverbs of quantity.

Five each by Adverbs of condition.

Five each by those of comparison.

Five each by those of dependence.

Five each by those of order.

CHAPTER VI.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE IN ITS PARTS SEPARATELY AND IN RESPECT OF OBJECT.

§ 244. A PREDICATE may be modified in its parts in two ways. Either, (1.) *Simply*, as the parts are taken each by itself; or, (2.) *Relatively*, as the parts are taken in their relations to one another.

§ 245. Both Concrete and Abstract Predicates may be modified in their parts separately: a concrete by an adjective; as, "Alexander was a *generous* conqueror;" an abstract by an adverbial; as, "Alexander treated his conquered enemies *generously*."

§ 246. A predicate is modified in its parts, taken separately, in various ways, according to the nature of the parts themselves.

A part of a predicate when an object of thought is modified like an object of thought; as, "Agriculture, is *an honorable* calling." See Chapter ii., §§ 172-192.

A part of a predicate when a modifier, is modified, like the predicate taken as a whole, by adverbials; as, "Alexander treated his enemies conquered by *his prowess* generously."

Adverbials, further, are modified by other adverbials; as, "He acted *very* strangely;" "He is pleased *precisely* in that degree in which he ought."

§ 247. Predicates denoting action or relation necessarily imply an object. But this object may be expressed or not; and, if expressed, it may be either immediate and direct, or

not. Grammarians have, accordingly, distinguished those verbs which have an object that is immediate and direct as *Transitive*, while those verbs which either have no object expressed or necessarily implied in the form of the sentence, or have only an object that is remote and indirect, they have denominated *Intransitive*. Thus in the sentence, "John strikes the ground," *strikes* is a transitive verb, for it is followed by the immediate object, *ground*. But in the sentence, "John leaps upon the horse," *leaps* is intransitive, for the object is represented only as remote and indirect. Generally, if the object be immediate and direct, it follows the verb without a preposition; if remote and indirect, a preposition is introduced; and, conversely, if there be no preposition following the verb, the verb is to be regarded as transitive; if there be, it is intransitive. The only exception is that the remote object is sometimes placed without a preposition between the verb and the immediate object; as, "John gave *him* the book."

Any verb that can take an immediate object, except perhaps a proper factitive verb, may be used intransitively, that is, may be used with no such object expressed or necessarily implied in the form of the sentence. In other words, it is not necessary in the case of any verb always to modify the action in respect of the kind of object which it respects. The verb *to give*, thus, is as necessarily transitive as any, except proper factitive verbs; but it may be used intransitively; as, "He that *giveth*, let him do it with simplicity." On the other hand, grammarians teach that any intransitive verb, except the verb *to be* used as a mere copula word, may take an immediate and direct object that specifies the kind of action expressed; as, "John *runs* a race."

A Transitive verb differs, therefore, from an Intransitive verb in this respect; it may be followed by an object that is external to the action expressed by the verb, and that is also immediate and direct. An Intransitive verb is one that either takes no object external to the action of the verb, or

takes an object that only defines or limits the kind of action meant more specifically in respect of the action itself, not in respect of the object of the action.

A Transitive verb that is followed by no object or only by a remote or specifying object, is said to be used intransitively.

§ 248. A TRANSITIVE VERB is one that may be limited by an immediate object external to the action denoted by the verb; as, "John gave the book."

An INTRANSITIVE VERB is one that cannot be limited by an immediate object external to the action denoted by the verb; as, "John runs;" "He lives a quiet life."

OBSERVATION. — The possible views that may be taken of a predicate when an action or relation in respect of modification, are as follows:—

1. It may be without modification; as, "The sun shines."
2. It may be modified in respect to Quality, or Condition; as, "The sun shines brightly in the heavens."
3. It may be modified in respect to the kind of action or relation; as, "John runs a hard race;" the modifier here being a noun without a preposition, and appropriately called the *specifying object*.
4. It may be modified in respect to the object which the action or relation properly and immediately regards or aims at; as, "John strikes the ground." This is called the *passive object*.
5. It may be modified in respect to a remoter recipient of the action; as, "John gave the book to me." This is called the *remote object*.
6. It may be modified in respect to effect or result; as, "He gave the book to me for study." This is the *object of result*.
7. Still further, the action may be viewed in the relation of its effect upon another action or effect; as, "John makes his brother beat the ground;" "He calls his dog Carlo;" "He brushes his clothes clean." This relation is called the *Factitive* relation, and the object, in reference to which the verb is modified, is called the *factitive object*; *beat the ground, Carlo, and clean*, being the factitive objects in these several sentences.

This factitive modification of the verb is in some cases effected by a change in the word itself. Thus, *to fall, to lay, to raise, to set*, are factitives of *to fall, to lie, to rise, to sit*.

Factitives are formed from adjectives or participles, chiefly by adding the suffix *en*; as, *to deep-en, to red-den, = to make deep, to make red*.

They are, also, represented by other verbs; as, *to teach, to remind = to cause to learn, to cause to remember*.

The factitive modification is, also, expressed in full by appropriate words.

to, to cause, make, occasion, compel, force, constrain, oblige; determine, judge; name, call, denominate, proclaim, pronounce.

Intransitive verbs, moreover, are used factitively; as "He ran himself out;" "I sang myself hoarse;" "It cried itself to sleep."

If the effect is another action, this factitive modification is by a verb; as, "He made him speak."

If it is another thing, the factitive modification is by a noun; as, "He made him a slave."

If it is in an attribute, the factitive modification is by an adjective-attribute; as, "He painted the box blue."

The same action may be modified in more or less of these different ways in the same sentence; as, "In his cell he ingeniously represented himself to the government as a victim of malice for its compassion." *In his cell*, modifying in respect of condition; *ingeniously*, of quality; *himself a victim*, factitively; *to the government*, as remote object; *for its compassion*, as object of result.

When the modification is by *specifying object*; as, "John gave him a valuable gift of a watch." this object itself may be further modified, in the proper modes of modifying an object of thought; as, in this example, by the adjective *valuable*, and also by the adjunct *of a watch*.

The specifying object and the passive object of an action, are often expressed together after a certain class of verbs; as, "He taught the dog letters;" "He asked John a question."

They may either of them be properly made the subjects in the passive voice of the verb; while the other remains as modifying object; as, "John was asked the question;" "The question was asked John."

The remote object cannot, thus, be made the subject in the passive voice.

When an action is to be modified by both specifying and passive objects, the one placed last is often expressed with the help of a preposition; as, "He struck a decisive blow upon his adversary's flank;" or, "He struck his adversary's flank by a decisive blow."

In like manner, a remote object which might be placed immediately after the verb without a preposition takes the preposition if placed after the immediate object; as, "He gave me the best of the fruit;" but "He gave the best of the fruit to me."

In such expressions as "and trip it as you go," it is to be regarded as a specifying object, and having its antecedent implied in the action of the verb.

§ 249. Verbs are modified in respect to their object in the following different ways:—

1. By a *specifying object*; as, "John runs a race;" "He strikes a blow;" "He gave a gift;"
2. By a *passive object*; as "John strikes the ground;"
3. By a *remote object*; as, "John runs to the goal;" "John gave her his book;"

4. By an object of *result*; as, "He runs for the prize;" "He went to see his friend;"

5. By a *factive* object:—

(1.) *Of effect*; as, "He made his brother remember his kindness;"

(2.) *Of kind*; as, "He made his brother his partner;"

(3.) *Of attribute*; as, "He made his brother rich."

§ 250. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the words expressing objects of action in the following sentences, and state to which class of objects they respectively belong:—*

Tell me thy name. Bring me the book. He taught John arithmetic. He painted a fine picture and sang a good song. They sold the house for a large sum of money. He lived a long life. He dealt him a heavy blow. The government made him treasurer. Esteeming him judicious and faithful. The people chose Virginius and Pomponius tribunes. He painted his house white. They pronounced him at first an impostor, but he proved himself honest. We account the wise man happy. He asked me a question. He took them all prisoners. He made his tent a palace. I have fought a good fight. He fought the enemy valiantly. They fought for glory. They deem him a false pretender. They brought him a sword. And now she sits her down and weeps. Slow tolls the village clock the drowsy hour. Franklin considered the word to have sprung up during his residence in Europe.

CHAPTER VII.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE COPULA — MOOD.

§ 251. THE COPULA may be modified absolutely in itself, or relatively to the Subject and the Copula.

§ 252. It is modified relatively to the subject only in respect to its form to show to what subject it belongs; in other words, only in number and person; as, "I am dependent;" "He is sovereign;" "They are subject."

§ 253. It is modified relatively to the predicate only in form, in being combined with it. See § 163.

§ 254. The copula is modified absolutely or in itself only in two general ways: (1.) In degree or intensity: (2.) In kind. See Appendix No V.

§ 255. The copula is modified in degree only by modals; as, "The report is *certainly* true;" "The sun *clearly* has risen." § 170.

OBSERVATION.—It is obvious that *certainly* and *clearly* in the examples given do not modify the predicates *true* and *has risen*. An enumeration of the modals of intensity will be given with that of the modals of kind (§ 313).

§ 256. The copula is modified in kind in two general ways: (1.) As necessary. (2.) As contingent. But both of these modes of the copula may be further sub-modified.

§ 257. The various modes of the copula are expressed in language in two ways: (1.) By inflection. (2.) By modals.

§ 258. The modes of the copula expressed by inflection, are called in grammar the *moods* of the verb.

DEFINITION. — MOOD in Grammar is the mode of the copula or asserting element of the sentence as expressed by inflection. Or more briefly: MOOD is the inflected mode of the copula.

OBSERVATION. — There are as many moods in a language as there are inflected forms of the verb distinguishing it as to the mode of the copula. The number and kind of moods vary in different languages. The contingent copula is sub-modified in most languages; as they have a special inflection to mark its modification by the will. This is called the imperative mood.

We have thus in the English language the four forms of the copula expressed by special inflections, and, consequently, so many moods: 1. The unmodified form; 2. The necessary form; 3. The contingent generally; 4. The imperative form. The second form, that expressing the necessary copula, has received no distinctive name, probably because the classical languages had no special form for it but made use of the so-called subjunctive with modals or principal verbs expressing necessity. But in English we have a special form in the use of the auxiliary *must*.

§ 259. There are in English four moods: the Indicative; the Necessary; the Potential; and the Imperative.

§ 260. The Indicative Mood expresses the assertion as unmodified. Or, the Indicative Mood is the unmodified form of the copula; as, "The sun *shines*."

OBSERVATION. — The Indicative Mood is often represented as expressing *reality*. But, strictly speaking, reality belongs only to the matter of thought; not to the thought itself; not, accordingly, to the copula. The definition of this mood, that it "simply declares or indicates," must be interpreted as: emphasizing the adverb *simply*, so as to make the definition mean that it asserts *simply*, that is, without modification. See Appendix No. V. For the inflections of the verb *to be*, in the Indicative Mood, see § 224; of the Regular verb, § 225.

§ 261. The forms of the Indicative are: —

1. The Affirmative; (1.) Simple; as, "The sun *shines*;" (2.) Emphatic; "The sun *does shine*;"
2. The Negative; (1.) Simple; as, "The sun *shines not*;" (2.) Emphatic; as, "The sun *does not shine*;"
3. The Affirmative-Interrogative; as, "Does the sun *shine*?"

4. The Negative-Interrogative; as, "Does not the sun *shine*?"

OBSERVATION 1. — The second and third persons singular of the auxiliary *do*, are now more commonly written *doest* and *doeth*; while the verb, when used as a principal verb, makes *doest* and *doeth* in these persons. This distinction, however, was not early introduced into our language.

OBSERVATION 2. — The form with the auxiliary *do* is now used: —

1. In affirmative propositions, only for emphasis. Formerly it was common in poetry; now, it admissible at all, it is only by a license allowed to the necessities of poetry. The use of it implies a weakness in the power to express.

2. In interrogative and negative propositions generally; as, "Does the sun *shine*?" "Does not the sun *shine*?" "The sun *does not shine*."

§ 262. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the varieties of the Indicative Mood in the following sentences: —*

The leaves fall from their boughs. Great actions encourage greater. I have professed me thy friend. What a ready tongue suspicion hath? Specious names are often used to shelter vice. Each present joy or sorrow seems the chief. I am not covetous of gold. Old men do prophesy upon it. Are you serious in your question? Do you mean the copula of a judgment? Have you not marked, when he entered, how the multitude retired at his approach? The seasons came and went. There have not been wanting trivial minds to mark this as a fault in his character. Did ye not hear it? No! 't was but the wind. It is accomplished. The deed is done. What means this martial array? Will he make a covenant with thee? Gavest thou the goodly wings unto the peacock? Hath the rain a father? Or who hath begotten the drops of dew? Hast thou perceived the breadth of the earth? Dost thou know the balancings of the clouds? He does not act wisely in this. Do you think nothing of the families which are left behind? Doth God exact day-labor, light denied? God doth not need either man's work or his own gifts.

§ 263. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct five sentences, each expressing an Affirmative Simple Judgment;*

Five expressing an Affirmative Emphatic Judgment,
Five expressing a Negative Simple Judgment;
Five expressing a Negative Emphatic Judgment;
Five expressing an Affirmative Interrogative Judgment;
Five expressing a Negative Interrogative Judgment.

§ 264. THE NECESSARY MOOD expresses the assertion modified as necessary; as, "The sun *must* shine."

The only form of this mood in English is the inflection with the auxiliary *must*, which is now never used as a principal verb.

§ 265. THE POTENTIAL MOOD expresses the assertion modified as contingent. Or the Potential Mood expresses the contingent form of the copula; as, "The sun *may* rise;" "It *were* a great pity;" "Would he *were* here."

OBSERVATION. — Contingent Judgments may be sub-modified by uniting with the Pure Judgment either a desire or a determination of the will. We have, thus, the distinction of Contingent Judgments into, —

1. *Pure*; expressing a pure contingent judgment;
2. *Optative*; expressing a judgment modified by wish or desire;
3. *Concessive*; expressing a judgment modified by permissive will.

Thus when I say, "Heaven may smile on their endeavor," I express a mere contingent judgment; that it is possible Heaven may smile, not necessarily implying any wish or permission on my part. When I say, "May Heaven smile," I express the judgment embodied in a wish or desire. I may, moreover, express my will in the form of allowance or concession; as, "John may go now, for he has finished his task."

These various forms of the Contingent Judgment may be still further modified. The Pure Contingent Judgment may be modified by uniting with the mere judgment an indication of its ground in the very relation of the subject to the predicate. When I say, "John is recovering fast; he can walk out," I not only express a judgment of the possibility of John's walking, but I also express the ground of the possibility, namely, his own strength or ability. When I say, "I withdraw my prohibition; John may go," I express, besides the mere contingent judgment, also its ground, the allowance of my will. These distinctions are expressed in our language by the use of different forms.

The Optative Form may also be modified according as the wish it expresses is mere wish, or is a prayer.

The Concessive Form may also be modified, according as the judgment is rather a *concession*, or a *permission*; an allowance to have or hold, or an allowance to do or act.

This form borders closely on the Imperative. Both forms express contingent judgments, and both judgments modified by will. The only difference is that in the Imperative the will seems to predominate over the judgment rather than merely to modify it; the judgment is lost in the overpowering expression of will, of purpose, determination; — the expression is peremptory. We find, accordingly, in many languages, the potential forms used for the first and third persons of the Imperative. In like manner, permission and concession, as well as exhortation, freely borrow the Imperative; and softened command takes the milder form of the Potential.

§ 266. The Potential Mood is expressed in two ways: —

1. By the forms of the Imperfect Tense; as, "He *were* a fool if he accepts the offer;"
2. By the auxiliaries *may* and *can*; *might*, *could*; *would*, *should*.

OBSERVATION. — It is to be remarked that in this use of the forms of the Imperfect to express a contingent judgment, the proper tense-signification of the form is dropped, as in the sentence, "He *were* a fool if he accepts the offer," the word *were*, although of the form of the Imperfect, has no reference to past time.

This Imperfect form of the potential was formerly much more in use than at present. It is more energetic than the form with auxiliaries, and is found more in poetry; and also appears in some popular expressions, which grammarians have ignorantly condemned. "I had rather walk than ride," is equivalent to, "I would rather have walking than riding;" *had* being the imperfect used to express a contingent judgment, and equivalent to *would have*. So, "I had as lief," "I had as soon," are exemplifications of the proper potential. The object of "had" in such cases was once expressed in the infinitive, without the modern sign *to*, which the infinitive formerly did not take. "Had as lief go" was thus as grammatical as "Make him go," "Bid him follow."

These potential forms have a slightly diverse significance. The imperfect forms are only a more energetic form than *would*. They express a contingent judgment in the purest form, and without reference to the subject.

May points to a contingency that is extrinsic to the subject; while *can* points to one that is intrinsic to the subject; as, "John *may* go" implies that external hindrances are removed; "John *can* go," that he has *his* himself ability to go.

Would expresses primarily a reference to a contingency intrinsic to the

subject; and *should*, to one extrinsic, as of external obligation or necessity. When used as potential auxiliaries, they retain something of this primary distinction, as is the case when they are used as tense auxiliaries. Thus, "He should show mercy if he would obtain mercy;" "He would show mercy if he wished mercy."

The contingent copula modified by desire expressed in what has been called the optative mood, is expressed rather by the imperfect form and the auxiliary *may*. It also transposes the sentence; as, "O *were* he still alive!" "May Heaven reward him."

In the sentence "Would God I had died for thee," we have a true optative form in the use of the Imperfect *would*. It expresses a desire that God had willed David's death rather than Absalom's, *God* being the grammatical subject of *would*.

The uninflected form of the verb was formerly used to express contingency; and this use is retained in more familiar and colloquial expressions; as, —

"Go not my horse the better,
I must become a borrower of the night." — *Shakespeare*.

"Be this as it may, his works at first enjoyed a very small share of popularity." — *Macaulay*.

Go and *be* in these quotations both express contingent judgments.

§ 267. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the varieties of Contingent Judgments as Pure, Optative, and Concessive in the following sentences: —*

Many poets may be found who have condescended to the cares of economy.

The most busy man cannot always be occupied with business.

May thy best blessings ever last!

He who would think the "Færie Queene" childish and romantic, might relish Pope.

Between the periods of birth and burial, I would fain insert a little happiness, a little pleasure, a little peace; to-day is ours, yesterday is past, and to-morrow may never come.

We may observe that great power and strength exerted always raise sublime ideas.

He can live to God and his own soul, and at the same time attend to all the lawful pursuits of the present world.

You may believe I entirely disagreed with him.

I would therefore exhort you earnestly. For who would slander him?

"And I, perhaps, may soothe this heart,
In thinking too of thee;
Yet there was round thee such a dawn
Of light ne'er seen before,
As fancy never could have drawn,
And never can restore."

Could Mr. Hastings have been condemned to infamy for writing this book?

But this error might, perhaps, arise from a want of due attention to the foundations of human judgment.

We should do well to translate this word *war* into language more intelligible to us.

By my counsel, we were best put back again, and tell the earl what we have seen.

May it please your grace.

Such a man were one for whom a woman's heart should beat constant while he breathes, and break when he dies.

Death better were; death did he oft desire.

Would God it were even.

I would there were a sword in my hand.

O that there were such a heart in them.

O that thou wert as my brother.

A man might have all these qualities and yet not be Hotspur.

We should expect that the corruption of poetry would commence in the educated classes of society.

It could not possibly have been missed much longer by the most heedless inquirer.

We should subject our fancies to the government of reason.

Almost all difficulties may be overcome by diligence.

That were against me.

Hume's History, be its faults what they may, is now one great entire work.

He were no lion, were not Romans hind.
Heaven hinder that such a one, etc.

§ 268. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Construct five sentences each expressing a judgment asserting a possible event;*

Five with a judgment expressing a wish or desire;

Five with one expressing a concession or permission;

Two sentences showing that the contingency expressed respects the ability of the subject;

Two showing that the contingency depends on something else than the subject.

§ 269. The IMPERATIVE MOOD expresses the assertion modified as peremptory will; or, expresses command.

It is expressed in the form of the uninflected verb when its subject is in the second person, and by the imperative auxiliary *let*, when its subject is in the first or the third person; as, *Go! Depart!* "*Let there be light;*" "*Let us go.*"

OBSERVATION 1. — The word *let* is still used as a principal verb. A close attention will hence often be necessary in order to determine whether it is used as a mere imperative auxiliary or in its primitive meaning as a principal verb. Thus, "*Let the man go,*" is ambiguous; for *let* may be regarded as a verb in the imperative mood, equivalent to *permit*, and thus be in the second person; or as an auxiliary of *go*, with *man* as the subject.

Some grammarians recognize no imperative in the first and third persons; and accordingly regard *let* in such expressions as the above as always in the second person. There is yet nothing in the nature of the case that forbids the subject of the imperative mood being in either person. Still, as the person addressed would be the most natural subject in cases of uttered will or command, the imperative primitively and more frequently appears in the second person. The first person would rarely be the subject of command; this person of the word is accordingly more commonly expressed by borrowed forms of language, as by the proper potential, as in the Latin *eamus*, Italian *andiamo*, let us go. The third person is more common; as, "*Be it so.*" Latin, "*Ne quis emat,*" let no one buy. Moreover, the proper potential is a milder expression than the short imperative form.

OBSERVATION 2. — The imperative judgment readily borrows the auxiliaries of future time, *shall* and *will*. Or, more correctly, these forms, *shall* and *will*, originally principal verbs, have been used for both these purposes, to

express *will* and also future time. *Shall* has ceased to be used as a principal verb; but *will* is still so used; as, "The gift though small *will* thou receive," where *will* is in the imperative mood, and is equivalent to *be willing*. The double use of both words as auxiliaries both of mood and of time, renders care necessary in order to avoid ambiguity. We see the blunder from confounding them in the familiar story of the drowning man who is represented as crying out, "I will be drowned; nobody shall help me," instead of saying as he meant, "I shall be drowned; nobody will help me." In the one case the judgment, the copula, is modified by the auxiliary; in the other, the predicate is so modified. In the one case we have the determination of the speaker expressed; in the other, simple futurity, with no respect to him as determining it to be so. The confusion is a common one in certain localities, and is marked as a provincial barbarism or impropriety, for it may be regarded as either.

To repeat the principle regulating the use of these auxiliaries; *Will* properly and generally expresses a modified judgment with the first person, but futurity with the second and third persons;

Shall properly and generally expresses a modified judgment with the second and third persons, but futurity with the first.

Would and *should* are distinguished in a similar way.

The principle, however, does not hold good in interrogative sentences nor in clauses; as, "*Shall* thou be there?" "I will see that he *shall* not want." Simple futurity is expressed in these examples.

§ 270. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the different varieties of judgments in the following sentences, naming the respective Moods: —*

We cannot be happy but in the society of one another.

"His heart, from cruel sport estranged, would bleed
To work the woe of any living thing."

Look round and survey the various beauties of the globe.
Reflections like these would not allow me to despair.

"O guide me to the humble cell
Where Resignation loves to dwell."

Whoever would be really happy must make the regular and diligent exercise of his superior powers his chief attention.

But who the melodies of morn can tell?

"He has been at Mecca," says one; "you may see that by his clothes."

I would that ye all spake with tongues.

How enchanting must have been the day-dreams of a mind thus endowed.

But why should I his childish feats display?

Who, some say, shall rule the land hereafter, which God hinder.

'Too faithful heart! thou never canst retrieve
Thy withered hopes; conceal the cruel pain.'

Let me, therefore, exhort my opponents to take this subject into their most serious consideration.

We must not conceive, however, that habit is powerful only in strengthening evil.

That benevolence is in itself virtuous, may, indeed, appear to require proof.

"He could call spirits from the vasty deep," and they would come.

If fortune had turned him into a field of clover, he would have lain down and rolled in it.

"Bright may the sacred touch remain
And cheer thee till we meet again."

Thou shalt do no murder.

In a rural retirement, what could I do in the winter evenings, when no society interrupted, but read or write?

"O, sir, but my father may go free?" earnestly asked Grace.

But these men, it may be said, were only deep thinkers. The seal is set; now welcome, thou dread power!

"Light be the turf of thy tomb!
May its verdure like emeralds be.
There should not be the shadow of gloom
In aught that reminds us of thee."

You must not even expect that he will be what you are now.

In short, you must not attempt to enlarge your ideas, or polish your taste, or refine your sentiments; but must keep on in one beaten track, without turning aside either to the right hand or to the left. "But I cannot submit to drudg-

ery like this. I feel a spirit above it." 'Tis well; be above it then; only do not repine that you are not rich.

Is knowledge the pearl of price? That too may be purchased by steady application, and long, solitary hours of study and reflection. Bestow these, and you shall be wise.

God help us! what a poor world this would be, 'twere the true doctrine.

Launch thy bark, mariner!

Make me an outcast — a beggar; place me a barefooted pilgrim on the top of the Alps or the Pyrennees.

'Come, Disappointment, come!
Gently, most gently on thy victim's head,
Consumption, lay thine hand! Let me decay
Like the expiring lamp, unseen away,
And softly go to slumber with the dead.'

The principal virtues and vices of a woman must be of a private and domestic kind.

Let young men be kept at the greatest distance from bad company.

"O send her sure, her steady ray
To regulate my doubtful way."

I only bow and say, "My God, thy will be done."

Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself.

'Tis no use talking to me, mother, I will go to Mrs. P.'s party to-night, if I die for it.

What method had he best take?

He had better return early.

§ 271. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct five sentences expressing Unmodified Judgments;*

Five expressing Contingent Judgments of each variety and of each form.

PART IV.—ABNORMAL FORMS.

CHAPTER I.

CHARACTER AND DIVISIONS OF ABNORMAL FORMS.

§ 272. THE forms of language in which the various kinds of thought are expressed are of two kinds, called *Normal* and *Abnormal*.

OBSERVATION 1.—For all the special forms of thought we do not find provision of appropriate forms of speech in language. Recourse is consequently had to borrowing. Forms, in other words, provided for one use are employed for other uses having no forms appropriated to them. We have thus forms that may be called *normal*, that is, regular forms, and those that are *abnormal*, irregular. It must not be supposed that the distinction is absolutely exact and unvarying. Some forms might, with certain objects in view, be reckoned as normal, while, with other objects, they might properly be regarded as abnormal. The use of a proper verb-form for an object of thought, that is, the use of a clause instead of a noun, we may regard as ever abnormal; while the use of a participial to limit a noun may be regarded in one view as normal, in another view as abnormal. It will be most convenient for the study of the English language to regard all nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, modals, expressed in single words or with the aid of auxiliaries, and employed for the proper uses of these several parts of speech, as normal; and to treat other forms as abnormal. Participles may, with a seeming propriety, be treated as belonging to the abnormal class, as they are verb-forms used as adjectives; although in use wellnigh as common and familiar as adjectives themselves. The Compound Sentence, Chap. ix., and the Complex Sentence, Chap. x., will, also, not inadmissibly, be treated under this head, as not the normal form of the Sentence proper. When, likewise, the feeling predominates over the thought in the expression, the sentence takes on an abnormal form, as in the Emotive Sentence, Chap. xi.

This distinction, which we have indicated by the terms *normal* and *abnormal*, might not inappropriately perhaps be indicated by the terms *grammatical* and *logical*. Thus a single word denoting an object of thought might be called indifferently a normal or a grammatical noun; while if the object were expressed by several words it would be an abnormal or logical

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noun. While there is a difference in import and use in these two sets of terms, they very often may be used equally well to mark the distinction here spoken of—that of primitive regularity and irregularity in the form of expression.

OBSERVATION 2.—For aiding in the expression of the thought, recourse is often had in language to the use of words which originally express objects or attributes, but which, in the progress of language, become appropriated to this particular purpose of helping out the supply when normal forms are deficient. They come thus in some cases to lose their proper original significance, and subserve only the new use for which they are borrowed. Such words are called *Form-words*, or *Relative Words*, to distinguish them from words expressing notions or modifications of notions which are called *Notion-words*, or *Principal words*. A general view of *Form-words* is given in Chapter vii. of the Introductory Exercises, §§ 60-66.

§ 273. Words are of two classes according as they do or do not of themselves signify some subject or attribute, or a modification of such subject or attribute.

Notion-words denote a subject or attribute, or a modification of a subject or attribute. They include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Form-words do not of themselves denote a subject or attribute, or a modification of a subject or attribute, but are used to denote relations of notion-words or modifications of them by thought or feeling.

OBSERVATION.—Some words, originally notion-words denoting subjects or predicates, have come to be used as mere expressions of the copula. Such are *is*, *contain*, *equal*, etc. But it is deemed unnecessary to cumber an elementary treatise with this distinction beyond this general indication of it

§ 274. *Form-words* are of the following classes:—

1. Those that indicate relations of objects of thought, called *Prepositions*;
2. Those that indicate relations of thought, called *Conjunctions*;
3. Those that help out inflections, called *Auxiliaries*;
4. Those that indicate some rhetorical relation, called *Expletives*;
5. Those that indicate the thought to be determined or shaped by some feeling, called *Interjections*.

§ 275. *Form-words*, themselves, may be distinguished as

normal or abnormal. Thus we have normal prepositions, as *in, at, over*; and normal conjunctions, as *and, but, because*. We have prepositions that may be regarded as abnormal, as *concerning, notwithstanding, according to, by reason of, for the sake of*; so abnormal conjunctions, as, *if so be that, inasmuch as*.

§ 276. Prepositions with their nouns form that kind of phrases called by grammarians *Adjuncts*.

An **ADJUNCT** is a phrase consisting of a preposition and the noun denoting its object; as, "Love *of gold*;" "He went *to Rome*."

OBSERVATION. — One adjunct may include in itself another adjunct as a *sub-modifier*: as "In this mansion *of distress*."

CHAPTER II.

ABNORMAL FORMS OF THE NOUN. — SUBJECTS. — PREDICATES.

§ 277. THERE are three classes of abnormal nouns used as subjects or generally to denote objects of thought: —

1. Adjective words, used to denote objects of thought;
2. Verb-forms;
3. Marks or signs of objects.

§ 278. Adjectives with the article *the* are used as nouns; as, "*The vicious* fall into trouble;" "*The more modest* are generally *the more deserving*;" "He hath given to *the poor*."

OBSERVATION. — Words, originally adverbs, but used as adjectives, are also used as nouns; as, "*The far-off* among the nations." Such expressions, for the most part at least, have come into use through a kind of Ellipsis.

§ 279. Of verbs used as nouns there are two classes: (1.) Participials; (2.) Clauses.

§ 280. A **PARTICIPIAL** is a derived form of the verb used not for asserting but for expressing either, —

1. An object of thought; or,
 2. A modification of such an object.
- Participials, accordingly, are either, —

1. *Noun-participials*; as, "*To think* is to act;" "Their *sending* the message was the cause of the trouble;" or,

2. *Adjective-participials*, more commonly called **Participles**; as, "*The advancing* army;" "*The expected* messenger."

§ 281. Noun-participials are of two forms: —

1. *The Infinitive*; as, *To think, To act*;
2. *The Gerund*; as, "Their *sending* the message."

§ 282. The Infinitive is a noun-participial, having for its form that of the simple verb, generally with *to* prefixed; as, "*To think is to act.*"

OBSERVATION 1. — In such expressions as "He went *to seek* his brother," it may seem difficult to see how we can regard the expression *to seek* as a noun. But the difficulty vanishes as we consider that originally in such expressions *to* was a proper preposition, and the verb-form, as *seek* in this case, was a participial noun — a gerund. In the Anglo-Saxon, it had the inflection of the gerund, corresponding to the Latin form *ad quarendum*. Here, accordingly, *seek* is to be parsed as an infinitive and object of *to*. In the sentence "*To seek is to find,*" *to seek* and *to find* are alike proper infinitives; the one the subject-noun, the other the predicate-noun; and *to is* to be regarded as the mere sign of the infinitive. The dropping of the Anglo-Saxon infinitive termination, which regularly was in *an*, as *help-an*, *to help*, has made it necessary to retain the *to* as the sign of the infinitive in modern English.

OBSERVATION 2. — The infinitive is always to be regarded as a noun. It now appears sometimes with the particle *to* prefixed; as, "*To seek is to find*;" and sometimes without; as, "Bid him *depart*;" "He came *to seek* the lost." In the first example the *to* is a mere sign of the infinitive; in the last, the *to* is a proper preposition, and, hence, not a sign of the infinitive, as it denotes the relation of remote object — here the relation of *seek to come*. In both forms the infinitive is, in construction and use, a noun. But it is a noun-participial — not a normal noun, since it takes an immediate object without a preposition; as, "*To seek the lost* was his errand."

OBSERVATION 3. — The sign of the infinitive — *to* — is generally omitted when it stands after the active forms of the verbs *bid*, in the sense of command, *dare, feel, find, have, hear, help, let, make, need, please, see* and its synonyms; as, "He bade him *depart*;" "They helped him *rise*;" "I saw him *fall*;" "I perceived the apples *fall*;" "They observed the smoke *more* up the side of the mountain;" "I noticed the boats *glide* down the stream."

§ 283. The Infinitive is used in all the general uses of a noun. It is thus used, —

1. *As subject of a sentence*; as, "*To die* in such a struggle would be glorious."
2. *As Predicate*; as, "*To know* a man well were *to know* himself."

3. *As Object of an attribute of action or relation*; as, —
(1.) *Passive*, "Yct to be loved makes not *to love* again."

— *Tranyson.*

(2.) *Of Result*; as, "He came *to seek* the lost;" "Able *to conquer.*"

(3.) *Factitive*; as, "Overpowering numbers forced him *to surrender.*"

§ 284. The Infinitive has four forms, two of which are active, two passive: —

1. Present Active; as, *to have*;
2. Past Active; as, *to have had*;
3. Present Passive; as, *to be had*;
4. Past Passive; as, *to have been had*.

OBSERVATION 1. — There is one form of the infinitive noun which seems to be passing out of use, if not to be entirely obsolete in more elegant discourse. It is introduced by *for*, which seems here to have lost its proper force as a preposition and to have become a clausal conjunction (§ 328). Thus we find in Milton: "For his opponents then *to skulk*, *to lay ambushments*, to keep a narrow bridge of licensing where the challenger should pass, though it be valor enough in soldiership, is but weakness and cowardice in the wars of truth." The particle *for* in such cases serves no purpose but to soften the abruptness there would be in introducing the infinitive with its subject as together forming a logical subject. It is naturally derived from such forms as this: "It is difficult for us to understand;" — that is, "difficult for our understanding;" where *for* is a preposition. But the particle has come to be of no significant force whatever, and is of the same class of words as *it* in the phrase "It is an important fact," and *there* in the phrase "There is a rest;" and the clausal particle *that*. The formal subject of *skulk* in the sentence quoted, is *opponents*. The expression is equivalent to: "That his opponents should then skulk," etc.; or, "The skulking of his opponents then," etc.*

There is a similar use of the preposition *of*, which must be regarded as an unauthorized provincialism. Thus Thackeray: "It is not snobbish of persons of rank of any other nation *to employ* their knife in the manner alluded *to*." The sentence is equivalent to: "That persons of rank of any other nation should employ," etc., is not snobbish.

OBSERVATION 2. — There is another use of the infinitive which is very common: —
Spenser uses the particle before the infinitive without subject expressed: —

"No shame *to stoop*, one's head more high to rear,
And, much to gain, a little *for to yield*."

Fairy Queen, B. V. cxli. st. 19.

frequent and legitimate, that is somewhat peculiar. It is that expressing futurity; as, "The day is *to arrive*." It is closely allied to the infinitive expressing object of result, but is clearly distinguishable from that. It is used primarily as a predicate; and is properly to be regarded as an abnormal form of the predicate. Derivatively it is used also, like many other predicates, as an adjective element to modify an object of thought. It may be characterized from its especial use in the sentence as the *Influence of Futurity*.

§ 285. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the Infinitives in the following sentences, and state whether the to, whenever it occurs, is a Preposition or a Sign of the Infinitive:—*

You like to hear from me. To spare thee now is past my power. Pope was not content to satisfy, he desired to excel, and therefore always endeavored to do his best. I was yesterday very much surprised to hear my old friend, in the midst of the service, calling out to one John Matthews to mind what he was about, and not disturb the congregation. The general good sense and worthiness of his character make his friends observe these little singularities as foils that rather set off than blemish his good qualities. To relieve the wretched was his pride. He made them give up their spoils. Sir Roger lets me rise and go to bed when I please, dine at his own table or in my chamber as I think fit, sit still and say nothing without bidding me be merry. He felt the pangs of dying enter his soul. To require less from others than is commonly done in order to be pleased, and to be more studious to please them, is another rule of greater importance than is easily imagined. When I see their hurry from country to town and then from the town back again into the country, "Surely," say I to myself, "life is vain." All our knowledge is ourselves to know. We live with them; we hear them talk; we mark the vigor of life; we see the scene gradually change. The wisdom of the prudent is to understand his way.

"For not to have been dipt in Lethe lake,
Could save the son of Thetis from to die."—*Spenser*.

To be without language, spoken or written, is almost to be without thought.

To be neglected by his contemporaries, was the penalty which he paid for surpassing them.

For a prince to be reduced by villainy to my distressful circumstances, is calamity enough.

"For me to devise a lodging and say he lies here or he lies there, were to lie in my own throat."—*Shakespeare*.

"Nothing was more frequent than for a bailiff to seize Jack by the shoulders."—*Swift*.

Hope comes with smiles, the hour of pain to cheer.

"Thou deniest thee to know the way."—*Translation of Erasmus' Paraphrase, Edition of 1548*.

The messenger who was to be sent from Paris is to arrive to-morrow

§ 286. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct three sentences with Infinitives in each of the four forms, Present Active, Past Active, Present Passive, Past Passive.*

Construct ten sentences containing Infinitives without the sign "to."

§ 287. The GERUND is a noun-participial in the form of an inflection of the verb; as, "*Keeping* his wealth was more difficult than *acquiring* it;" "He was justly punished for *being found* in such company;" "From *having been detained* by this accident, he lost the opportunity of *seeing* them."

§ 288. The Gerund has four forms: two active; two passive:—

1. *The Present Active*; "From obeying faithfully no commands efficiently;"

2. *The Past Active*; "From *having obeyed* faithfully, he commands efficiently;"

3. *The Present Passive*; "From *being thus commanded*, he obeys promptly;"

4. *The Past Passive*; "From *having been* thus *commanded*, he obeyed unhesitatingly."

§ 289. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the Gerunds in the following sentences* :—

Till by cherishing Cæsar, and throwing into his hands the only thing which he wanted, arms and military command, he made him at last too strong for himself. The resolution of seeking refuge in Egypt, finished the sad catastrophe of this great man. Their appearing "foolishness" is no presumption against this. It is from our finding that the course of Nature, in some respects and so far, goes on by general laws, that we conclude this of the rest. True knowledge consists in knowing things, not words. Instead of commenting upon this fable, I shall take occasion from it to compare the different stations of life. They reproach him with being denied the common rites of sepulture. "The memoirs of Captain Carleton were read even by Samuel Johnson without a suspicion of their being other than a true history." — *Berkeley*. What if this grievance of gentlemen's spending several years in learning and unlearning this jargon be all a grimace and a specimen only of the truth and candor of certain minute philosophers, who raise great invectives from slight occasions, and judge too often without inquiring? The removing prejudices against an opinion is not to be reckoned prejudicing in its favor. I can never think that there is any connection between truth and falsehood, no more than I can think a thing's being unaccountable a proof that it is divine; though at the same time I cannot help acknowledging it follows from your own avowed principles, that a thing's being unaccountable or incomprehensible to our reason is no sure argument to conclude it is not divine; especially when there are collateral proofs of its being so. I cannot comprehend why any man should conclude against the truth of the gospel, from Josephus' omitting to speak of it, any more than from his omitting to embrace it. The supplying which want

is the true reasonable end of studying the arts and sciences. Some men's attributing too much to human reason, has made others attribute too little to it. By unscrupulously taking the lead in its wildest excesses, he obtained the absolute guidance of it. "By trampling on laws, he acquired the authority of a legislator." — *Macaulay*. "By the well-ordering and rectifying this church." — *Chillingworth*. "The making plain that truth." — *Id.* "The imparting scientific definition to the immemorial doctrines of the church, constituted the defense." — *Furrar*. "Which [an antecedent impression] impeded the lending an impartial ear to its evidence." — *Id.* "The casting out devils, the raising the dead, the healing the sick." — *Id.*

§ 290. Clauses are used as nouns, and form a class which may be called Clausal Nouns. They are used as subjects, and as predicates, and as objects of an action or relation :—

1. *As Subject*; "That the earth revolves upon its axis is now a truth of rudimentary science;" "Why he went is not known;" "Who has gone is in doubt;"

2. *As Predicate*; "The proposition was, that suffrage ought to be universal;" "The subject of inquiry was, who came and whence he came;"

3. *As Object of action or relation*; as, "We judge that he died;" "I do not know whether they were there;" "He traveled that he might inform his mind as well as improve his health;" "He waited long after the hour had expired; until, indeed, the twilight had gone."

OBSERVATION.—The last example but one is a proper instance of resulting object; the object here of the action expressed in *traveled*. This kind of object generally requires the preposition *for*. Accordingly we find this preposition in old authors before a clause, expressing this kind of object, as in Chaucer, v. 2881: "And for the people shulde seen him all."

The following prepositions are now used before clausal nouns:—After, besides, ere, except, excepting, in, notwithstanding, save, since, till, until. The clausal sign *that* may be omitted with *after, ere, except, notwithstanding, since, till, until*; it must be expressed after *besides, excepting, in, save*.

§ 291. *Clausal Nouns* are of three classes :—

1. Those introduced by the Relative Pronouns *who, whose, whom, which, that, what*, and their compounds;
2. Those introduced by the Clausal Adverbs, *when, where, whither, whence, how, why*, with their compounds;
3. Those introduced by the Clausal Conjunctions; *that, if whether*.

§ 292. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the respective kinds of Clausal Nouns in the following sentences:—*

I ask, gentlemen, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission? Corruption imagined, indeed, that she had found defects in this statesman. In the second encounter, the Templar aimed at the center of his antagonist's shield, and struck it so fairly and forcibly, that his spear went to shivers, and the Disinherited Knight reeled in his saddle. I scarcely know how I can describe the impression, but it seemed to me as if something strong and stately swept around those eternal towers. I feel that I do not and cannot describe this mighty ruin. I can only say that I came away paralyzed, and as passive as a child. It matters not whether our good-humor be construed into insensibility or idiotism. It was evident that they all thought alike, and thought contemptuously of the apparition. At length the sun arose and filled the heavens, and clothed the earth with his glory; how he spent that day belongs not to this history. Just as she went down, while her bow was yet recumbent in the dark purple horizon, it is said that an angel appeared standing between her horns. Who can tell, when he sets forth to wander, whither he may be driven by the uncertain current of existence, or when he may return, or whether it may be ever his lot to review the scenes of his childhood? The alarm was scarcely uttered before we were upon her. It was some time before we could put the ship about. It was a fine sunny morning, when the thrilling cry of "land!" was heard from the mast-head. His illness had so increased that he had taken to his hammock, and only

breathed a wish that he might see his wife before he died. I did it that I might benefit him. Go quickly that you may meet them.

§ 293. The third class of Abnormal Nouns consists of marks and signs of objects. Characters or symbols of any kind that can be sounded or written, letters, figures, words, phrases, etc., may be used as nouns; as, "*A* is the first letter of the alphabet;" "*A* counterfeit *five*;" "*9* is the square of *3*;" "*Healthy* is an adjective;" "*The whole is equal to its parts*, is an axiom;" "*A*," "*five*," "*9*," "*3*," "*healthy*," and "*the whole is equal to its parts*," are all nouns.

§ 294. ORAL EXERCISE. *Name the different kinds of Nouns in the following Sentences:—*

The tree grows. Charles was absent. The sun shines. Planets revolve about the sun. The orbits of planets are elliptical. The nation prospers. Society advances.

Mind is immortal. The memory sometimes fails. Patience is a virtue. Hope animates.

Water runs. The air is cold. Space is boundless. The sky is clear. Time passes. Events thicken. Praise stimulates.

Forbearance is praiseworthy. To be forbearing is praiseworthy. Sleep is refreshing. To sleep refreshes. Indifference is wrong. To be indifferent is criminal.

Action is natural. To act is natural. Acting is natural. Song is pleasing. To sing pleases. Singing pleases. For him to sing is uncommon.

John's departure was sudden. His going was sudden. For him to depart was unexpected. That he should depart, surprised us. That he is gone, is certain. That he will return, is doubtful. That Columbus discovered America is not claimed.

The transgressor suffers. He that transgresses, suffers. Whoso transgresses, suffers. Whoever transgresses, suffers.

The star twinkles. That which twinkles is a star. Right is safe. Whatever is right is safe. That which is right is safe.

I know the sufferer. Who suffered I know. Whom he injured I know. By whom it was done is in doubt. The perpetrator is unknown. Him that cometh to me I will in no wise cast out. The suppliant I will not reject.

Its destination was uncertain. Whither it was destined was uncertain. His traveling-conveyance is unknown. How he traveled is unknown. The reason of his going is ascertained. Why he went is ascertained.

Adverbial propositions of place express the *where*, the *whence*, and the *whither*. The Anglo-Saxon language had no *j* in its alphabet. There were no tens among them. *B, f,* and *u*, before a vowel, were often interchanged; as in *ofer, ober, ouer*. He answered without an *if* or a *but*. A peradventure of escape is encouraging. Dot every *i* and cross every *t*. The thought of an hereafter appalls him. Welcome ever smiles, and Farewell goes out sighing. For the yeo-heave-o, and the heave-away, and the sighing seaman's cheer. When the child is waked with "nine at night."

Our country folks in Hampshire call almost every thing *he* or *she*. A mower calls his scythe a *she*; the plowman calls his plow a *she*; but a prong or shovel is called a *he*. Their *says-hes* and *says-shes* are proverbial. When all that is shall be turned to was. Upon an estate's falling to him. The subduing prejudices and acquiring true knowledge.

Whatever we perceive, whatever we remember, whatever we are conscious of, we have a full persuasion or conviction of its existence. It is the vague anticipation of a brilliant future for the child and of how deservedly it will become an object of the world's admiration. Mark you his absolute shall? Thine is a strain to read among the hills. Many such like as's of great charge. Who lets I dare not wait upon I would. Without any cautions, qualifications, *ifs* or *ands*. In all push and pull there is counteraction.

§ 295. WRITTEN EXERCISE. Construct five sentences containing Infinitives used as Nouns;

Five with Gerunds;

Five with Clausal Nouns introduced by Relative Pronouns;

Five with Clausal Nouns introduced by Adverbs;

Five with Clausal Nouns introduced by Conjunctions;

Five with Clausal Nouns depending on Prepositions;

Five with Predicates in the form of Adjuncts;

Five with Adverbial Predicates.

CHAPTER III.

ABNORMAL FORMS OF THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 296. ABNORMAL modifiers of the noun are of two kinds:—

1. Words other than proper adjectives used as adjectives, and dropping their own proper nature;
2. Words so used, but retaining their own proper nature.

ILLUSTRATION.—In the phrase "mountain rill," the word *mountain*, originally and properly a noun, is used precisely as an adjective to limit the noun *rill*, retaining nothing of its proper nature as a noun. So in the phrase, "hither Gaul," the word *hither*, originally an adverb, is used to limit the noun *Gaul*, but loses its proper function as an adverb to modify an attribute. But in the phrase "The rill on the mountain," the word *mountain* does not drop its proper force or nature as a noun denoting an object of thought.

§ 297. Words other than proper adjectives may be used as adjectives to modify objects of thought, losing in such use their own proper nature.

Nouns are frequently used thus; as, "A *mountain* rill;" "A *fairy* vision;" "A *Sunset* scene."

Adverbs and prepositions are sometimes so used; as, "The *under* current;" "The *Hither* Gaul;" "The *then* administration."

Verbs and phrases are used in the same way; as, "The *let-alone* policy;" "An *out-of-the-way* place."

OBSERVATION.—All such words and phrases are logical adjectives, that is, are modifiers of objects of thought, and are to be parsed as such. They are one kind of abnormal adjectives.

It is often necessary to introduce a special form to prevent a doubt which might arise whether the modification is one of property or of relation. Thus a *glass house* may signify a *house made of glass* or a *house for making glass*

a property or a relation. This ambiguity is removed by the use of a hyphen to indicate that the modification is one of relation. Thus a *glass house*, without the hyphen, is to be presumed to denote a *house made of glass*. But if a relation is to be signified, and there can be any doubt as to the meaning, the hyphen should be used. Thus, a *glass-house*, with the hyphen, means a *house for glass*. So "a fancy store" means a *store having the property of fancifulness*; a *fancifully built or arranged store*. But "a fancy-store" means a *store for fancy articles*. In the same way, "a slave trader" means a *trader who is a slave*; while "a *slave-trader*" means a *trader in slaves* (§ 550).

§ 298. Words other than proper adjectives may be used to modify objects of thought, retaining their proper nature.

They are used either as *demonstratives, attributives, or epithets*.

§ 299. We may modify the object by the use of the noun in three ways, namely:—

1. *By Apposition*;
2. *By Case*;
3. *By an Adjunct*.

§ 300. We modify by *Apposition* in two ways:—

1. By using another name of the object; as, "Stamboul, *Constantinople*, was now in sight;" "The mountain *Horeb*."
2. By limiting the object itself; as, "Goodness, an *attribute* of the Deity."

Nouns thus used to modify other nouns are called **APPOSITIONIVES**.

§ 301. The noun may be put in apposition with another noun either with or without the conjunctions *as* and *or* as,—

"Memory, bosom-spring of joy!"

"As a poet, he cannot claim a station in the first rank."

"Systematic education, or elementary instruction in the various departments of literature and science."

OBSERVATION 1.—There is a liability to ambiguity in the use of the conjunction *or*, arising from the fact that the disjunction it expresses may respect different objects or only different names of the same object. In the last case only is it employed with a noun in apposition. In the sentence

"I saw before me two gorillas or chimpanzees," it is left in doubt whether the speaker means to say he saw two animals of two different species, or two animals that may be known by one or the other of two different names.

OBSERVATION 2. —The preposition *of* is used, also, before nouns that are in their essential nature appositives; as, "The island *of* Cuba;" "The task *of* translating the Scriptures;" "That picture *of* his."

Still another kind of apposition is in the use of such adverbials as *namely*, *to wit*. These are used chiefly before appositive phrases or clauses.

§ 302. Appositives limit or modify in two ways:—

1. By referring to some higher class to which the limited object belongs, and thus excluding it from other classes; as, "Peter, *the Apostle*."

2. By referring to some lower class or individual, or by specifying some attribute to which the attention is to be limited; as, "The eccentric movements of war, *the marching and counter-marching*;" "The human form, *God's image*, is mutilated." In the former case they limit by referring to the whole of which the object is a part; in this latter case they limit by referring to some part to which the view is to be confined.

OBSERVATION. —The noun may be in apposition with a sentence, a clause or other part of a sentence, when regarded as an object of thought; as "The young cavalier was guided to the water-side by the pensioner, who showed him considerable respect — a circumstance which may be considered as an augury of no small consequence." Here the word *circumstance* is in apposition with the preceding clause.

§ 303. The English language furnishes but one form of modifying objects of thought by Case, other than those expressed by pronouns. It is by the use of the possessive case; as, "*John's* book."

§ 304. An object of thought is modified, further, by an Adjunct; as, "Love *of country*;" "Honor *for the brave*;" "The general *in the field*."

OBSERVATION. —The adjective, as a modifier of the noun, is properly to be regarded as originally a predicate-attribute. Whatever may be assumed to admit of being predicated as attribute of an object, may be used to modify such object; as every modifier of an object must admit of being predicated as attribute. We may have, therefore, adjectives in any form in

which a mere attribute, whether of quality, action, condition, or relation, may be predicated separately from all expression of the copula.

305. The forms of the verb are used in modifying an object of thought in three different ways:—

1. *With a relative*, forming an *Adjective-clause*;
2. *As a Participle*;
3. *In the Infinitive and the Gerund*.

The participle or adjective participial (§ 280) is of four forms, namely:—

1. Present or simple active, *loving*;
2. Perfect active, *having loved*;
3. Present or simple passive, *loved, being loved*; and,
4. Perfect passive, *having been loved*.

EXAMPLES OF VERB-MODIFIERS. 1. *Definitives*.

The man *who loves virtue*;

The *suffering* child;

The soldier *to be shot* was rescued;

The chalk *for marking the box* was missing.

2. *Epithets*. Man, *that was created in the divine image*;

Man, *aspiring to angelic heights*;

The brave general, *to be daunted by no danger*, led the desperate charge.

The address, *in its observing all the proprieties of the occasion*, was commendable.

OBSERVATION. —The forms with the infinitive and gerund are properly adjuncts.

Among the relative or clausal modifiers of nouns are to be reckoned clauses introduced by adverbs; as, "The place *where they laid him*;" "The year *when I was there*."

§ 306. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the Normal and Abnormal Modifiers of each of the objects of thought in the following sentences, and indicate them as Definitives or Epithets:—*

The authority of civil government is a subordinate authority.

Faith makes an instrument of torture and of shame the ladder of ascent to paradise.

"Some feelings are to mortals given,
With less of earth in them than heaven."

My connections, once the source of happiness, now im-
bitter the reverse of my fortune.

There never was a specimen of manhood so rich and en-
nobled as David, the son of Jesse.

Bring flowers, young flowers, for the festal board.

It does not flow like Shakespeare's style, nor dance like
Spenser's.

Wherever space is concerned, it is clear that amplitude or
greatness of extent is necessary to grandeur.

That benevolence, the moral link which connects man
with man, is in itself virtuous, may appear to require proof.

Love, hope, and patience, these must be thy graces.

The very idea of abstract benevolence, of the desire to
do good, is hardly to be found in any other code or system.

I shall not attempt to trace the happiness upward of the
larger animals — an ever-flowing pleasure, of which close
observers of their habits can appreciate the amount.

"From brightening fields of ether fair disclosed,
Child of the sun, refulgent summer comes."

That vastness of thought which fills the imagination and
that sensibility of spirit which renders every circumstance
interesting, are qualities both of Homer and of Milton.

In Milton, who was skilled in almost every department of
science, learning seems sometimes to have shaded the splen-
dor of genius.

These form the most numerous rank of men that can be
supposed susceptible of philosophy.

There is no one who can read the history of any of these
heroes of the moral scene whose life has been one continued
deed of generosity to mankind, without feeling that if there
be virtue on earth, there has been virtue in that bosom which

has suffered much or dared much that the world might be
free from any of the ills which disgraced it.

I have ever been protected from such apprehensions by
my belief in a very simple truth — that diffused knowledge
immortalizes itself. A mind at liberty to reflect upon its
own observations, seldom fails of entertainment to itself.
There is not a breath the blue wave to curl. He has a mind
to discourse on that theme. Voltaire, who might have seen
him, speaks repeatedly of his majestic stature. I am at the
point to die. The French, a mighty people, combined for
the regeneration of Europe. The great golden eagle, the
pride and the pest of the parish, stooped down and flew away
with something in its talons. Few augured the possibility
that the encounter could terminate well for the Disinherited
Knight. Toward night, the schoolmaster walked over to
the cottage where his little friend lay sick. He entered a
room where a group of women were gathered.

"Onward! there are ills to conquer:
Onward! while a wrong remains
To be conquered by the right;
While Oppression lifts a finger
To affront us by his might."

The parade of it can only serve to draw on her the envy,
and consequently the most inveterate hatred of all he and
she fools.

§ 307. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Modify the following
Nouns by Abnormal Modifiers, in each of the forms spec-
ified below:—*

John, Peter; Smith, Washington.

The ox, the camel; the ocean, the mountain; gold, air;
angle, circle; year, month; heart, memory; judgment, feel-
ing; virtue, fortitude; goodness, justice.

Power, economy, character, custom, college, asylum, idola-
try, eloquence, slander, habit, intemperance, emulation, in-
struction, care, riches, contentment, authorship, genius.

I. BY THE NOUN: 1. in *apposition*; (1.) as a demonstrative or attribute; (2.) as an epithet;

2. *By case*;

3. *By an adjunct*: (1.) as a definitive; (2.) as an epithet.

II. BY THE VERB: 1. *with a relative*; (1.) as a definitive; (2.) as an epithet;

2. *By a participle*: (1.) as a definitive; (2.) as an epithet;

3. *By the infinitive, and the gerund.*

CHAPTER IV.

ABNORMAL FORMS OF THE ADVERB.

§ 308. ABNORMAL modifications of the predicate are of three classes:—

1. *Other parts of speech used as adverbs*;
2. *Phrases*;
3. *Clauses*.

§ 309. Other parts of speech are used as adverbs, to modify the predicate; as,—

1. *Nouns*; "He went *home*;"
2. *Adjectives*; "Right *early*;"
3. *Participles*; "He rode *seated* between two officers;" "They went away *sorrowing*;"
4. *Infinitives and Gerunds*; "Convenient *for overseeing* the work;"

"Smiles with altered air
To see thee climb his elbow-chair;"

5. *Prepositions*; "He went *down*."

§ 310. ADVERBIAL PHRASES are:—

1. *Adjuncts*; as, "The sun sets *in glory*;" "All this, Sculpture has embodied *in perpetual marble*;" "Easy to see."
2. *Nouns with participles*, forming the *Case Independent* or *Case Absolute*, so called; as, "The convention adopted the measure, *a considerable minority opposing it*;" "They sailed up the river, *the tide being in their favor*."

§ 311. CLAUSES are used to modify the predicate both in

respect of property and of relation; as, "He did *as he was directed*;" "But at the nuptial feast, *when all sat down*, the bride herself was wanting;" "They stood *where the combatants fought their decisive battle*;" "Holland is richer to-day *than she was when she sent her navies up the Thames*."

OBSERVATION. — In this last example there are several adverbials to be distinguished. The whole clause in Italics is one, modifying *is richer*; the closing part from *when*, is another, modifying *was* — *rich* being understood; *up the Thames*, is a third, modifying *sent*.

It should be borne in mind that the modifier of any attribute, word, or phrase, is an adverbial. The primitive attribute is the proper predicate. From the predicate is derived first the adjective limiting an object of thought; and, then, the adverbial, sub-modifying a predicate; or, at still lower grades, either an adjective or an adverbial derivative from a predicate.

Adverbials, accordingly, in all the forms, except those of nouns, adjectives, and participles, are used to modify adjectives and other adverbials, as well as proper predicates. Thus we have adverbial modifiers of adjectives; as, "Hard to understand;" "Fit for accomplishing his purpose;" "Active in and out;" "Faithful at his post;" "Successful, his means being considered;" "Prompt when his country called."

In like manner we have adverbials modifying other adverbials; as, "Hard to understand in any satisfactory degree;" "Faithful at his post whenever his health allowed."

§ 312. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Abnormal Adverbials in the following sentences, and name the kind, as well as also the predicate or attribute word or phrase which they respectively modify: —*

They rejected, with contempt, the ceremonious homage which other sects substituted for the pure worship of the soul. He understood by their signs that they wished to be informed whence he came. She herself drew the design of that monument with her own hand, and left it with me when she went away. Cowper said, fifty or sixty years ago, that he dared not name John Bunyan in his verse, for fear of moving a sneer. We live in better times. Admirable as the natural world is for its sublimity and beauty, who would compare it, even for an instant, with the sublimity and beauty of the moral world. When life begins, like a distant land-

scape, gradually to disappear, the mind can receive no solace but from its own ideas and reflections. Not many generations ago, where you now sit encircled with all that exalts and embellishes civilized life, the rank thistle nodded in the wind, and the wild fox dug his hole unscared. After this bustle of preparation, and amid the silence which follows it, Henry Brougham takes a slow and hesitating step toward the table, where he stands crouched together, his shoulders pulled up, his head bent forward, and his upper lip and nostril agitated by a tremulous motion, as though he were afraid to utter even a single sentence. It seems easier to do right to-morrow than to-day, merely because we forget that, when to-morrow comes, then will be now. During her wane, while inferior luminaries were brightening around her, he was growing fainter and smaller every evening.

CHAPTER V.

ABNORMAL FORMS OF MODALS.

§ 313. ABNORMAL modifications of the Copula are, in respect of their significance, of three classes:—

1. Those simply indicating the character of the assertion in quality or degree; as, *not, certainly, truly, verily, really, positively, absolutely, indeed*; also, in certain connections, *naturally, readily, easily, in truth, in verity; more, much more, no more*;

2. Those indicating contingency in higher or lower degrees; as, *perhaps, peradventure, possibly, probably; in all probability; by possibility*;

3. Those indicating necessity in higher or lower degrees; as, *necessarily; of necessity*.

§ 314. Modals, further, are in respect of their form of three classes:—

1. *Single words, or Proper Modals*;

2. *Modal Phrases*;

3. *Modal Clauses*.

§ 315. Modal phrases are in the form of adjuncts; as, *in fact, in truth, in very deed*; or of the case absolute; as, "Our opinion, *such a state of things being supposed*, would be very different."

§ 316. Modal clauses are indicated either,—

1. By modal conjunctions; as, *although, albeit, notwithstanding, however, unless, except; if, provided; whereas, since, seeing, because, than, whether*; as, "Although he slay me, I will trust in him;" "However improbable the statement

may seem, the judge decided in favor of the criminal;" "If it were not so, I would have told you;" or,

2. By a transposition without a conjunction; as, "Were it not so, I would have told you;" "Had he inquired, he would have learned."

OBSERVATION.—It is obvious that judgments admit in their own nature of being modified indefinitely, as the contingency and necessity expressed may be more or less relative or absolute. Moreover, as the modification may be of the judgment itself, or of the form of expressing it, and may also be mental or material, relative to the subject or predicate, or irrelative, and, still further, if irrelative, may be a pure judgment, or judgment modified either by the desire or the will of the speaker, we may have various combinations of modifications of the same judgment. As in the sentence: "The truth might possibly in a certain sense have been dimly apprehended by the human reason, had the spirit maintained its original purity." Here we have four modifications of the one judgment: 1. In the potential auxiliary *might*; 2. In the proper modal, *possibly*; 3. In the formal modal, *in a certain sense*; 4. In the conditional, *had the spirit*, etc. These are all, as modifiers of the copula, to be carefully distinguished from the adverb *dimly*, which modifies the predicate.

§ 317. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Modals in the following sentences, and name the kind, and also the Copula used, which they respectively modify:—*

He that is his own foe, will assuredly be destroyed. By suffering we may possibly avoid sinning; but by sinning, we certainly cannot avoid suffering. He of necessity remains weak who never tries exertion. If you would teach secrecy to others, begin with yourself. Though good sense is not in the number, nor always, it must be owned, in the company of the sciences, yet it is fairly worth them all. Bid farewell to all greatness, if envy stir within thee. His estimate of human nature was probably not very high. The main points have been infused so early, that, be the proofs ever so plain, it is a hard matter to convince a mind thus tinctured and stained. If Luther had been born in the tenth century, he would have effected no reformation. We may die, it may be, ignominiously and on the scaffold. Would you listen to conscience, it would tell you whether you really

do as you would be done by. Were you omniscient, you might be allowed to rule. If he had gone farther, he might have fared worse. Had he gone farther, he might have fared worse. Would you break any spell that worldly feeling or selfish sorrow may have spread over your mind, go and see the Coliseum by moonlight.

The angle A is greater than the angle B; much more is it greater than C, which has been proved to be less than B. Can the branch improve when taken from the stock which gave it nourishment; dependent spirits can no more be happy when parted from all union with the Father of Spirits. Whether he confess or not, the truth will certainly be discovered. Our season of improvement is short; and whether used or not, will soon pass away. We might, did our limits allow, refer to the metaphysical argument.

CHAPTER VI.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 318. A PREPOSITION is a word used to show some relation of an object of thought; as, "Love of gold;" "He went to Rome."

§ 319. Prepositions express a twofold relation of objects:—

1. As attributes or predicates;
2. As limiting or modifying adjuncts.

We have, accordingly, either, — 1. *Predicate Adjuncts*, or 2. *Modifying Adjuncts*.

ILLUSTRATION.— In the sentence, "The sun is *in* the heavens," the preposition *in* serves to indicate the predicate of condition. In the sentence, "The sun rises *in* the east," the preposition indicates that *the east* is used to limit or modify the predicate *rises*.

OBSERVATION 1.— The use of prepositions to indicate limiting words is derived from the use of them to indicate a predicate. Just as every adjective used to limit a noun must be supposed to have been originally a predicate, so phrases with prepositions used to limit objects of thought must be supposed to have been originally phrases expressing predicates. At least, only so far as such limiting phrases can be used as predicates in sentences having the objects they limit for subjects, are they admissible in language. We can, thus, use the phrase *in the heavens* to limit *the sun*, as *the sun in the heavens*, only as we can say *the sun is in the heavens*, using the phrase as a predicate.

OBSERVATION 2.— Prepositions are used in compounding verbs, both in union with the simple verb, as *over-tax*, and separately, as *rejoice in*, *despair of*. That these last forms and others like them are proper compounds appears from the fact that they are used in the passive form; as, "His life was *despaired of*."

§ 320. Prepositions are, in respect of form, either single

words or phrases; as, *at, by, in, upon; hard by, close upon, in the midst of.*

OBSERVATION. — Words usually deemed prepositions occur in certain forms of expression in which it may be difficult to determine whether they are to be considered prepositions, or adverbs, or conjunctions; as in the sentence: "Is there a God to swear *by*, and is there none to believe *in*, none to trust *in*?" "He walked *across*;" "He passed *over*." Such expressions are elliptical adverbials. In the first sentence, the expressions are equivalent to "Is there a God by whom to swear?" In the last two, the objects of *across* and *over* are to be understood, which with the prepositions form adverbials modifying the verbs.

In such sentences as "He went *notwithstanding* it stormed;" "He went *after* the storm had passed;" *notwithstanding* and *after* may more correctly be considered as prepositions with their objects expressed in the clauses that follow them, than as conjunctions.

Such expressions as *at once, forever, till then, from thence*, are adverbial phrases, consisting of prepositions and words that were originally nouns or pronouns, but now have the form of adverbs.

§ 321. Prepositions are, in respect to their origin, derived from notion-words of the different classes.

By, nigh, save, through, till, are thus supposed to be derived from verbs.

Notwithstanding, concerning, during, except, and others are from participles.

In, out, to, of, are supposed to have been originally adverbs.

Aboard, beside, are examples of considerable classes of words from nouns compounded with the primitive prepositions, *a* for *an* or *on*, as in the phrase *I go a-fishing*, and *be*, now written *by*.

Into, unto, within, are compounded of primitive prepositions.

Compounds of prepositions with adverbs and adjectives are numerous; as, *without, along, below, beyond, throughout*.

OBSERVATION. — The following is a list of the prepositions chiefly in use in the English language, distributed in respect of the different classes of relations which they indicate: —

1. PLACE and TIME: At, after, before, between, betwixt, by, from, in, on, upon, near, nigh, next, past, to, within, without.

2. PLACE: Aboard, above, under, over, mid, midst, amid, amidst,

among, amongst, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, beyond, opposite.

3. TIME: After, since, till (formerly used also in relation to place), until, during, ere, pending.

4. SOURCE, and hence QUALITY, POSSESSION, CAUSE: Of, off, out of, because of, from.

5. DIRECTION: Down, up, about, round, around, to, into, unto, toward, towards, against, along, across, atwart, through, throughout, through to.

6. OBJECT: For, to, of, about, concerning, regarding, respecting.

7. CONNECTION: With, besides, among.

8. EXCLUSION: But, bating, excepting, notwithstanding, except, save.

§ 322. The object of the preposition in an adjunct may be expressed in any kind of noun, normal or abnormal.

OBSERVATION. — Even phrases in the form of predicate adjuncts may be used after prepositions; as, "Instead of *in shoes*;" "Entrance *in at the gate*;" "In the courts and halls of legislation instead of *in the fields of battle*." Prepositions were more freely used formerly before clauses than at present. Thus Spenser: "To that their faces most foule and filthie were." So Barrow: "That we in like cases are not moved doth arise from that we have very glimmering and faint conceptions of those matters."

CHAPTER VII

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 323. A CONJUNCTION is a word used to indicate some relation in the thought itself; as "He has been diligent, *and* he will probably succeed;" "He will succeed *if* he be diligent;" "He was diligent *but* unfortunate."

OBSERVATION. — A Conjunction differs from a Preposition in this: that a preposition ever points to a relation between an object of thought and a modifier or an attribute of it; while a conjunction always points to a relation in the thought itself. This relation to the thought may be either of two distinct kinds: that in connecting, or in modifying.

Conjunctions express relations between different thoughts, by connecting them in one. They connect sentences, principal elements of sentences, modifying elements of all kinds, and even mere form-words. They differ from prepositions in this: that in connecting they indicate at least a movement of thought from one object or relation to another, implying distinctness or difference; whereas prepositions indicate only a limitation of a single object or relation. Thus in the sentence, "John *and* James have arrived," we have distinct objects presented, and the thought exhibited as passing from one to the other; we have a double movement of thought; while in the sentence, "John *with* James has arrived," we have but one object limited or modified by the adjunct; there is but one movement of thought. The difference here is slight, it is true, but we can recognize it: and this is an instance of the closest approximation of the two classes of words to each other. Generally the difference is wide and easily recognized. The conjunction originates in the thought, and indicates relations in that; the preposition originates in the object of thought, and indicates relations in that as a whole to some one or other of its parts.

The other use of Conjunctions is in modifying the thought-element of a sentence, as to its ground or condition. It indicates, in this use, the relation of a clause or a clausal phrase to the copula; as, "I will go, *if* it be possible;" "I will go, *if* possible."

While there is the radical distinction indicated above between the conjunction and the preposition, the one grounding itself in the thought, the

other in the matter of thought, it should be borne in mind that a relation or modification of thought may often be transferred to the matter of thought, that is, to the object, with a hardly noticeable change in the meaning of the sentence. Thus, "Alexander was possibly conqueror in the battle," may be changed to the form, "Alexander was possible conqueror in the battle;" — the contingent modification expressed by *possibly* and *possible* being transferred from the thought to the matter without much affecting the import of the sentence. So the same word may be regarded as a preposition or as a conjunction: "None *but* John went." If *but* be referred to the thought, then it must be regarded as a conjunction, and the sentence be equivalent to: "None but he went," in which form of the sentence we must supply a verb, that is, a form of proper thought. If, however, *but* be referred to the matter of thought, we must regard it as a preposition, and treat the sentence as equivalent to "None but him went," where *him* is object of the preposition. So in "Save only he," *save* is a conjunction; but in "Save only him," it is a preposition.

The same principle of distinction applies to parts of sentences. If the relation expressed by the form-word be between thoughts as in proper clauses, it is a conjunction; if between objects of thought, it is a preposition. In "John *and* James went on a pedestrian excursion," we have a conjunction, the *and* referring the mind to an actual or represented assertion; here, to the assertion expressed in the verb *went*. In "John *with* James went on a pedestrian excursion," we have a preposition, the word *with* referring the mind to no affirmation, but only to objects of thought. If sometimes there seems to be little if any difference in the meaning, the distinction is yet fundamental, and can always be appreciated in accurate discourse.

As might naturally be supposed from the fact that form-words are derived from notion-words, in many sentences we can consider them in either light. Thus in the sentence, "Hinder me not, seeing that the Lord hath prospered my way" (Genesis xxiv. 56), the word "seeing" is properly regarded as a conjunction, yet it might be regarded as a participle having the clause as its object.

Notwithstanding is, like *but*, sometimes a preposition, sometimes a conjunction; as, "*Notwithstanding* the storm;" "*Notwithstanding* it stormed." In the sentence, "*Notwithstanding* that it stormed," it is more correct to regard it as a preposition, for the conjunction *that* indicates that the clause is to be taken as an object. The one or the other form of expression will be adopted according as the speaker wishes to turn the attention on the thought, the affirmation, or on the object.

§ 324. Conjunctions are of three general classes: —

1. *Coördinate*;
2. *Modifying*;
3. *Clausal*.

25. COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS connect sentences, or parts of sentences. They are of the following species:—

1. *Copulatives*: and, also, too, both, besides, likewise, further, furthermore, moreover.
2. *Disjunctives*: or, nor.
3. *Intensives*: even, yea, nay.
4. *Adversatives*: but, though, albeit, although, except, unless, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, still, only, yet.
5. *Illatives*: since, seeing, because, for, as, whereas, then, so, therefore, wherefore, accordingly, consequently, hence, thereupon, whereupon.
6. *Comparatives*: as, than.

§ 326. The relation of simple coördination may exist between whole sentences or even paragraphs or chapters; and also between any like elements of a sentence.

EXAMPLES.

1. *Object of thought.* Air is a fluid; *Air and water* are fluids.
2. *Copula.* It is true; *It is and must be* true.
3. *Predicate.* The sun is round; The sun is *round and bright*.
4. *Modifier of Object.* The wise man; The *wise and good* man.
5. *Modifier of Copula.* He may have erred; He may *possibly and probably* have erred in his opinion.
6. *Modifier of Predicate.* The sun was totally eclipsed; The sun was *totally and visibly* eclipsed.
7. *Sub-modifier.* The *wisely and greatly* virtuous have been the highest benefactors of the race.
8. *Form-word.* "*In and through* him."

§ 327. MODIFYING CONJUNCTIONS indicate clauses as modifiers. They are chiefly *Conditionals*; as, *if, provided, unless*. The adversatives are also used to indicate clausal

parts of sentences as modifiers; as, "The event, *though possible, is hardly probable.*"

OBSERVATION.— *Except* and *save* were formerly used as conjunctions of this class; as, "For *except* we had lingered, surely now we had returned." — *Gen.* xliii. 10; "Can two walk together, *except* they be agreed?" — *Amos* iii. 3; "There was no stranger with us in the house *save* we two in the house." But these words are now generally used as prepositions, with the clauses as their objects. Originally such expressions were instances of the case absolute. Thus the phrase, "Except these bonds" (*Acts* xxvi. 29), is in the Latin version, "*Exceptis his vinculis,*" and is translated by Wiclif, "outakun (= out-taken) these bondis."

§ 328. CLAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS simply indicate that clauses are used as nouns to denote objects of thought.

The Clausal Conjunctions are:—

1. *That*, used with a Categorical Proposition; as, "*That he went is certain.*"
2. *Whether*, used with an Interrogative Proposition; as, "*Whether he has arrived is not known.*"
3. *If* was formerly used with an Interrogative Proposition; but this use is now not so common; as, "I know not *if* it be so."
4. *Lest*, used before a clause denoting an object; as, "I feared *lest* they should arrive and find us unprepared."

OBSERVATION.— *That* was originally a demonstrative pronoun. It came easily to be used to indicate that a form of words properly expressing a judgment, was employed to express the judgment as represented, that is, as a mere object of thought. "*That he was present,*" thus, properly means: "That proposition, namely, *he was present.*"

§ 329. Conjunctions in respect to their origin, are, like prepositions, derived from other parts of speech.

Thus we have, —

1. *From Prepositions*, besides, but, for, before, since;
2. *From Adverbs*, accordingly, also, as, now, yet, still, otherwise, as, however, nevertheless, likewise, consequently, therefore;
3. *From Adjectives*, that, both, either, neither, or, nor, whether;

4. *From Participles*, notwithstanding, provided, saving, seeing.

5. *From Verbs*, if, though.

OBSERVATION. — Words used as conjunctions are, many of them, also used as other parts of speech. This is apparent from an inspection of the list given above.

§ 330. Two or more Conjunctions are often used in connection; as, *and besides, but also*.

§ 331. They are also used in correlation; one in one of the related members, and another in the other.

Examples of the correlative conjunctions, are: *As — as; as — so; so — as; both — and; both — and also; either — or; neither — nor; whether — or; although — yet; although — still; although — nevertheless; although — notwithstanding*.

§ 332. They also appear in abnormal forms as phrases or as clauses; as, *at least; as well as; forasmuch as; inasmuch as; if so be that; insomuch that*. Such forms of expression are *conjunctive phrases or clauses*.

§ 333. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the several kinds of Conjunctions in the following sentences: —*

We live in better times; and we are not afraid to say that, though there were many clever men in England during the latter half of the seventeenth century, there were only two great creative minds.

Man delights me not, nor woman; though, by your smiling, you seem to say so.

My lord, we had no such stuff in our thoughts; but we smiled to think, if you delight not in man, what scanty entertainment the players shall receive from you.

The effect which he produced depended less on his personal qualities than on the circumstances in which he was placed.

In these circumstances, the sciences improve rapidly, and

criticism among the rest; but poetry in the highest sense of the word disappears.

Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it, lest ye die.

What rests but that the mortal sentence pass?

Its qualities exist since they are known, and are known because they exist.

Under the Ptolemies, Egypt recovered much of its prosperity, albeit theirs too was an alien rule.

That there should be more species of intelligent creatures above us than there are of sensible and material below us, is probable to me from hence: that in all the visible corporeal world, we see no chasms.

If this be probable, we have reason to be persuaded that there are far more species of creatures above us than there are beneath.

And yet of all those distinct species we have no clear, distinct ideas.

Still, however, she preserved her humility and shamefacedness, till her crescent had exceeded the first quarter. Hitherto she had only grown lovelier, but now she grew prouder at every step of her preferment.

The support of their cattle made the article of water also a very important point. And, therefore, the book of Genesis will furnish us with frequent instances of violent contentions concerning wells.

If education has been rightly conducted, it will teach the man to suffer with dignity, with honor, nay, with profit.

He may even gain honor by the exertions made to prevent, or by the disposition shown during the deep adversity

CHAPTER VIII.

AUXILIARIES. — EXPLETIVES. — INTERJECTIONS.

§ 334. AN AUXILIARY is a word used in the inflection of words; as, *shall* see; *may* see; *more* righteous.

OBSERVATION. — The word which is inflected by the aid of the auxiliary is called the *principal* word. The two together form what is regarded as one word — a composite word. *Might have been loved*, thus, is regarded as one word.

§ 335. Auxiliaries are of two classes:—

1. *Verb Auxiliaries*, used in the inflection of verbs;
2. *Auxiliaries of Comparison*, used in the inflection of adjectives and adverbs.

§ 336. Verb Auxiliaries are:—

1. *The Emphatic*: *do* and its inflections;
2. *The Passive*: *be* and its inflections;
3. *Tense*: *have, had; shall, will;*
4. *Mood*: *must; may, can; might, could, would, should; let;*
5. *Infinitive*: *to.*

OBSERVATION. — These auxiliaries are likewise used in their proper primitive signification, except *shall, must, may, might, could, and should*. It is necessary carefully to distinguish between these two uses.

The sign of the Infinitive *to* differs from the other auxiliaries, as a form-word from a notion-word. It primitively points to a relation in the sentence. It was in fact a preposition having a gerundive noun as its object.

§ 337. The Auxiliaries of Comparison are *more, most, less, least*; as, *more* righteous, *least* important.

OBSERVATION. — These auxiliaries are also used as principal words; it is, therefore, important to keep the twofold use in view, in order to avoid error in expression.

AUXILIARIES. — EXPLETIVES. — INTERJECTIONS. 185

§ 338. AN EXPLETIVE is a word without significance in itself, used to indicate some relation in the expression.

§ 339. The Expletives are:—

1. *For*, used to show that the infinitive with its subject is used as a subject of the sentence; as, "*For* me to resist would be madness."

2. The *Rhetorical* Expletives *it* and *there*, used to show that the sentence is inverted; as, "*It* is certain that he knew it" = "That he knew it is certain;" "*There* is a pleasure in the pathless woods" = "A pleasure is in the pathless woods," or, "A pleasure in the pathless woods is."

3. The *Interjectional*, used to express a feeling, *what*; as, "*What!*" said I, "does Virtue then reside in the vale?"

§ 340. AN INTERJECTION is a word expressive of feeling; as, *Oh! Alas!*

§ 341. Interjections are of two general classes:—

1. Those originally expressing mere feeling; as, *Fie, pshaw;*
2. Those originally expressing some object or attribute, but subsequently used to express feeling mainly.

§ 342. Of the first class, may be enumerated the following species:—

1. *Those expressing feeling generally*; as, O, oh, ah;
2. *Those expressing joy*; as, Io, ha, huzza, hurra, heyday;
3. *Sorrow*; as, Alas, welawa (old);
4. *Aversion and contempt*; as, Fie, fy, faugh, foh, pish, pshaw, fudge, poh, pooh, tush, tut, whew; aroynt, avaunt;
5. *Surprise or curiosity*; as, Heigh, hey; eh, lo, la; oho, haha;
6. *A call generally*; as, Ho, soho, hallo, holla, hoy, ahoy, hem.

7. *A call to silence* ; as, Hush, hist, whist, mum ;
8. *Calls to animals* ; as, Whoa, haw, etc.

§ 343. Of the second class are : —

1. *Intensives* ; as, Indeed, truly ; zounds, sdeath (abbreviations of "By his wounds," "By his death"), with forms of adjuration ;
2. *Words of greeting and parting* ; as, Hail, welcome, good-morning, adieu, good-by, farewell, etc. ;
3. *Words of praise or censure* ; as, Good, bravo, well-done ; shame, etc. ;
4. *Words of incitement or checking* ; as, On ; hold, soft, etc.

OBSERVATION. — Many of this second class may often be treated as parts of elliptical sentences, and be parsed as verbs, or adjectives, or as nouns, to be connected in thought with words not expressed.

CHAPTER IX.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

§ 344. A COMPOUND SENTENCE consists of two or more simple sentences ; as, "The war is over and peace has come ;" "In the best books, great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours."

§ 345. The simple sentences that make up a compound sentence, may be joined, —

1. By a conjunction ; as, "All other points *and* duties are relative *and* subordinate, as parts *or* means ;"
2. By a relative ; as, "Those great masters of pedantry and jargon have coined several systems, *which* are all equally true, and of equal importance to the world."

§ 346. Compound Sentences are of different kinds, according to the relation between the simple sentences : —

1. COPULATIVE ; as, "For all his days are sorrows, and his travail grief ; yea, his heart taketh not rest in the night ;" "He confessed his crime as well as his companions ;" "Nothing can stand the test of his correct judgment, which is equally severe to poets and parsons ;"
2. DISJUNCTIVE ; as, "I am greatly deceived or he was present ;" "Either the universe had a creator or it exists by chance ;"
3. ADVERSATIVE ; as, "The wind has changed, but it continues to rain ;" "He is poor, yet he gives freely ;"
4. ILLATIVE ; as, "Matter is in itself inert ; therefore

there is a mind that moves it;" "I am at peace, for I have done right;"

5. COMPARATIVE; as, "Young men are fitter for execution than they are for counsel."

§ 347. In compound sentences, there is often an ellipsis of one or more of the three principal elements, the subject, the predicate, and the copula; as also of the Conjunction and of the Relative. As the sentence "John and James crossed the bridge," is equivalent to the compound sentence "John crossed the bridge and James crossed the bridge."

In the following sentences there is an ellipsis either of the Conjunction or the Relative: "Thy chains are burst, thy bonds are riven;" "Other foundation can no man lay than that is laid."

§ 348. Members of a simple sentence of the same order, whether clauses, phrases, or single words, are united like sentences by conjunctions into compound members. We have thus the following classes of compound members of sentences:—

1. COMPOUND CLAUSES: "If he had been present and had not participated in the disturbance, his case would be different;"

2. COMPOUND PHRASES; as, "A God above us and for us is the God we need;"

3. COMPOUND SUBJECTS; as, "James and John are well matched;"

4. COMPOUND PREDICATES; as, "The air is oxygen and nitrogen;"

5. COMPOUND COPULAS; as, "To be divine He is and must be;"

6. COMPOUND MODIFIERS; as, "The prudent and diligent man prospers;" "The suffering but virtuous poor claim our sympathy and help;" "The wisely and greatly good."

OBSERVATION 1.—Care will often be requisite in order to distinguish

whether the sentence is a compound sentence, or contains only compound elements. Thus, "John and James are diligent" is a compound sentence, having two distinct subjects, as it means "John is diligent; James is diligent." But "John and James are united" is a simple sentence with a compound subject; for the predicate cannot be affirmed of each separately, but only of the two united.

OBSERVATION 2.—It is to be borne in mind, further, that the relative clause, whether pronominal or adverbial, may be used as well in modifying as in connecting sentences. A close investigation will often be necessary, in order to determine in which way it is used.

§ 349. ORAL EXERCISES. *Distinguish the Relative Clauses in the following selections as modifying, or as forming compound sentences, or parts of sentences:—*

O soft are the breezes that play round the tomb. I have roamed where the hill-foxes howl, and eagles cry. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown. Thou scalp'st thy victim while his pulse yet beats. Study Nature, whose laws and phenomena are all deeply interesting. Peace rules the day, when reason rules the mind. While the subject starved, the beast was fed. What is more wonderful than the human eye, that sees all around? War is a tremendous evil to which many have unhappily resorted. Cherish true patriotism, which has its root in benevolence. Columbus was sent to the University of Padua, where he acquired such knowledge as was then taught. Macpherson, who has given us some highly original images, spoils half his work by forgetting that his bard was a Gaul. Without fairness of mind, which is only another phrase for disinterested love of truth, great native powers of understanding are perverted. The father of history was Herodotus, from whom we have an account of the Persian War. The age of miracles is past, while that of prejudice remains. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept. He visited Paris, where he continued his investigations. The book may be commended even to the tender mercies of the cynics, who may learn something from its large-hearted charity.

Distinguish the kind of Compound Sentence, or Com-

pound Member of a Sentence, in the following selections:—

Since thou art but of dust, be humble and be wise. What stronger breastplate than a heart untainted! They fly, or maddened by despair, fight but to die. Age shakes Athena's tower, but spares gray Marathon. Short views we take, nor see the lengths behind. Down bend the banks, the trees depending grow. Scarce could they see or hear their foes. I lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came. He had neglected or sacrificed their dearest interests, but he had struck their imaginations. When Columbus had finished, they sank on their knees, and raising their clasped hands to Heaven, their eyes filled with tears of joy and gratitude, they poured forth thanks to God for so great a providence. The sensation, though it was very novel, was exceedingly delightful. If they were unacquainted with the works of philosophers and poets, they were deeply read in the oracles of God.

He left to his infant successor a famished and miserable people, a beaten and humble army, provinces turned into deserts by misgovernment and persecution, factions dividing the army, a schism raging in the court, an immense debt, an innumerable household, inestimable jewels and furniture.

Virgil has, all along, kept his eye upon Homer; in many places, he has not so much imitated as he has literally translated him.

Such a medley of contradictions, and, at the same time, such an individual consistency, were never united in the same character.

His step was then firm, and his figure erect, though he seemed old and wayworn.

CHAPTER X.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

§ 350. A COMPLEX SENTENCE is one that contains a single sentence, whether simple or compound, combined with elements that are foreign to it.

ILLUSTRATION.—In the actual communication of thought to another mind, whether in speaking or in writing, three elements concur:—(1.) The mind communicating; (2.) The mind addressed; and, (3.) That which is communicated. This last element is the sentence properly and strictly considered. The presentation of the other two in discourse is thus foreign to the proper sentence, although it can be joined with it. When it is so joined, the proper sentence becomes so far complicated. It is complex. The same takes place when reference is made in the sentence to some other sentence.

Grammarians, who have treated clauses as a subordinate kind of sentences, have defined a complex sentence to be one containing a subordinate sentence, that is, a clause. But this view leads to error and to confusion. For, as has been shown in the preceding chapters, all such so-called subordinate sentences are but modifying members of a peculiar class, and can, like other modifiers, be assumed into the sentence to modify one of its three principal elements. A sentence is no more complicated or rendered complex by the assumption into it of such a modifying member than by the assumption of an adjective, or an adverb, or a modal. A thing is complicated, not by the introduction into it of its own proper elements, but only by mingling it with elements that are foreign to its own proper nature.

Whether a sentence is to be regarded as complex or not, will often be indicated by the arrangement of the words, the punctuation, or the supply or omission of particles. Thus, "I believe he will return to his country," is a simple sentence, "He will return to his country" being object of "believe." But the sentence: "He will, I believe, return to his country," is complex. Often the sentence is ambiguous; as, "In an investigation of this kind it must be confessed we should proceed with great caution." Punctuating with commas after *kind* and *confessed*, the sentence is complex. Without such punctuation, it is doubtful. While an insertion of the clausal particle "that," indicating that the part "we should proceed," etc., is an objective clause, would make a simple sentence. For further exemplifi-

cations, the following sentences are simple:—"It cannot be questioned that we are on the verge of a long and terrible conflict;" "I say again that we must seek peace by all worthy and honorable means." But the following are complex:—"We are on the verge, it cannot be questioned, of a long and terrible conflict;" "We must seek peace, I say again, by all worthy and honorable means."

§ 351. A sentence may be complicated in three ways: either, (1.) By joining with it references to the speaker's mind or mode of speaking; or, (2.) By joining with it references to the mind addressed; or, (3.) By joining with it references to other sentences.

§ 352. A sentence may be complicated with reference to the communicating mind, in two ways: either, (1.) With reference to the mode of thought; or, (2.) With reference to the mode of expression.

The forms of language in which these references are expressed, are such as these:—

1. "As I judge;" "As I have been accustomed to think;" "To be candid;"

2. "Briefly;" "summarily;" "in a word;" "in common speech;" "if I may say so;" "so to speak."

§ 353. A sentence is complicated with references to the mind addressed, in all forms of address; as, "My lads, I have done;" "O thou that with surpassing glory crowned," etc.

§ 354. A sentence is complicated with references to other sentences, in three ways:—

1. In *Quotations*; as, "His soul," observes a Spanish writer, "was superior to the age in which he lived;" "The air," he said, "is piercing cold;" "The time," I say, "has come;"

2. In the use of *Conjunctions*; as, —
Continuatives; "Moreover, by them is thy servant warned;" "He went, also, to Athens;"

Disjunctives; "I would, otherwise, have aided him;" "Else, his conclusion is false;"

Adversatives; "He rushed, notwithstanding, into the midst of the strife;"

Illatives; "Wherefore, we conclude," etc.; "Let us, then, be faithful to ourselves;"

3. By *Parentheses*; "And thou hast walked about, how strange a story, in Thebes' streets."

OBSERVATION.—Such words and phrases as *further*, *secondly*, in the first place, used as ordinals or continuatives, are in their proper nature adverbials, and may correctly be regarded as modifying some verb understood. They are, however, used as connectives; that is, they perform the part of proper conjunctions. But it is clear, they are not parts of the sentence proper.

§ 355. ORAL EXERCISE. Distinguish the kind of Complex Sentence in the following selections:—

I love thee, Winter, all unlovely as thou seem'st. Few speak, wild, stormy month, in praise of thee. The question is for Lucy to consider, continued Jonas, whether she ought to go or not. Accordingly, as soon as he commenced speaking, the company all rose and left. Therefore, in a case of such moment, let no false shame prevail over you. For, to return to our statue in the block of marble, we see it sometimes only begun to be chipped, sometimes rough-hewn. Whence, then, is this increased love of life which grows upon us with our years? Mother, he faintly said, come near me. I say, then, England is not against us. Look, in a word, at Protestant Ireland. He had, it seems, a way of holding himself. He gained from Heaven, 't was all he wished, a friend. Very few men, properly speaking, live at present; most are preparing to live another time.

The cultivation of cotton has thrown more money into Egypt than it has seen for many years, we had almost said, centuries. It is not often that an Englishman, let alone an English lady, lives among modern Egyptians. Men reasoned better, for example, in the time of Elizabeth than in the time of Egbert. Within certain limits, therefore, poetry may be improving while the poetical faculty is decaying

The first works of the imagination are, as we have said, poor and rude. Their great predecessors, it is true, were as bad critics as themselves. It is true, however, that in the spirit of the homely adage, we need not go through the whole to get at its flavor. Take my word, it is the most successful and pleasing method of conviction. They have what they call the sublime, that is, a style proper for poetry. Be this as it will, he employed the shears to good purpose. "I would not choose," says a French philosopher, "to see an old post pulled up with which I had been long acquainted."

CHAPTER XI.

EMOTIVE SENTENCE.

§ 356. AN EMOTIVE SENTENCE is one which expresses, instead of a judgment, a feeling or an object of feeling; as, "Joy, joy forever!" "O the thought that thou art safe!" "How heavy falls the foot of time!"

OBSERVATION.—An emotive sentence can be distinguished from a proper sentence which expresses feeling, only by this, that as the feeling predominates over the thought, the proper thought-element—the judgment, which, as we have seen, is the vital element of the normal sentence, is not expressed in any proper form.

§ 357. Emotive sentences are of the following classes:—

1. *Simple Exclamatory*, or *Interjectionals*; as, *Strange! Wonderful! Possible! Sorrowful!*

2. *Complex Exclamatory*; which combines an *expression of the emotions* with that of its object; as,

"O joy! that in our embers
Is something that doth live."

"O that I had died before thee!" "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"

3. *Addresses*;

"Thou glorious mirror! where th' Almighty's form
Glasses itself in tempests: in all time,
Calm or convulsed—in breeze, or gale, or storm,
Icing the pole, or in the torrid clime
Dark-heaving, boundless, endless, and sublime."

4. *Reflections*; as, "How beautiful upon the mountains are the feet of him that bringeth good tidings!"

"How did I hope to vex a thousand eyes!" "Too flattering joy!"

§ 358. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the kinds of Emotive Sentence in the following extracts:—*

I never dealt better since I was a man; all would not do.
A plague of all cowards! Let them speak.

What a dreadful sight!
O for breath to utter what is like thee!
How frightful the grave! how deserted and drear!
O what a pang of perfect blessedness transfixed her heart
from that faint, feeble cry: "It lives! it lives!"

"In winter, awful thou! with clouds and storms
Around thee thrown, tempest o'er tempest rolled,
Majestic darkness!"

Oh! that glorious globe the skylark talks of. How ~~le-~~
lightful to enjoy his notice!

Towns sacked! whole cities wrapped in flame.

"Just Heaven! say, is this the bay
Which warriors gain? Is this called Fame?"

O that those lips had language!
Sad soul! she could not be beguiled.

Who were they, whose screams were heard louder than
the roaring elements, imploring that aid which no human
power could afford them? His wife and child! Oh! heart-
rending agony!

Wealth and power and prosperity, how peculiarly transi-
tory and uncertain!

Strange contradiction in our nature, to which even the
wise are liable!

Wretch that I am, shall I plead the example of a vile
worm of the earth for disobeying the commands of my Sav-
ior?

O happy bond that seals my vows.
O that I knew where I could find him!

"But, oh! the laureled fool! that doats on fame,
Whose hope's applause, whose fear's to want a name;
O famished soul, which such thin food can feed!
O wretched labor, crowned with such a meed."

PART V. — CONSTRUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

DIVISIONS.

§ 359. In the Construction of the Sentence two things
need distinct consideration:—

1. The supply of the necessary materials;
2. The actual constructing of these materials, so as to ex-
press correctly and clearly the thought.

§ 360. The grammatical principles regulating the supply
of materials are,—

1. *Propriety*; which regulates the kind of supply, and re-
quires that each element of the sentence be allowed its own
and only its own function;
2. *Precision*; which regulates the quantity of supply, and
requires that so many, and only so many, of the materials
of expression be used as are requisite for the clear communi-
cation of the thought.

§ 361. The grammatical principles regulating the actual
construction of the materials of the sentence when supplied,
are,—

1. *Concord*; which looks to the Form of the expression,
and requires that the elements of the sentence be presented
in such form as to show their mutual relation;
2. *Arrangement*; which looks to the Position of the
materials in the sentence, and requires that the elements

be presented in such order as to show their mutual relation.

OBSERVATION 1. — The English language relies far more on the second of these principles of construction than on the first — on the position, than on the form of the expression. In this respect it contrasts widely with many other languages which are largely inflected. The following sentence from Horace is not complicated or involved to an unusual degree; certainly is not obscure: —

“Ego nec studium sine divite vena,
Nec rude quid possit video ingenium: alterius sic
Altera poscit opem res, et conjurat amica.”

Rendered word for word into English, this sentence reads: —

“I neither study without a rich vein
Nor rude what can see talent: the other's so
Each demands help thing, and conspires kindly.”

The connection which the Latin indicates by inflection, the English can show only by position, thus: — “I neither see what study without a rich vein, nor what rude talent can (avail); each thing so demands the other's help and kindly conspires (with it).”

OBSERVATION 2. — It will be more convenient to consider the last two of these principles first. We shall, therefore, in treating them, reverse the order in which they have been named.

§ 362. The four parts of Construction are: —

- I. CONCORD;
- II. ARRANGEMENT;
- III. PROPRIETY;
- IV. PRECISION.

CHAPTER II.

CONCORD.

§ 363. WHEN an object of thought is made the subject of a proposition, its connection with the verb is shown by its being put in the nominative case. Hence,

The subject of a sentence, or clause, is put in the Nominative Case.

OBSERVATION. — As in English the only proper case-distinction of nouns is that of the possessive or genitive, this rule has its chief application to the pronouns.

EXCEPTION. — In the first and third persons of the Imperative, when formed by the auxiliary *let*, the subject is in the Objective Case; as, *Let me rise; let them fall.*

OBSERVATION. — *Metinks* and *methought* are not exceptions, nor are they instances of incorrect expression; but, like *meseems*, are compounds of the old dative pronoun *me* with impersonal verbs. There were once in the language many such expressions, which have now become obsolete.

§ 364. The subject of an infinitive is put in the Objective Case; as, “For *me* to act thus, is base ingratitude;” “For *me* to draw those conclusions without knowing that I do so, seems altogether incomprehensible;” “For *me* to say a soldier lies, is stabbing.”

§ 365. The subject of a gerund is put in the Possessive or Genitive Case; as, “I was opposed to *his* writing the letter;” “*Whose* mauling them about their heads hath dulled those who in quickness exceeded their master;” “They became sensible of *their* having incurred great danger.”

OBSERVATION. — The reason for the apparently exceptional rule, that

the subject of the gerund should be in the possessive case, is that the noun-character of the gerund, which is a participial (§ 287), predominates over the verb-character; and therefore it takes its limiting word, when a noun, in the possessive.

The expression, "Without *himself* being aware of the fact," is not an exception to the rule; for "himself" is properly to be regarded as an uninflected word. Thus we say, "He *himself* was there," where "himself" is in the nominative.

§ 366. ORAL EXERCISES. *Correct the faults in the case of the subjects in the following sentences:—*

Them that be wise shall be happy.

John and me went together.

Him and James staid at home.

He was older than her.

They traveled as fast as him.

Whom did he think was absent?

I do not know whom in the whole company entirely escaped injury.

Whom do you suppose were left behind? John and me.

Them that honor me, I will honor; and them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed.

Nor hope to make others such as me.

Whom they suppose is drowned.

Whom three hours since were wrecked upon this shore.

He earnestly protested against them embarking in the enterprise.

This did not prevent John being inaugurated Duke of Normandy.

The accident was the natural consequence of them having been detained so long.

By me being kind to him, I won his confidence.

A great embarrassment arose from the regiment refusing to reenlist.

In it knowing the world, the mind is developed.

I have done so in the conviction of me doing what is right.

It is merely enounced that the prior member and the pos-

terior member stand to each other in the relation of reason and consequent, if existing, without it being determined whether they really exist or not.

The report was widely circulated of the steamship *Albion* being really lost.

It could not be expected they would believe without the gospel being preached to them.

§ 367. The pure or uncombined predicate is put in the same case as the subject; as, "The criminals were *they themselves*."

OBSERVATION 1.—The principle applies also to a part of the impure predicate standing in the factitive relation; as, "The criminals were said to be *they themselves*."

OBSERVATION 2.—It also applies to the infinitive phrase, in which the subject of the infinitive is in the objective case (§ 364); as, "I knew it to be *them*."

OBSERVATION 3.—The gerund takes its predicate noun in the objective case; as, "I was aware of its being *him*."

As a participial noun, and in its noun-character, the gerund takes its subject in the possessive (§ 365). As, thus, in respect of the subject, it surrendered its verb-character to that of the noun, so in respect of the predicate it surrenders the verb-character to the influence of the phrase in which it is the principal part, and takes the noun after it in the objective case, which is the case of the adjunct.

§ 368. To show its reference, the verb is put in the same person and number as the subject; as, "Thou *art* the man;" "They *were* the offenders."

OBSERVATION.—This principle is generally to be interpreted in reference to the *meaning* rather than the *form* of the expression. We have, therefore, the following rules, which might seem to be exceptions to the principle, if the form of the expression were exclusively regarded, or at least, to be cases to which the principle might not seem to have full application.

I. Where a verb has several subjects of different persons or numbers, it takes the person and number of the nearest; as, "Whether thou or I *am* in fault;" "He or they *are* to be promoted;" "No wars nor any rumor of wars *disturb* my quiet."

II. The leading subject determines the person and number; as, "They as well as I are to be regarded."

This principle outweighs the foregoing, when the two come in conflict. Indeed, strictly speaking, the second subject may properly in such cases be regarded as the subject of a verb to be understood.

This rule has a special application to cases where a distributive is introduced. If the distributive is made the leading subject, the verb takes the singular; otherwise the number of the principal word. Thus: "When my female regiment is drawn up in array, upon my giving the word to handle their fans, each of them shakes her fan at me with a smile;" "They have, each, their distinct laws and revelations."

III. A collective noun, when singular in form, takes a plural verb, if the thought turns upon the individuals of which it is composed rather than upon the whole group as one; as, "The assembly were from different communities."

OBSERVATION. — The numeral collectives, as they may be called, such as *dozen*, *score*, *hundred*, *thousand*, etc., as they take a singular definitive, as "one dozen," "a score," "this hundred," "that thousand," are clearly in the singular form; and when used to denote a unity, take a singular verb; as, "My thousand is the meanest in Manasseh;" "One dozen now costs fifty cents." If taken as a plurality, they take plural verbs like other collectives.

IV. A compound subject, if denoting but a single person or thing, takes a singular verb; as, "The statesman and the orator at last sleeps;" "The scholar and the poet was also the Christian and the patriot."

REMARK. — Such sentences are equivalent to "He who was the statesman," etc. The words are virtually appositives, and do not denote different objects.

V. A compound subject, if taken distributively, takes a singular verb; as, "Each man, each woman, each child has a duty to discharge;" "Study or play is, for this hour, at your option;" "No man, no set of men is authorized to impose such a law." But in such expressions as "The Graces each their several ministry had lent," the distributive *each* is an appositive, and not the grammatical subject of the verb.

§ 369. ORAL EXERCISES. *Faults in Concord of the predicate to be corrected:—*

It was him that Horace Walpole called a man.

We was glad to hear it.

He thinks he is to do as he please.

There was more persons there than I expected.

I knew it was him.

He dare not do it.

The horse and carriage was sold.

Has the articles been sent away?

John or I is to go.

He or they is in fault.

The hose was well knit.

The regiment was tall.

The company were large.

The assemblage were numerous.

It was a sick population.

The council were divided in opinion.

The society were distracted.

The party were brilliant.

The odds were in his favor.

The Acts of the Apostles were written by Luke.

The bare recital of these horrors and atrocities awaken inextinguishable abhorrence.

These abominable principles, and this more abominable avowal of them, demands the most decisive indignation.

"And all the way the joyous people sings,
And with their garments strews the paved street."

"Both our remedies
Within thy help and holy physic lies."

"Whiles I threat he lives:
Words to the heat of deeds too cold breath gives."

The moon's rays, during each twenty-four hours, pass in northern latitudes from ten to thirty storms, not one of which are indebted to her for their existence.

That men often act as fools in regard to their higher interests are beyond question.

From what sources these reports originated, have been diligently investigated.

We see not the several leaves which in the one, nor the several blades of grass which in the other, each contributes its effect.

The authority of the father and of the mother are concurrent.

The audience was gratified.

Every bayonet and every sword glisten in the sunlight.

The man or his counselors is to be censured.

I understood it to have been he.

You was invited to be present.

It is his strong passions that has proved his ruin.

John and I was away.

There was sold in the market to-day sixty head of cattle.

I would not have done it, if I had been him.

Either disposition or power were wanting.

The number of soldiers in arms were more than two thousand.

The jury was agreed.

A large part of the productions consist of wheat and barley.

Was you refused a hearing?

The motives, as well as the action itself, is to be taken into consideration.

The legislature have adjourned.

The public is invited.

He, the idolized general and patriot, the learned scholar and profound philosopher, the revered philanthropist and Christian, have fallen.

The greatest warrior of the age, conqueror of Italy, humbler of Germany, terror of the North, condemn the fickleness of fortune in the memorable boast, "I shall go down to posterity with the code in my hand."

Each hour and moment are to be improved.

John or James have gone.

Either the father or the son have been deceived.

No treaty and no signature are able to bind them.

And so was also James and John, the sons of Zebedee.

For if the blood of bulls and goats, and the ashes of a heifer sprinkling the unclean, sanctifieth to the purifying of the flesh.

Good order in our affairs, not mean savings, produce great profits.

The religion of these people, as well as their customs and manners, were strangely misrepresented.

Compassion mounts to a degree much higher, if its objects are both him who suffers and him who originates the suffering.

Here be them that perceive it and that quickly too.

She or I are lost.

"And grief that young Octavius with Mark Antony
Have made themselves so strong."

A rusty nail or a crooked pin shoot up into prodigies.

Consider how notoriously our opinion in secular matters are affected by our prejudices and passions.

The physics of the Pythagoreans possess but little scientific value. Their ethics, also, are defective.

But each of them have stood under separate disadvantages.

§ 370. To show their reference, pronominal words are put in the same number, gender, and person as the words for which they stand; as, "I *that speak to you.*"

"Whence and what art thou, execrable shape!
That dar'st" —

"'T is of a lady in *her* earliest youth."

OBSERVATION 1. — In applying this principle, reference must generally be made to the form of the expression. Thus the plural form "you," which is used when only a single person is addressed, requires the plural verb and pronoun.

There are exceptions, however, as we say "yourself," not "*yourselfes*," when only one person is meant. "*Ourselves*" is also sometimes used.

The plural pronoun of the first person is used when only one individual is meant, in two cases: —

1. As the plural of *dignity*. Thus a sovereign uses the plural *we, our, us*, when speaking of himself in formal transactions.

2. As the plural of representation, as when an essayist, a reviewer, or an editor uses the plural as if he were the mouth-piece of others. It is this plural of representation which sometimes appears in pulpit discourses, but improperly. Probably the first use sprang out of the second — a king conceiving himself as speaking in behalf of the State, the body of citizens, and as representing them.

After *many a* in the same clause, the pronoun and the verb are alike in the singular but in a subsequent clause or sentence, the reference may be rather to the sense; as, "Many a hero *lays down his* life; but *their names* shall be precious."

OBSERVATION 2. — In figurative expression, the gender is lawfully changed; as, "Is this the character of British justice? Are these *her* features? Is this *her* countenance? Is this *her* gait or *her* mien?" In such cases, care should be taken that there be consistency in the use of the gender.

OBSERVATION 3. — *His* was the regular possessive or genitive of the neuter, as well as of the masculine pronoun. *Its* was introduced at a late stage in the formation of our language. It does not occur in our received version of the Scriptures; but *his* is used instead; as, "If the salt have lost *his* savor" (Mat. v. 13); "The fruit-tree yielding fruit after *his* kind." So, also, frequently in Shakespeare; as, —

"In such a time as this it is not meet
That every nice offense should bear *his* comment."

OBSERVATION 4. — When a verb and a pronoun are to be used, both relating to a subject that may be taken in either number, they should be put in the same number. It is incorrect, thus, to say, "The community is responsible for what takes place among *themselves*."

OBSERVATION 5. — Such titles as *lordship, grace, majesty, etc.*, take verbs in the third person singular, but pronouns in the masculine or feminine gender, and not in the neuter, as consistency might seem to require. Thus, "This imitation must have stuck a little with your lordship, *who is* used to examine things by a better standard;" "His grace repeatedly pledged *himself* to the House."

OBSERVATION 6. — A collective noun taken as a singular noun is to be regarded as of the neuter gender; as, "The army did *itself* honor."

OBSERVATION 7. — If the objects referred to are of different persons, the pronoun takes the first person rather than the second or third, and the second rather than the third; as, "John and I will take *our* books; you and James will take *yours*."

OBSERVATION 8. — When the reference is to two or more singular objects, the pronoun is in the plural, if they are taken collectively, but in the singular if taken distributively; as, "John and James gave up *their* walk;" "Each man and boy took off *his* hat;" "France or England will lend *her* aid."

OBSERVATION 9. — The compound relatives, *whoever, etc.*, should be put in the case in which the relative would be if the compound were resolved into the antecedent and the relative; as, "*Whoever* the cap fitted might wear it;" not *whoever*, because when resolved the sentence would be, "*He whom* the cap," etc. There is strictly an ellipsis of the subject in such cases.

§ 371. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected: —*

He cannot see one in prosperity without envying them.

John and James are faithful to his studies.

The active mind of man seldom rests satisfied with their present condition.

The committee were divided in its sentiments.

No one should incur censure for being tender of their reputation.

You, who was present, are a competent witness of the transaction.

Let each esteem others better than themselves.

By discussing what relates to each particular, in their order, we shall better understand the subject.

One or the other will take their turn.

Either of these arguments will gain for themselves great favor.

Each of the four neighbors had their dwellings burned.

They which seek wisdom shall certainly find her.

There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard.

The mind of man should not be left without something on which to employ his energies.

The plaintiff's counsel now had a hard task imposed on it.

He is like a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.

If any one has been slighted, let them make it known.

Thou and James and John may divide the apples among them.

My brother and I, together with two cousins, were at their respective tasks.

I perceive that thou art a pupil, who possesses bright parts, but who has cultivated them but little.

"You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song,
Till nobly rises emulous thy own."

He alluded to Nero, who is a name for all that is cruel. Neither of us were absent.

Thou art a friend that has often relieved me, and that has not deserted me in the time of need.

Thou art my father's brother, else would I reprove you.

Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion.

Despise no infirmity of mind or body, nor any condition of life, for they may be thy own lot.

Each man of the county came with arms in their hands.

The use shows how mankind is obliged to this gentleman for their knowledge.

Every body is bound to do diligently all the good they can.

How was a foreign language to be learnt as long as either party could only speak their own?

Every body can offer up their prayers for those who need them.

§ 372. Compellatives, or objects addressed, are to be put in the Nominative Case; as, "O thou eternal One!" "O pardon me, thou piece of bleeding earth!"

OBSERVATION. — The pronoun of the first person is put in the objective case in exclamatory sentences; as, "Ah me!" "Me miserable!"

§ 373. Appositives must be put in the same case with the nouns which they modify; as, "The earth is the Lord's — his who made it."

OBSERVATION. — In such expressions as the following, "The earth is the Lord's — its creator and ruler," "creator" and "ruler" are not proper appositives. The sentence is elliptical and fully expressed it would be, "The

earth is the Lord's, who is its creator and ruler;" or, "He is its creator and ruler."

§ 374. An object, when an action or a relation expressed in a verb or an adjunct is to be limited by it, should be in the Objective Case; as, "The nation honored *them*;" "The lot fell upon *him*;" "He gave *me* the book."

OBSERVATION 1. — The passive object, the specifying object, and the factitive object, follow the verb without the preposition; the remote object if separated from the verb requires the preposition; as, "He gave *me* the book;" "He gave the book *to me*."

Such expressions as "Sending *of* them such profitable guests" (*Bunyan*), are accordingly faulty.

OBSERVATION 2. — The preposition is often omitted before an object expressed in the infinitive or a clause; as, "Worthy to be loved;" in this case to being not a preposition but the sign of the infinitive; "None so poor to do him reverence;" "Deserving that he should be held in perpetual remembrance by his countrymen."

OBSERVATION 3. — The gerund is properly followed by the passive object without a preposition. But as the gerund-form in *ing* may legitimately be used as a noun, dropping its gerundive character, in which case the object limiting the noun must depend on a preposition, the tendency of late has been to regard this form as a noun unless the gerundive character is clearly intended. Thus, "The sending of the messenger" is generally to be preferred to "The sending the messenger." This last form is not, however, as some writers seem to think, ungrammatical; for it has the support of the best usage.

§ 375. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected* : —

He invited my brother and I into his garden. They who he had most injured, he had the greatest reason to love. They took the back street, shunning him and I. Do you know who you are speaking to? This book was given the king and I, at our coronation. It is the only time we ever read of Paul and he meeting together. You saw Cassio and she together. Markland, who, with Jorton and Thirby, Johnson calls three contemporaries of great eminence. Who once again I tender to thy hand, O thee villain!

"Him shall never come again to me;
But we shall truly one day go to he,
Lest there be no solace left for thou and me."

The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts.

We adore the Divine Being, he who is from eternity to eternity.

He did not know who to suspect.

Who did they send to him on so important an errand?

He who committed the offense, you should correct, not I who am innocent.

We should fear and obey the Author of our being. Even he who has power to reward or punish us forever.

Esteeming themselves wise, they become fools.

By observing of truth, you will command esteem as well as secure peace.

The changing times and seasons, the removing and setting up kings, belong to Providence alone.

To poor we there is not much hope remaining.

Does that boy know who he is speaking to?

All must give account each for himself.

Between him and I there is some disparity of years; but none between him and she.

He spoke of Solomon, he who was the wisest of men.

And will you condemn me to a cruel death—I who so often risked my life for yours?

Who should I meet the other day but my old friend?

My son is going to be married to I don't know who.

§ 376. The subject of an attribute, when the attribute is expressed by a noun or gerund, should be in the Possessive Case; as, "*John's* eagerness;" "*His* disclosure of the secret;" "*Their* presence;" "*Our* inferiority;" "*Her* delaying the messenger frustrated the scheme;" "*Things* growing to themselves are *growth's* abuse."

OBSERVATION 1.—This principle extends to proper concretes as well as to abstracts, when the concrete is conceived of as something attributed; in other words, as something that may be predicated as belonging to the limited noun. Thus we say "*Raphael's* picture," when we wish to modify or limit *picture*, as that which may be attributed to *Raphael*, either as his possession, his production, or as his origination; in other words, as that of which he is the owner, the producer, or the original. The attribute of a subject and the object of an action or relation, can neither be properly expressed thus in the possessive case. Hence the impropriety of such expressions as "*In our* midst;" "*Their* separation;" "*God's* love," in the sense of "*in the midst of us*;" "*the separation of them*;" "*the love of God*." At all events, the use of the so-called objective genitive has disappeared from the best recent English literature, however allowable it may have been in former times.

The principle extends also to phrases which take the sign of the possessive on the final word of a noun or adjective; as, "*The kingdom of God's* sake;" "*The Caliph of Bagdad's* divan;" "*Maximilian, the Emperor's* palace;" "*The Emperor Maximilian's* palace." But this use is inelegant when the phrase is long or the reference to the principal part of it is obscure, and the form of the expression should be changed, as by substituting an adjunct.

If, however, the possessive phrase be placed after the word which it limits, the principal word of the phrase should take the sign of the possessive; as, "*I dined to-day at Delavol's, the Portuguese Envoy.*" — *Swift*. "*The palace was Maximilian's the emperor.*"

On the same ground, if the possessive phrase is composed of several nouns all alike relating to the same object, the last only takes the sign of the possessive; as, "*James, Peter, and Henry's* father." But if relating to different objects, the sign of the possessive must be affixed to each; as, "*Peter's and Henry's* father."

OBSERVATION 2.—In such expressions as "*That lot of Mr. Johnson's,*" "*This tongue of mine,*" the preposition *of* is to be viewed simply as a sign of identification, as in the phrases "*the question of order,*" "*the island of Sicily.*" The expressions are precisely equivalent to "*that lot, to wit, Mr. Johnson's,*" "*this tongue, that is, mine.*" It is incorrect to suppose a plural not expressed, as, "*of Mr. Johnson's lots,*" "*tongue of my tongues,*" no plural being supposable in the latter example. See § 301, Obs. 2.

OBSERVATION 3.—It will be observed that two distinct principles come in to modify the rules of the possessive. One is clearness, the other is euphony. Clearness thus forbids putting the possessive sign on a word far removed from the principal part of the possessive phrase; for the very object of affixing the sign, which is to show the reference of the limiting part of the sentence to the part limited, would be defeated. Euphony, also, is a principle that governs everywhere in language, however subordinately to other principles. There may be doubt, sometimes, whether one or another expression is preferable. No general rule can be framed that will dispose

of every possible form of expression. It must suffice to lay down the following rules in reference to the modification of a noun by case:—

1. The modifying noun takes as its sign 's, with an apostrophe, except that after plural nouns ending in s, only the apostrophe is added.

2. But one sign is necessary if it sufficiently mark the noun as a modifying noun; therefore in a phrase or compound possessive, the sign may be placed on the last noun.

3. Clearness and euphony are to be secured by changing the form of expression if necessary. This may generally be done by the use of the preposition *of*. Thus instead of saying "The composition of water was ascertained by Dr. Priestley of Birmingham's Experiments," it would be better to say, "by the experiments of Dr. Priestley of Birmingham."

§ 377. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected:—*

These orations are Cicero the most eloquent of men's. I bought the cloth at Jackson's the merchant tailor's. I will not for David's thy father's sake. This house is Mr. Smith the governor's. The heaven of heavens is the Lord thy God's. Mens' dispositions bend before occasion. A mother and a father's care is Natures' gift for mans' advantage. It was the children and their sole surviving parents' misfortune to be cast upon the charity of others. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. These poems are Chaucer, the great early English poet's. Both the physician and the surgeon's advice is required. It is Othello's pleasure, our noble and valiant general's.

OBSERVATION.—When several modifiers are to be introduced, they should be used in harmony with one another, and with the rest of the sentence. This general principle has diverse applications which may be separately considered.

§ 378. The time indicated by tense-inflections should be in harmony with that indicated by other parts of the sentence. Thus, "I have been sick yesterday" is faulty, inasmuch as *have been* expresses reference to present time, while the other modifier, *yesterday*, denotes past time. It should be, "I was sick yesterday." So, "I expected to have gone to New York yesterday" is faulty; for *have gone* indicates past time, while *expected* looks to future time; we cannot expect what is past. Likewise, "Ptolemy taught that the

earth was in the center of the universe," is faulty, because *was* expresses past time, when no reference to time should be expressed.

Unlike some other languages, the English language does not refer the time of a dependent verb to the time of the principal, unless in the case of an infinitive. Thus we say, using the infinitives, "I confessed myself to be guilty;" "I confessed myself to *have been* guilty of playing truant the day before." But in the use of a clause, we say, "I confessed I *was* guilty;" "I confessed that I *had been* guilty of truancy the day before."

§ 379. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected:—*

In the reign of Henry II. all foreign commodities have been plenty in England. He was absent this whole week. This letter will reach you when the telegram that goes before it has arrived. That writer has given an account of the manner in which Christianity has formerly been propagated among heathen nations. They proposed to have visited Rome the following year. The Supreme Court decided that subsequent legislatures could not revoke charters granted by previous legislatures, except in accordance with the provisions of the charters themselves. These men were under high obligations to have adhered to their friend in every situation in life. After I visited Europe, I returned to America. The voyage has not been so stormy as we expected it to have been. If the acquisitions he has made should have been misapplied, he will be responsible, not his teacher. The most ignorant tribes of men, when they have looked round on the earth and on the heavens, could not avoid ascribing their origin to some designing cause. Next March I shall be living ten years. He was in great haste, from fear that he should have been tardy. Remember that you might be disappointed in your plans. He will return, if he could find a conveyance. Studying for years under the best teachers, he is proficient in the art. The acalephs, or jelly-fishes, have

lived in the earliest ages of creation. They would readily believe this statement, if they can break away from their prejudices. Offices are not created that politicians might plunder the treasury. He said he is in great haste and must be excused. He declared himself to have been innocent of the charge now brought against him. He professed to be very studious the day before; but admitted that on that day he has been negligent. They stoutly maintained the sovereignty of the State to be paramount, but freely acknowledged that obedience to its authority at that time is unjustifiable. One would be apt to think that it would have been more reasonable to have said, we have done no more than it was our duty to have done. Must it not be expected that he would have defended an authority which had been so long exercised without controversy? His sea-sickness was so great that I often feared he would have died before our arrival.

§ 380. When an action or relation is to be modified by a clause in respect to its object as an object of purpose, the verb of the clause should be in time either future or indefinite in reference to the purpose; as, "I will see that he *do* it;" "He managed that they *should arrive* too late."

OBSERVATION. — When the clause expresses an object which is not one of purpose on the part of the subject of the principal verb, the verb in the clause may take present or definite time according to the meaning to be conveyed. Thus, "I will see how he *does* it;" "I will see how he *will do* it;" "He managed that they *arrived* too late."

The reason of the rule is plain. A purpose looks to the future; its object must therefore be represented, if at all, in time future to that of the purpose; as, "I will take care that he *shall attend* to it." But the expression of this time of the object may be withheld; and in this case the forms of the verb that are indefinite as to time are employed; as, "I will take care that he *attend* to it." But it would be clearly incorrect to say, "I will take care that he *attends* to it."

§ 381. ORAL EXERCISES. *Faults to be corrected.*

He will take due heed lest he miscarries. Be careful that

thou breakest not any of the rules. He is so sensible of his guilt that he dare not reply. I have toiled hard that he lives at ease. I told him that I will go. I promised him that if he came back to-morrow I shall reward him well for his promptness. Lord Hubert must be classed with Descartes rather than with Bacon, though chronology forbids the idea that he can have learned any thing from Descartes.

§ 382. A modal clause modifying a conditional verb expressed in the form of the imperfect tense, takes the same tense; as, "*Were* he penitent, he should be pardoned;" "Next new-year's day would be a happy occasion if our friends *could* be all with us again."

In other cases, it is either in indefinite time or such as the sequence of time requires; as, "I can go, if it *be* pleasant;" "I can go if it *shall be* pleasant;" "If he *repent*, he will be pardoned;" "If he *will repent*, he will be pardoned;" not, "If he *shows* penitence when his father shall see him, he will be pardoned."

§ 383. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected.*

Though he urges me yet more earnestly, I shall not comply, unless he advances more forcible reasons. I shall return on Monday unless it rains. Though he be high he hath respect to the lowly. Though he were her friend, he did not attempt to justify her conduct. If he does but intimate his desire, it will be sufficient to produce obedience. He will, on his return, find ready employment if he proves expert in his business. Though he falls, he shall not be utterly cast down. Was he ever so great, such conduct would debase him. Was I to tell the whole truth, I should not be credited.

§ 384. In compound sentences or compound members of sentences, the forms should be alike, in order to show the union.

This principle has application wherever a choice is allowed in the modes of expression. The following instances of faults in respect of this rule may be particularly named :

1. In the union of the antique and the modern styles ; as, "He stoppeth not to consider his ways and presses on thoughtlessly to ruin."

2. In the union of auxiliary forms with simple forms ; as, "Did he visit Rome and forgot that a Brutus ever lived there?"

3. In the union of plural with singular forms ; as, "Thou livest worse than the heathen, and they might teach you wisdom."

4. In the selection of pronouns ; as, "He *that* weighs the matter impartially and well, and *who* also considers," etc.

5. In the union of proper adjectives with adjective clauses ; as, "His piety was genuine and fervent, and that mingled with the whole course of his thoughts and actions."

6. In the union of nouns and adjectives as like parts of a compound predicate ; as, "When ignorance is not willful and sin."

§ 385. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected* : —

The glory that fills immensity and inhabiteth eternity.

Thou art the Messiah, the Son of God, who was to come into the world, and hast been so long promised and desired.

Then did the officer lay hold on him and executed him immediately.

He finds a law written upon his inner being, and which is imperative.

Thou art a friend that hast often relieved me, and who has not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need.

He is a man that approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommends it to others.

CHAPTER III.

ARRANGEMENT.

§ 386. GRAMMATICAL ARRANGEMENT respects, —

1. The order of the principal elements of the sentence,
2. The order of the subordinate elements in reference to each other and to the principal elements.

§ 387. The logical order of the principal elements of the sentence is: first, the subject; next, the copula; and, last, the predicate; as, "The sun shines;" "To acquaint us with ourselves may be one use of the precept;" "That his care for his works ceased at their publication is hardly credible."

OBSERVATION. — To this general rule there are many exceptions, as other principles come in to modify the application of it. The rule should be observed, however, unless in a clear case of exception; and especially should not be departed from when clearness forbids.

1. In interrogation, the copula, or a part of it, or the interrogative word or phrase in the predicate, is placed first; as, "Are our consciences so tender?" "Can you aid me with propriety?" "Will you be permitted to go?" "What a careless, even deportment hath your borrower?" "How often is the labor of years thus lost forever?"

2. Imperatives take the subject after the copula; as, "Be thou my guardian!" "Let the world scoff."

3. Conditional clauses without conjunctions take the subject after the copula; as, "Could they have been contented with moderate employments and moderate gains, they might have prospered in their business;" "Had they been wiser

they would have escaped the loss ;" "Be they ever so sharp, they will not outwit him."

4. For emphatic distinction and in passionate expression, the predicate or a part of the predicate may be placed first ; as, "Beautiful, no doubt, are all the forms of Nature ;" "Around thy hills and mountains cling, like gathering mists, the mighty memories of the Revolution ;" "Upon us, then, peculiarly, devolves the duty of feeding the fires upon that kindly hearth ;" "Here floats the same banner which rustled above our boyish heads."

OBSERVATION. — To soften the repulsiveness of an inversion of the logical order of the assertive sentence to an English ear, when emphasis or passion does not prompt it, the words *there* and *it* are used to introduce the sentence. They are mere expletives when so used, having no meaning, and only serve to indicate a departure from the regular order of construction. They cannot be parsed, for they in no way affect the thought. See § 339. "*There* lies, upon the other side of the wide Atlantic, a beautiful island, famous in story and in song." "*It* is reported that the troops are disbanded." "*It* will be said that our passions are not in our power." "*It* is imagined by many that whenever they aspire to please, they are required to be merry."

5. The order may be inverted in order to show a reference to the preceding sentence ; as, "This he did habitually."

6. The logical order, once more, yields often to the demands for consistency ; as in the sentence, "Silver and gold have I none," emphasis having inverted the order by placing the object of the action first ; the subject and verb also in consistency change places, — *have I* instead of *I have*. So in the following sentence there is a similar inversion : "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man *shall his blood* be shed."

7. The restrictions of poetical composition render necessary much wider departures from the proper logical order than is allowable in prose discourse. In poetry, moreover, form rules, and this principle of form requires various deviations from strict logical order in which clearness is the controlling principle.

§ 388. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults to be corrected* : —

If a man bring into the solitary retreat of age a mind vacant, unimproved, where no knowledge dawns, no ideas rise, which within itself has nothing to feed upon, many a day, heavy and comfortless, he must necessarily pass.

This we question, at least as it has always impressed with a feeling of melancholy.

Than the analogies just given I know of none stronger.

Than this no inquiry can be of greater interest.

The rising tomb a lofty column bore.

Both Silo this and Jordan did excel.

"But stings and sharpest steel did far exceed
The sharpness of his cruel-reading claws."

From their errors of education, all their miseries have proceeded.

If there be any first principles of wisdom, it undoubtedly is this : The distresses that are removable, endeavor to remove ; bear with as little disquiet as you can the distresses which cannot be removed.

War at that time there was none.

Into this hole thrust themselves these Roman senators.

§ 389. The most general principle of arrangement in regard to the subordinate elements is, that the related parts should be placed in the closest proximity, according to the degree of relationship.

OBSERVATION. — This general principle should always govern, unless some other clearly come in to impose a deviation from it. It may yield to the demands of Emphasis, or those of Euphony and Harmony, except when clearness, which is the governing principle in the construction of the sentence, absolutely forbids.

For Emphasis as well as for Harmony, thus, the modifier of a subject may be placed after the predicate ; as, "Habits must be acquired of temperance and of self-denial." The regular order in compound modifiers, also, may be changed, so that the most important in thought or the weightiest on the ear shall be placed last.

§ 390. Modifiers should be placed as near as may be to the principal parts which they modify.

They should also generally precede.

§ 391. Simple definitives, and those which express properties of the object, must generally precede; while definitives by adjuncts and clauses, and also those which express relations, usually follow their nouns.

Epithets may also, like modifiers by relations, follow their objects.

EXAMPLES. — *Three thousand brave men* were there. The person *who told me her story* had seen her at a masquerade. *An elevated genius employed in little things* appears like the sun in *his evening* declination. Every inhabitant of a town, *trader or otherwise*, was liable to be claimed by the curia. The questions *of faith and doctrine* became more complex. Agriculture and commerce, *insecure as to their accumulations, weak and exposed*, declined in this chaotic condition.

When several adjectives precede the noun, epithets generally should be placed nearest the noun; and then of the definitives the most generic in order. Thus Lamb says: "Even ourself, in these our humbler lucubrations, tune our best measured cadences," placing the epithet *humbler* after the definitives *these our*, and *measured* after *our best*. If the epithet belongs only to the object as limited by a definitive, it must of course precede the definitive; as, "The *noble English cavalier*;" the epithet *noble* being limited to *English cavalier* specifically. So we say "a tall young man," because we wish to specify one who is "tall" from among the larger class of "young men." If, however, we were speaking of two classes of men, *tall* and *short*, and wished to designate one of the former class who was young, we should say *a young tall man*. Definitives, demonstratives, and numerals generally, precede attributives; as, "These many *thrifty trees*."

The controlling principle is that each limiting word should limit immediately the next higher class. It should be remarked that this principle of arrangement does not respect compound adjective modifiers, whether the connecting conjunction is expressed or not. A rhetorical, not a grammatical principle, determines the order in which the several adjectives that are brought together in a compound adjective phrase should be arranged.

§ 392. Adverbials should generally precede but ever be closely joined with the attribute words which they modify; as, "They *habitually* ascribed every event to the will of the Great Being, for whose power nothing was *too* vast, for whose inspection nothing was *too* minute;" "They were *deeply* read in the oracles of God;" "The explanation may *easily* be found."

§ 393. Modals properly precede but should ever be closely joined with their copulas; as, "These, *perhaps*, are foolish feelings."

If the copula is composite, the proper place of the modal is between the parts; as, "The task has *probably* been finished;" "He has *not* been absent long."

OBSERVATION. — When the copula and the predicate are combined in one word, the position of the modifier may often determine whether it modifies the copula or the predicate. If it be placed before the verb, it will more easily be taken to modify the copula; if after the verb, it will modify the predicate. Thus, in the sentence, "Government naturally forms itself," *naturally* modifies the copula. The meaning is, it is a natural thing, a thing consequently to be expected, that government should form itself. But in the sentence "Government forms itself naturally," the adverb modifies the predicate. The meaning is: Government forms itself in a natural way.

§ 394. The object of an action or relation should follow closely the word expressing the action or relation, as, "The smith hammers *the iron*;" "The drought is fatal *to the springing vegetation*."

§ 395. Objects standing in different degrees of rela-

tionship to the action, follow in the order of dependence; the passive object, first; next, the remote object; and the object of result, last: as, "His father introduced him to his new associates;" "He attached himself to their society solely for their benefit."

OBSERVATION. — To this rule, which should be observed unless for clear reasons, there are many exceptions, as it yields readily to other principles, when clearness does not forbid. Thus the remote object is, with a view to harmony, often placed before the passive object; as, "He gave him the book;" "It exerted upon society a prodigious influence." So, also, often for emphasis the order is inverted; as, "To the Bible he more and more exclusively addressed himself."

§ 396. Pronominal words and all correlative words should be so placed as to show the relation.

§ 397. In complex sentences, the extraneous parts should be introduced either at the beginning or at the first separation in the parts of the sentence; as, "The poet, *says Schiller*, is a citizen not only of his country but of his time;" not, "The poet is a citizen, *says Schiller*," etc.

OBSERVATION. — In the application of this, as of all the rules of arrangement, as divers principles come into play, there is large occasion for the exercise of judgment and taste. Only general directions can be given. In regard to the insertion of extraneous elements, as in the complex sentence, it may be remarked that the widest separation between the parts of the sentence is that between the principal elements: the next is that between the principal modifiers of these principal elements; and then successively in the higher sub-modifiers. The extraneous element can seldom be introduced between an adjective-element and a noun, unless the modifier is placed after the noun; nor can it generally be well inserted there, unless the modifier be an extended phrase or clause.

In regard to arrangement, generally, the gradation of governing principles is: First, clearness; secondly, emphasis; and, thirdly, euphony and harmony in the verbal expression. The gradation in the sentence in reference to its parts is: First, the relation between the principal elements, — the subject, the predicate, and the copula, — which should ever be made to stand out clear and commanding over all the subordinate relations; secondly, the relations of principal modifiers; and then successively those of the sub-modifiers. The gradation of elements modifying objects of thought is: First, Properties, including, (1.) Those of Quality, and, (2.) Those of Ac-

tion; secondly, those of Relation, including, (1.) Those of Condition; (2.) Those of Relation Proper.

The highest degree of compactness that can be secured in subservience to these general principles, marks the perfection in the construction of the sentence. To interpose elements so as to obscure relations or to widen them unnecessarily, and to make a subordinate part more prominent than a higher part, are faults to be shunned.

§ 398. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in arrangement to be corrected: —*

Under § 391. Whether a choice has, in any country, been made altogether unexceptionable, seems doubtful.

Many associations are united by laws the most arbitrary.

The bright two birds walked about for a few minutes.

He bought a black pair of kid gloves, and a gracefully fitting pair of gaiters.

The leafy covert of a woody wild dingle.

These rumors were mere rural libelous gossip.

An old, venerable, tall man just then broke in upon the circle.

Under § 392. The houses of the gentry were supplied not more plentifully.

Their literary stores consisted generally of a prayer-book and a receipt-book.

You may find which way the wind sits more easily by throwing up a straw in the air than any heavier substance.

We appear to differ in sentiments from each other often, merely from the inaccuracy of terms.

From what I have said, you will perceive readily the subject I am to proceed upon.

Beautiful women possess seldom any great accomplishments, because they study behavior rather than solid excellence for the most part.

Its progress will be gradual and visible when considerable effects only have been produced.

Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also.

It is impossible continually to be at work.

He was pleasing not often, because he was vain.

Under § 393. The same laws obtain through the whole system, most probably, in which we are connected.

You have read the book certainly, but not with attention.

Under §§ 394, 395. Though virtue borrows no assistance from, yet it may be often accompanied by, the advantages of fortune.

Praise, like gold and diamonds, owes to its scarcity only its value.

Study to unite with firmness gentle manners.

Never delay till to-morrow, for to-morrow is not yours; and though you should live to enjoy it, you must not overload it with a burden not its own, what reason and conscience tell you ought to be performed to-day.

Form your measures with prudence; but all anxiety about the issue divest yourselves of.

They were refused entrance into, and forcibly driven from the house.

Under § 396. I have considered the subject with a good deal of attention, upon which I was desired to communicate my thoughts.

How will that nobleman be able to conduct himself, when reduced to poverty, who was educated only to magnificence and pleasure?

Nothing which is not right can be great; nothing can be suitable to the dignity of the human mind which reason condemns.

Under § 397. These instances may, it is hoped, be sufficient to satisfy every reasonable mind.

It cannot be impertinent or ridiculous, therefore, to remonstrate.

It was a case of unpardonable breach of trust and gross disregard of official duty, to say the least.

A prudent general will avoid a general engagement, generally speaking, unless his forces are equal at least in bravery and discipline to those of his opponent.

Miscellaneous. A similar struggle against the feudal nobility to that of other countries.

The preternatural operations of God are likely to be regulated by similar laws, where we can trace laws at all, to those which direct the order of Nature.

Benevolence is, on whatever side we may contemplate the subject, a godlike virtue.

The not attending to this rule is the source of a very common error.

A great mass of rocks thrown together by the hand of Nature, with wildness and confusion, strike the mind with more grandeur than if they were adjusted to one another with the greatest symmetry.

By what I have already expressed, the reader will perceive the business which I am to proceed upon.

What is human life to all, but a mixture, with various cares and troubles, of some scattered joys and pleasures?

Generosity is a showy virtue which many persons are very fond of.

He must endure the follies of others, who will have their kindness.

It is not from this world that any source of comfort can arise to cheer the gloom of the last hour.

It is ordained by Providence, that nothing shall be obtained in our present state that is truly valuable, except it be with difficulty and danger.

We cannot doubt but all the proceedings of Providence will appear as equitable, when fully understood and completely intelligible, as now they seem irregular.

He offered an apology, which being not admitted, he became submissive.

The good man not only deserves the respect but the love of his fellow-beings.

We should carefully examine into, and candidly pass judgment on, our faults.

Gentlemen are not requested to enter the ladies' cabin without permission.

All that glitters is not gold.

The committee would further suggest some change in the internal arrangement of the building, as a large number of seats have long been occupied by the scholars that have no backs.

Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple at Jerusalem, was the richest monarch of his age.

It appears that there are, by a late calculation, nearly twenty-five millions of inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland.

Neither can we admit that he was formed by himself without the greatest absurdity, or by mere accident.

Under all its labors, hope is the mind's solace; and the situations which exclude it entirely are few.

Having not known or having not considered the subject, he declined expressing any opinion.

She also befooled me for, as she called it, my intended desperate adventure.

The possession of Jacob Touson's, the publisher, heir.

CHAPTER IV.

PROPRIETY

§ 399. GRAMMATICAL PROPRIETY, which requires that each element of expression be used in its own and only its own proper use (§ 360), has a threefold application, namely:

1. To the use of the proper element;
2. To the use of the proper inflectional form;
3. To the single use of the same element in the same sentence.

OBSERVATION. — As language does not furnish special forms of expression for all the forms and relations of thought, forms are often borrowed for other than their original and proper uses. The English language is, more than some others, deficient in varieties of special forms. The classical languages, thus, had forms distinguishing the subject and the predicate of a proposition from the mere object of thought. In English, nouns in the same form are used both for object of thought generally, and also for object when specially thought either as subject or as predicate.

To meet this deficiency in the early stages of language, as we have seen, abnormal forms came in, and received the sanction of good use, and so of grammar. Thus nouns are used as modifiers; as, "*Fancy sketches*;" and verbs are used to express objects of thought; as, "*That the sentence was just* is admitted;" or as modifiers, as, "The sentiments *which he uttered* were well received;" "He found, *when he returned*, the whole company in the highest excitement." Other like abnormal forms have been specified in their place. See Part IV.

Predicates, further, become, in the progress of language, separated from their own subjects, and thus pass as general attributives, which now as adjectives are used to modify objects of thought; although in some languages they assume distinct forms when thus used, not as predicates, but as general attributives.

Auxiliaries, moreover, are words transferred from their proper use to aid in the inflection of other words. They, for the most part, still retain their original use.

In this derived or borrowed use of the primitive forms of expression, we have the principles regulating the element originally at 1 in force, and mod-

ified only so far as the nature of the case may require. Thus the noun, when used as a modifier, still has, as its proper modifier, an adjective, not an adverb, as, " *Wild fancy sketches.*" The predicate form, when dropping its proper nature as a predicate and become a mere attributive, is still modified by adverbials; as, " *The brightly shining sun.*" And the fundamental distinctions are never subverted. The subject-word preserves its proper character ever different from the predicate-word; the principal element, its character ever different from the modifier; and each, as a notion-word, different from the form-word. So indeed, further, the subordinate forms in these three leading classes of elements should, in correct expression, maintain each its own distinctive character; the proper noun, the mass-noun, the collective noun, the class-noun, should be used, each according to its proper nature; as, also, the subordinate varieties of abstract nouns. The principle applies, also, to the subordinate kinds of modifying words, whether adjectives, adverbials, or modals; as, also, to those of form-words.

It will be noticed that the principles of Propriety here presented are purely grammatical, and are exclusive of lexicography. The consideration of the proper use of words as determined by their special meaning, except, perhaps, of form-words and correlatives, would carry us through the entire vocabulary of the language. The dictionary is the only suitable text-book for this kind of propriety.

§ 400. The first principle of Grammatical Propriety requires, —

1. That subject-words and predicate-words, concretes and abstracts, and their several subordinate forms, be used in the sentence according to their respective natures.

2. That, in the use of modifying elements, adjectives modify only objects of thought; adverbials, only predicate-words, and modals, only copula words; and the subordinate forms be used each according to its proper nature.

3. That, in the use of form-words, prepositions be used to show their proper relations between objects of thought; conjunctions, to show their proper relations between copula elements; and all correlative words in their proper connections; and that auxiliaries be used as inflectional helps, and not as principal elements, nor as form-words of relation.

OBSERVATION. — There is a considerable number of words which are used for several purposes, sometimes as prepositions, sometimes as conjunctions, sometimes as pronouns. These words are ever on the increase in the progress of the language. A list of those most worthy of attention to the learner will not be inappropriate here. Words used both as adverbs and adjectives are for the most part omitted in this list.

Words used for different Offices in Speech.

- A* — Article, " *A boat;*" Preposition, " *I go a fishing.*"
About — Adverb, " *He roams about;*" Preposition, " *He wrote about the war.*"
Above — Adverb, " *He soars above;*" Preposition, " *Above the earth.*"
After — Adverb, " *He returned soon after;*" Preposition, " *He came after me.*"
All — Adjective, " *All hours;*" Noun, " *Her little all;*" Adverb, " *And cheeks all pale.*"
As — Adverb, " *He is as proud as poor;*" " *As he passed, the men shouted;*" Conjunction, " *No longer as it was;*" Relative Pronoun, " *Such as I never saw before.*"
Before — Adverb, " *It had happened before;*" Preposition, " *Before the Revolution.*"
Below — Adverb, " *He went below;*" Preposition, " *Below his rank.*"
Besides — Adverb, " *All the world besides;*" Preposition, " *Besides him.*"
Both — Adjective, " *Both generals;*" Conjunction, " *Both king and subject.*"
But — Adverb, " *All are but dust;*" Conjunction, " *But he was mistaken;*" Preposition, " *All but him.*"
By — Adverb, " *Years have passed by;*" Preposition, " *By the river.*"
Do — Auxiliary Verb and Principal Verb.
Else — Adjective, " *What else can he do?*" Conjunction, " *Else would I give it.*"
Enough — Adjective, " *Enough goods;*" Adverb, " *Well enough;*" Noun, " *He has enough.*"
Except — Conjunction, " *Except these abide;*" Preposition, " *Except these bonds.*"
For — Preposition, " *For his interest;*" Conjunction, " *For it is injurious;*" Expletive, " *For him to act thus is shameful.*"
Have — Auxiliary Verb and Principal Verb.
However — Adverb, " *However small;*" Conjunction, " *However, it may not be so bad as reported.*"
Indeed — Modal, " *It was indeed true;*" Conjunction, " *Indeed, the procedure was a farce.*"
It — Pronoun and Rhetorical Expletive.
Let — Auxiliary Verb and Principal Verb.
Notwithstanding — Preposition, " *Notwithstanding the rain;*" Conjunction, " *The motion was carried, notwithstanding.*"
Now — Adverb of Time; Conjunction, " *Now, Barabbas was a robber.*"
Over — Adverb, " *All is over;*" Preposition, " *Over the river.*"
Shall — Predicate Auxiliary and Copula Auxiliary.
Since — Adverb, " *He has not been seen since;*" Preposition, " *Since that time;*" Conjunction, " *Since this is so.*"
So — Adverb, " *So great;*" Conjunction, " *So truth be in the field;*" Interjection.
That — Adjective, " *That man;*" Conjunction, " *I think that they will be here.*"

Till — Preposition, "*Till* next week;" Conjunction, "*Till* all be lost."

To — Sign of Infinitive and Preposition.

Too — Adverb, "*Too* high;" Conjunction, "He, *too*, will be present."

Until — Preposition, "*Until* morning;" Conjunction, "*Until* he arrive."

What — Interrogative Pronoun, "*What* news?" Compound Relative Pronoun, "I know *what* he will say;" Interjection, "*What!* might Rome have been taken?"

While — Adverb, "*While* tarrying there;" Conjunction, "*While* the facts showed the contrary;" Noun, "Worth *while*;" Verb, "Let us *while* away this life."

Who — Whose, Whom, Which, Interrogative and Relative Pronouns.

Will — Auxiliary Verb and Principal Verb.

Yet — Adverb, "A few *yet* remain;" Conjunction, "*Yet*, is it a false conclusion."

OBSERVATION. — We will exemplify the principles of propriety in instances of violations of them to be corrected by the pupil. These examples, in part, will be arranged in classes under the several principles; others will be added promiscuously arranged.

§ 401. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in Grammatical Propriety to be corrected* :—

1. *In use of Subject-words and Predicate-words, and their respective varieties.*

Knives and dissemblers have sometimes succeeded for the time; but honest and true are sure to triumph at the end of their course.

A pestilence broke out in the army and it died with a fearful mortality.

This devoting ourselves to God must be habitual.

Their speedy outstripping all competitors in the race was now evident.

2. *In use of Modifying Elements.*

The then government was tottering to its fall.

The far-off shore was lingeringly watched as it still receded from our view.

He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their respective conditions.

Thine often infirmities require it.

We should implant in the minds of youth such seeds of piety and virtue as are likely to take soonest and deepest root.

Of his conduct previously to this offense I do not now complain.

Which of them books is yours?

He had many virtues and was exceeding beloved.

She reads proper and writes neat.

His substance is near spent.

The assembly met agreeable to adjournment.

The conspiracy was the easier discovered from its being known to many.

He speaks very fluent but is not very logical.

They generally succeeded; for they lived conformable to the rules of prudence.

Such an amiable disposition will win many friends.

You must not walk too hasty.

Whether he will be learned or no, must depend on his application.

He acted conformable with his instructions.

No person could speak stronger on this subject nor behave nobler, than our young advocate for the cause of toleration.

Many people never learn to speak correct.

A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

He was the most eloquent speaker of any in the assembly.

3. *In use of Form-words and Correlatives.*

Form-words of Wrong Class. — Have you no better excuse but this?

Such use of another's works is nothing else except plagiarism.

He is arrived at length.

He would not say whether he would or no.

Humility neither seeks the first place or the last word.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name.

From no other institution besides the admirable one of juries, could so great a benefit be expected.

Such writers have no other standard on which to form

themselves, except what chances to be fashionable and popular.

No other employment besides a bookseller suited his inclination.

Much preferable is wisdom than riches.

Milton was earlier and superior than Dryden.

They are determined not to go without you go with them.

This is a very different result than what was promised.

Wrong Prepositions. — This is a principle in union to our nature.

He had a difficulty of fixing his mind.

I have no occasion of his services.

We should entertain no prejudices to simple and rustic persons.

He was accused with having acted unfairly.

The politeness of the world has the same resemblance with benevolence that the shadow has with the substance.

Civility makes its way among every kind of persons.

I have been to London, after having resided a year at France.

Their conduct was agreeable with their profession.

The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their

own power.

They had arrived to the same conclusion.

The general was attended with the governor.

He was also accompanied with his staff.

His practice does not agree to his preaching.

He was now called to a service different to any he had ever before undertaken.

The goblet was broken in pieces.

I am glad on it.

The relation of town to country in France is singularly different to what it is in America.

It was very foolish of him to give such an excuse.

Wrong Conjunctions. — The matter was no sooner proposed, but he privately withdrew to consider it.

It is more than doubtful if any real improvement in the condition of the people is taking place.

I cannot doubt but that he has reported the facts correctly.

She is seldom or ever in town.

They labored as though they thought they were to get pay for their work.

She feared very much lest the storm would break before they could reach a shelter.

Such prevarication is nothing else but lying.

The terms *productive* or *creative* are very improperly applied to imagination.

Correlatives. — Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great.

His conduct was equally unjust as dishonorable.

No scholar of his age was as earnest and self-sacrificing in the cause as he.

The work was not as perfectly done as he promised.

The government will return only such letters that are valuable.

No sorrow is so bitter but it can be mitigated by sympathy.

Prejudices so confirmed and inveterate as they will hardly give way to the clearest demonstration.

§ 402. The second general principle of grammatical propriety enjoins the use of the proper inflectional form.

OBSERVATION. — This principle embraces within its range of application inflections of nouns and pronouns indicating gender, number, and case; inflections of verbs both by internal change and by auxiliaries, the sign of the infinitive, and forms of the gerund and participle, and also the forms of factitive verbs, as, *set, lay, etc.*

§ 403. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in respect of the use of Inflectional Forms to be corrected: —*

I respect every mans judgment and follow my own.

Cherubims and seraphlims bowed in worship.

He had a book of memorandums.

The book had two heroes and one heroess.

I seen them there yesterday.

He is old enough to take care of hisself.

They had went before I reached home.

Had they knew it, they would not have gone.

He had a letter began and nearly half wrote.

I had often swam across the river before.

Was it practicable I would accompany you.

As soon as we had drank tea, we were tempted by fine weather to take a walk.

Protagoras narrowly escaped being put to death for having wrote something that seemed to contradict their received notions of the gods.

His neighbor was fallen from his horse.

But at that time the rest laid so close that they could not be apprehended.

I charge thee that thou dost hereafter keep thyself clear of these grounds.

Provided they done nothing contrary to Roman discipline, they might continue to hold their assemblies.

The age of chivalry is gone.

The golden autumn is come.

He is grown out of his stiffness and awkwardness.

§ 404. The third general principle of grammatical propriety requires that the same element of expression be employed only in a single use or relation in the same sentence.

§ 405. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in double use of Elements to be corrected:*—

These curiosities we have imported from China, and are similar to those which were some time ago brought from Africa.

We must pay attention to what goes before, and this chapter is intended to exhibit more fully.

I will give the book to whomsoever I shall find to be most regular and will best prepare his lessons.

I know not who will be faithful and we can trust.

And this is it men mean by distributive justice and is properly termed equity.

If the acquisitions he has made, and qualified him to be a useful member of society, should be misapplied, he will be highly culpable.

§ 406. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in Grammatical Propriety promiscuously presented, to be corrected:*—

The ship lays in the harbor. The court sets to-day. The tree felled in the opposite direction. This is an useful machine. They have chose discreetly. He behaved noble.

Absalom's beauty, Jonathan's love, David's valor, Solomon's wisdom, Ulysses his policy, Augustus his prudence, Cæsar's fortune, Cicero's eloquence. — *Felltham.*

"I like not Aristippus his doctrine." — *Id.*

"Saved in Mars his field." — *Ben Jonson.*

Averroes's resolution, majestie's patronage, Churches infallibility. — *Chillingworth.*

Words of Moses his law. Obligation of Moses his law. — *Stillingfleet.*

They were drove about like sheep.

I shall go if you will desire.

The stream has overflown the meadows.

I will be disappointed if you do not come.

My book is better than yourn.

There were a good many housen there.

I had wrote my letter when the postman came.

It was the most critical period of any in the history of the war.

She danced beautiful.

This part of knowledge has been always growing and will do so, till the subject shall be exhausted.

He published an uniform edition of the Latin classics.

Yield for peace's and harmonys sake.

Money is easier acquired than knowledge.

O! that he was here now.
 He has no other merit but that of a compiler.
 All arrived at last safely.
 Which is the greater of the American rivers?
 The project was nothing less than a tempting God.
 Of all conceivable plans, that is the worse.
 They sat silently a long time.
 John at that time begun to do well.
 The birds sung merrily.
 Their clothes were all wore out.
 He had n't ought to go.
 He has little more of the great man besides the title.
 He acted conformable with his instructions.
 He acted independent of foreign assistance.
 No human happiness is so complete as does not contain
 some imperfection.
 Socrates has been more honored than any Athenian.
 John lived to a later period than any of the Apostles.
 No men were fitter for such a service but themselves.
 If he had have succeeded in the enterprise, much evil
 would have been prevented.
 He learned them to be obedient.
 There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the
 question; but I have chose to suspend my decision.
 I have writ with charity.
 Had he have laid low he would not have been hit.
 If I go I will deserve punishment.
 I will be exposed to take cold.
 If I go, shall the assembly be disappointed, do you think?
 He had not ought to talk in that way.
 You had ought to help your brother.
 He consented to set down for a while.
 The whole adjoining valley was overflown.
 He learned his pupils in all the sciences.
 He was bid go on his way.
 He accused him with the fault.

He did it as secret as he could.
 I never see before such brilliant flowers.
 They are remarkable forward boys.
 Young twigs are easier bent than boughs.
 When you writ last to me.
 I had the spending three hundred pounds a year in one of
 them.
 How could any man, in his senses, think the spreading such
 notions the way to spread or propagate virtue in the world.
 The pursuing this subject in their own thoughts would
 possibly open a new scene.
 The not considering of this has been a fundamental and
 perplexing oversight.
 These same formulas would be a yoke of bondage and a
 turning back the wheels of lawful and necessary progress.
 Where his book was being printed.
 It was ever heard tell of that a boy had been born with
 breeches on.
 We must believe it, for he certain said so.
 If he do not return to-morrow, he will the next day sure.
 He knows scarcely nothing of the language.
 Once he has seen his mistake, he is prompt to correct it.
 Directly they arrived, the dinner was ordered.
 If I open my eye to the light I cannot choose but see.
 Scarcely had feudalism, the boroughs and the clergy each
 taken its distinct form and places than we see them tending
 to approach each other.
 After I had wed out the garden, I plowed the north lot.
 He determined not to comply with the proposal, except he
 should receive a more ample compensation.
 Scarce had the "Spirit of Laws" made its appearance
 than it was attacked.
 The Infinite figures far less in the theater of mind and ex-
 erts a far inferior influence in the modification of thought
 than the abstract.
 Let the Union League, therefore, manage its reception

differently from what the previous ones have been managed.

I will contribute to it in any way which shall be in my power.

Until this question be definitively answered, which it never can, we must be unable to conceive the possibility of the fact of liberty.

I should like to see person and property safe, which no one's is here.

It cut a very different figure than in the Daily News.

Introducing a scheme of thought that breaks loose from Biblical conceptions either of the first creation or of the new creation in Christ.

It will be the beginning of August till his settlement takes place.

It needs but to remember that, etc.

The manuscripts themselves would have perished, as several had done.

Which is the more pleasing to recount, that, from the fickleness and insensibility of mankind, they do not frequently occur.

What does he but goes to his lord and tells him what he had heard.

CHAPTER V.

PRECISION.

§ 407. GRAMMATICAL PRECISION, which requires that so many and only so many of the materials of expression be used as are requisite for the communication of the thought (§ 360), has obviously a twofold application, as these materials may in quantity be in excess or in defect. The two departments of precision are, accordingly, —

I. PLEONASM, or the use of more words than are requisite for the orderly construction of the sentence;

II. ELLIPSIS, or the use of fewer words than are admissible for the orderly construction of the sentence.

§ 408. Pleonasm may be allowable or faulty. It is *allowable*, —

1. For clearness and fullness in the impression of the thought;

2. For the harmony of the expression in its effect on the ear.

It is *faulty* when more words are required than the proper construction of the sentence requires or is admissible for one or the other of the two reasons just mentioned.

OBSERVATION. — In order to produce a fuller impression of the thought, as in discourse generally, the same thought is repeated in different forms in different sentences; so, in the sentence, the parts are allowably often repeated under different forms. One kind of such repetition is in the use of synonymous words. The English language readily allows this repetition with happy effect in the use of synonymous words, one from the Latin, the other from the Anglo-Saxon source of its vocabulary. Thus, in a familiar manual of religious worship, we find such repetitions as these: "acknowledge and confess," "dissemble nor cloak," "assemble and meet together." Such pleonasms are not blemishes, but rather beauties, for the fuller impres-

sion of the thought. So, also, for harmonious effect on the ear, such pleonastic use of words is allowable, and especially in cadences, where more than elsewhere abruptness is offensive. The style of Cicero is characterized by this kind of pleonasm. So, also, the best English writers, and particularly those whose excellence lies in the oral virtues of expression. Thus we find on almost any page in the writings of Addison, such pleonastic cadences as "degeneracy and corruption," "that might appear light or trivial," "ruin and sorrow;" and in those of Macaulay, "invective and derision," "satirists and dramatists," "justice and order," "labor and attention," "worthless and puerile." Such repetitions are pleonasms, although the thought may seem to be somewhat expanded, because the repetition is not for the thought but for the fullness of the expression, or, as it is called, the roundness of the period. They are allowable pleonasms. A strictly precise writer that limits his expression to the thought omits them.

§ 409. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in Grammatical Pleonasm to be corrected:—*

1. *In Elements, Principal and Modifying.*—It is ten years ago since he left England.

If I mistake not, I think he is greatly improved in manners and morals.

These two boys appear to be both equal in capacity.

Whenever he sees me he always inquires about his friends.

I hope this is the last time I shall ever act so imprudently.

These points have been illustrated in so plain and evident a manner that the perusal of the book has given me much pleasure and satisfaction.

There can be no regularity or order in the life and conduct of that man who does not give and allot a due share of his time to retirement and reflection.

That Plutarch wrote lives of Demosthenes and Cicero at Chæronea, it is clear from his own account.

He may probably make the attempt, but he cannot possibly succeed.

As soon as Eugenius undertook the care of a parish, it immediately engrossed the whole of his attention.

It is above a year since the time that I left school.

It is difficult to unite together copiousness and precision.

The house is not as commodious as we expected it would be.

The king has conferred on him the title of a duke.
He has been much censured for conducting himself with a little attention to his business.

Who, instead of going about doing good, they are perpetually intent upon doing mischief.

Be honest, nor take no shape nor semblance of disguise.
How soon did not my dream vanish?

And the joys of this life, how fleeting are they not!

What surprising and wonderful evidence of this is not afforded by so-called sleep-walkers!

How differently does not death now appear to us!

2. *In Inflections.*—The chiefest of all the virtues is charity.

Poverty is more preferable in all cases than vice.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man; and should be his chiefest desire.

A good and well-cultivated mind is far preferable than rank or riches.

He treated him with the most supreme contempt.

The most superior talents will not avail him in such a crisis.

He contented himself with a more inferior article.

3. *In Form-words.*—Their idleness and their luxury and pleasures, their criminal deeds and their immoderate passions, and their timidity and baseness of mind, have dejected them to such a degree as to make them weary of life.

Their performance was approved of by all who understood it.

We need not, nor do not, confine his operations to narrow limits.

There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity.

§ 410. Grammatical Ellipsis may be allowable or faulty.

It is allowable when greater force is given without sacrifice of clearness:

It is faulty when the sentence is left by it obscure or ambiguous.

OBSERVATION. — Brevity is generally favorable to force or energy of expression; and if clearness be not too much sacrificed, it is a virtue in style. Ellipsis is, therefore, allowable when consistent with clearness.

Thus, in compound sentences and members, an element, repeated in thought, is generally expressed but once; as, "James turned and looked," instead of "James turned and James looked;" "Wise and good men alike," instead of "Wise men and good men alike;" "The man who hesitates and doubts," instead of "The man who hesitates and who doubts;" "For the sake of peace and harmony," instead of "For the sake of peace and for the sake of harmony."

In like manner in comparative sentences; "He is taller than I," instead of "than I am." So, "He sings better than his brother;" "It is more than I can bear."

But the ellipsis is faulty when the thought is left obscure or equivocal, as, —

1. When the parts of the compound sentence or member are in different relations to the repeated element; as, "Honesty is always praised by selfish men, and would be more universally practiced if they were wiser;" better, "and it would be;" "He was as tall, and, indeed, taller than his brother;" better, "He was as tall as his brother, and, indeed, taller;" "I have not, and never shall consent to such a measure."

2. When it is left in doubt whether it is the modifier or the principal element that is compounded; as, "National and social interests require it;" better, "National interests and social interests require it;" or still better, "The interests both of the nation and of society require it;" "The great and good approve it;" better, "The great and the good approve it."

In a complex sentence, the parts that are extraneous to the proper sentence are generally elliptical; as, "The strength, *humanly speaking*, of a nation consists not in its population or wealth or knowledge." "*Humanly speaking*" is an elliptical expression, inasmuch as it is not a complete sentence in itself, and does not modify any part of the proper sentence.

Many colloquial expressions are elliptical; as, "Good night, honest Iago;" instead of "I wish for thee a good night."

In the single sentence, the subject of a verb in the second person of the imperative is generally omitted; as, "Come hither, Hubert."

The subjects of what are called impersonal verbs are often omitted; as, "So far as respects this point, I have nothing more to say;" "Do as seems best."

The subject of a participial may be omitted to avoid repetition, but no otherwise; as, "On arriving at the hotel, he ordered rooms;" but in the following sentence the ellipsis is faulty; "On arriving at the hotel, rooms were ordered."

In free discourse, the relative is often allowably omitted; as, "All the money there is in the country will be brought into circulation."

The article should be repeated before each noun in a series, if each is to be taken distinctly or separately. If, however, they are to be taken collectively or as a unit, and, also, if the second word is only another form

of expression denoting the same thing, the article may be omitted; as, "I met the boy and the girl;" "I met a horse and carriage."

The following sentences exemplify a very common species of faults in ellipsis of the article; "He counted equal vibrations of a pendulum or balance-wheel;" "Reverence equally the dead and living;" "He is a madman or fool;" "The wise and good are the classes from which to select our familiar friends."

Form-words are often allowably omitted. Thus prepositions after many verbs and adjectives; as, "He gave me a book," instead of, "He gave to me a book." If the remote object in such cases is separated from the verb or adjective, the preposition must be expressed; as, "He gave a valuable book to John, on his leaving." So after some adjectives the preposition is omitted; "The land is worth the price;" "He is like his father."

Before clauses, the preposition is often omitted; as, "Be careful that you remember;" "Take care that you remember." The clause *that you remember* is the object respectively of *careful* and *care*, which words followed by normal nouns would require the preposition *of* to indicate their relations as objects.

The conjunction *that*, used as the sign of a clause, is often allowably omitted in free discourse; as, "I knew he had gone."

§ 411. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in Grammatical Ellipsis to be corrected: —*

1. *Of Elements in Compound Sentences and Members.*

He is a person of great property, but does not possess the esteem of his neighbors.

Having once entered the fatal circle of pleasure, there was no retreat.

The ends of a divine and human legislator are vastly different.

Let us consider the works of nature and art with proper attention.

Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken; that is difficult or hazardous can be accomplished.

This intelligence not only excited our hopes but fears too.

So bold a breach of order called for little severity in punishing the offender.

These copies were made in the sixth and following century.

The rich and poor are alike mortal.

Familiarity with vicious fosters vice.

I can assign a more satisfactory and stronger reason

2. *Of Relatives.*

The knowledge he has acquired and the habits of application he possesses, will probably render him very useful.

We must pay attention to what goes before and immediately follows after.

His conduct is not scandalous; and that is the best can be said of it.

This was the person whom calumny had greatly abused and sustained the injustice with singular patience.

The captain had several men in his ship died of the scurvy.

In the circumstances I was at that time, my troubles pressed heavily upon me.

That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.

He lingered many days in the condition I left him.

This is the way I do my work.

They may now bring themselves to a better end than ever France would have brought them.

3. *Of Form-words.*

This author is more remarkable for strength of sentiment than harmonious language.

They are now reconciled to what they could not formerly be prompted by any consideration.

I must, however, be so candid to own I have been mistaken.

It is better live on a little than outlive a great deal.

I need not to solicit him to do a kind action.

Idle persons imagine, however deficient they may be in point of duty, they consult at least their own satisfaction.

The soldiers were seen one by one mount the breastwork.

They are unworthy your attention.

He who neglects those trifles, yet boasts that whensoever a great sacrifice is called for, he shall be ready to make it, will rarely be loved.

§ 412. ORAL EXERCISE. *Faults in respect of Grammatical Precision promiscuously arranged to be indicated and corrected.*

The people gained nothing further by this step, but only to suspend their misery.

I was filled with unbounded astonishment.

The anxious man is the votary of riches; the negligent of pleasure.

How many are there by whom these tidings of good news were never heard.

He discovered some qualities in the youth of a disagreeable nature and to him were wholly unaccountable.

Precept nor discipline is not so forcible as example.

I shall, in the first place, begin with remarking the defects, and shall then proceed afterwards to describe the excellences of this plan of education.

He has destroyed his constitution by the very same errors that so many have been destroyed by.

If young persons were determined to conduct themselves by the rules of virtue, not only would they escape innumerable dangers, but command respect from the licentious themselves.

He was of so high and independent a spirit, that he abhorred and detested being in debt.

The sacrifices of virtue will not only be rewarded hereafter, but recompensed even in this life.

How a seed grows up into a tree, and the mind acts upon the body, are mysteries which we cannot explain.

Why do ye that which is not lawful to do on the Sabbath-day?

I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.

However clear and obvious the conduct which he ought to have pursued, he had not courage and resolution to set about it.

By these happy labors, they who sow and reap will rejoice together.

Nothing never affected her so much as this misconduct of her child.

We have done no more than was our duty to do.

I have seen some persons to conduct themselves very discreetly.

By a multiplicity and variety of words, the thoughts and sentiments are not set off and accommodated; but, like David dressed out and equipped in Saul's armor, they are encumbered and oppressed.

It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one, and to reject the other.

He is a much better writer than a reader.

She was really in that sad condition that her friend represented her.

This man, on all occasions, treated his inferiors with haughtiness and disdain.

In no scene of her life was ever Mary's address more remarkably displayed.

As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him.

Whoever entertains such an opinion, he judges erroneously.

His cheerful, happy temper, remote from discontent, keeps up a kind of daylight in his mind, excludes every gloomy prospect, and fills it with a steady and perpetual serenity.

Beware of drunkenness; it impairs understanding; wastes an estate; destroys a reputation; consumes the body; and renders the man of the brightest parts the common jest of the meanest clown.

I cannot yield to such dishonorable conduct neither at the present moment of difficulty, nor, I trust, under no circumstances whatever.

Its stature is less than that of a man; but its strength and agility much greater.

Who is that person whom I saw you introduce and present him to the duke?

There is not, nor ought not to be, such a thing as constructive treason.

I have, nor shall not consent to a proposal so unjust.

He has not yet cast off all regard for decency; and this is the most can be advanced in his favor.

Temperance and exercise, however little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health.

The favorites are generally objects of envy.

Statesmen who then gave luster to the Senate, have passed away.

They are to number the trees in the order they stand.

Punishments may, and often are inflicted on drunkards.

He could not and ought not travel in that severe weather.

The past and future are alike to him.

Whom, when they had scourged him, they let him go.

Nature made him a greater poet than an artist.

The empire of Great Britain has been gradually and progressively advancing to its present high degree of maritime prosperity.

Suppose one who had always continued blind be told.

He does nothing who endeavors to do more than is allowed to humanity.

Whom ye delivered up and denied him in the presence of Pontius Pilate.

Whether he has, or will advance the money, we do not yet know.

It has, or will be announced.

Thou wilt not know when it comes, as little as thou art conscious of the exact moment when thou sinkest into sleep.

Free from such chains as early habits, custom or prejudice often bind the spirit.

It is concerning that that practical questions and discussions constantly arise.

It is in names that we think.

There are principles in man, which ever have, and ever will incline him to offend.

The Provençal was liker to the Italian and Spanish than to the modern French.

For lack of diligent observing the difference.

My farm consisted of about twenty acres of excellent land, having given a hundred pounds for my predecessor's good will.

The dwarf had like to have been killed more than once.

I cannot nor will not read what I have written.

The reward is his due; and it has already or will hereafter be given him.

PART VI. — ANALYSIS.

§ 413. GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS is the separation of a sentence into its grammatical parts.

The grammatical parts of a sentence are, —

1. The three principal elements of the simple sentence, the subject, the predicate, and the copula, with their respective modifiers;

2. The parts not belonging to the simple sentence, as they occur in the compound sentence and the complex sentence.

ILLUSTRATION. — The process of analyzing discourse may profitably be delineated in general terms before the particular rules of analysis are given.

The first step will be to fix upon the simple sentence itself. To do this, the part of discourse to be analyzed must first be examined, that it may be seen whether it is a compound, a complex, or only a simple sentence. If it be a compound sentence, each simple sentence must be taken by itself in order, and the character of the connective, if any, whether conjunction or relative, be determined. If a complex sentence, then the character of the extraneous parts must be ascertained, whether, (1.) forms of the speaker's mind or of verbal expression; or, (2.) forms of address; or, (3.) references to other sentences. Then the single sentence is to be taken up, and the first thing will be to ascertain the kind of sentence, whether it is categorical or interrogative, and whether in either case it is affirmative or negative. The next step will be to name the principal elements, subject, predicate, and copula. Then the whole subject is to be taken, naming the principal noun itself, indicating whether normal or abnormal, whether originally concrete or abstract, and of which variety; then the modifiers of the noun, naming each, beginning with the principal one and following with each sub-modifier in order, and also naming the class of modifiers to which each belongs. Then the predicate is to be treated in the same way; and finally, the copula, whether in a distinct word by itself or combined with a part or with the whole of the predicate. The whole process of analyzing embraces, thus, three separate steps: (1.) Distinguishing the elements of compound and complex discourse in sentences, and, successively, in parts of sentences; (2.) Distinguishing the three principal elements of the simple sentence; (3.) Distin-

gnishing the modifiers of each of these principal elements into their respective principal and modifying parts, naming each element successively throughout, with the sub-modifiers, if any; each modifying element to be named in connection with its principal.

RULES OF GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS.

§ 414. RULE I. Distinguish the part of discourse to be analyzed as a simple, a compound, or a complex sentence, naming the parts of the two latter.

EXERCISES. — No monumental stone preserves his name. Sport leaped up and seized his beechen spear. Ah, hapless race! ye labor hard to smother reason's ray. He gazed on hills rock-ribbed and ancient as the sentence. There is a world where there falls no blight. Thus bubbles rise and vanish on the deep. Hadst thou proved recreant, all had been lost. No monstrous height, or breadth, or length appears. His deeds, his worthy deeds, have rendered him immortal. Here shall the billows stiffen and have rest. Prosperity! I court thy gifts no more. Thou begg'st in vain, no pity melts his heart. Though clouds thicken round us, we heed not the storm. I heard thee say, but now, thou lik'dst not that. The attempt, but not the deed, confounds us. From labor health, from health contentment springs. Plaid and plumage were tossed in air. Rise with the lark, and with the lark to bed. Hold, says the dog, we are safe from harm. It is well thou learn'dst that lesson young. I thank thee for the word; it nerves my arm. Tell us, for doubtless thou canst recollect, to whom shall we assign the Sphinx's fame? To him let thy heart and hours be given. There must, therefore, be a God, uncaused, independent, and complete. Nothing is more amiable than true modesty, and nothing more contemptible than the false: the one guards virtue; the other betrays it. There is nothing, said Plato, so delightful as the hearing or speaking of truth. In the next place, the strength of the old parents fails. Fly, therefore, from idleness, as the certain parent both of guilt and of ruin. Yours, then, is surely a lot peculiarly happy.

§ 415. RULE II. Distinguish the sentence as categorical or interrogative; also, as affirmative or negative.

EXERCISES. — The modest man is seldom the object of envy. To mourn without measure is folly; not to mourn at all is insensibility. Our fathers, where are they? No man is entirely free from foibles. Employ no arguments with the obstinately perverse. Could you, with a dish of dainties, entice the tiger from his love of blood? Will he never have occasion to read, in a company of his friends, a copy of verses, a passage of a book or newspaper? Oh! had I come one moment sooner. Do we derive no felicity from refined feelings? Is there no blessedness in beneficence? Why is this pleasing, vast diversity of nature? Who reared this vast arch over our heads?

§ 416. RULE III. Distinguish, in the simple sentence, the subject, the predicate, and the copula.

EXERCISES. — Not a breath disturbs the deep serene. Embroidered sandals glittered as he trod. His cause is just. Towards the verge sweeps the wide torrent. Let your sword be bared alone at wisdom's call. Accept'st thou in kindness the proffered pledge? Launch not beyond thy depth. A keeper of the chase, thy garb bespeaks. There were few that did not weep. Warned by the signs, in haste they shelter seek. Who formed the paradise he never seeks. There is not a breath the blue wave to curl. Time is the warp of life, O weave it well. Observe; deliberate; decide. Few and short were the prayers they said. Accursed be the fagots that blaze at his feet. The highest meed of praise he well deserves. Stand! the ground's your own. my braves. Flush in her footsteps sprang herbage and flowers. Palsied now is the arm thou strengthen'dst.

§ 417. RULE IV. Distinguish in the subject the principal part, whether normal or abnormal, and of what kind, whether concrete or abstract, and of what person, number, gender, and case.

If normal state, if concrete, whether expressed in a proper, mass, collective, or class-noun; or, if abstract, whether an abstract of quality, action, condition, or relation.

If abnormal, whether original adjective, verb, form, or sign; and if verb-form, whether infinitive or gerund; and, if a clause, whether introduced by a relative or conjunction.

EXERCISES.— John runs. Water freezes. The army is on the march. The sheep bleats. Modesty is ever becoming. Flattery often wins where reason fails. The youth of nations, as of persons, is the season of bold enterprise and chivalrous daring. His competency for the act was called in question. The luxurious live to eat and drink; but the wise and temperate eat and drink in order to live. To have a portion in the world is a mercy; to have the world for a portion is a misery. Bearing provocation is a mark of wisdom; forgiving it, of magnanimity. That offenses come is an incident of a state of trial. How we shall succeed in any endeavor is uncertain. He who tells a lie is not sensible how great a task he undertakes. Always to indulge our appetites is to extinguish them. Faithful are the wounds of a friend. There is nothing of so much worth as a mind well instructed. Stupendous are the works of Providence. There cannot be a greater treachery, than first to raise a confidence and then deceive it. It is much to bear injury; it is more to forgive it. There in long robes stood the royal priesthood. Around broken columns clasping ivy twined.

§ 418. RULE V. Distinguish in the subject the modifying part, whether normal or abnormal, whether definitive or epithet.

If abnormal, by what other part of speech or by what phrase expressed; and if by a noun, whether by apposition, case, or adjunct; if by a verb-form, whether by participle, infinitive, or gerund, or by a clause.

EXERCISES.— Modest men are seldom objects of envy. Faithful John is rewarded. Wealth distinctions are super-

ficial and treacherous. Further discussion is useless. John, a faithful subject and brave soldier, received his reward in the esteem of his people. His honor was great. A friend in need is a friend indeed. John in trouble dismisses his pride. Weak men, being crossed in their plans, vent their malice on innocent victims. A man to please every body is of difficult search. Generosity without wasting is a rare virtue. A man who breaks his word bids others be false to him.

To put on arms when the enemy is in our quarters is the mark of a fool. No man hath a thorough taste of prosperity, to whom adversity never happened. He whose ruling passion is love of praise is a slave to every one who has a tongue for detraction. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods. It is a true saying that we are never too old to be taught.

§ 419. RULE VI. Distinguish the predicate as concrete or abstract. If concrete, proceed as directed for the subject.

If abstract, distinguish the principal part as to its class, whether of quality, action, condition, or relation; and as to its form, whether adjective, adjunct, or combined in part or in whole with the copula.

Distinguish the modifying part, whether modifying relatively as to person, number, and significance, or irrelatively; whether normal or abnormal; whether clausal, participial, or adverbial; whether in whole or in respect of parts, by inflection as to voice and tense, or by adverbials; and as to object, whether specifying, passive, remote, or factitive, with each submodification under its respective principal.

EXERCISES.— John is a scholar. John is a diligent scholar. John is studious. John studies. John studies diligently. John studies geometry. John studies geometry to become an engineer. John outstrips all his mates. John will succeed well. He is advancing every day. He is in the early stage of training. His studies being ended, he will

travel. He will make himself a learned man. He charges himself to aim high. He makes others envious.

Temptations cannot enter where the heart is well guarded. I will go whither thou goest. We go that we may be in time. By timely resisting them, the greatest evils may be overcome. To have the mind of a freeman is not to consider liberty as a privilege which a few only are to enjoy. Economy is no disgrace. The great object of study is to fit the mind to be an instrument of usefulness in life. The decisive test of genius is that it calls forth power in the souls of others. His grand excellence was that he was a true man.

It is education that marks mental power as the talent of an angel or the capacity of a fiend. There was great scarcity of corn. However much he was persecuted, he loved his persecutors not the less. Virtue being abandoned, we become terrified with imaginary evils. His father being dead, the prince succeeded to the throne.

§ 420. RULE VII. Distinguish in the copula the principal part as pure or combined.

Distinguish the modifying part as to form, whether normal or abnormal, by mood or by modals; as simple, necessary, or contingent; and if contingent, as pure or as expressing desire or will; with submodifications.

EXERCISES.—John studies. John must study. John may study. Study, and get the prize. He is certainly studious. He will succeed, if he studies hard. Speak clearly, if you would be understood. If there were no cowardice, there would be little insolence. Unless he put a bridle on his tongue, the babbler will soon shut himself out from all society. We should be ashamed of many of our actions were the world acquainted with our motives. It were no virtue to bear calamities, if we did not feel them. The world would be happier, did men study charity rather than revenge. This, possibly, is a debatable question. Surely

this is a world of plenteousness and beauty. Though fearless, truth is modest. Modesty, were it to be recommended for nothing else, leaves a man at ease, by pretending to little.

§ 421. *General Directions for Analysis.*

1. The character and use in the sentence of each element of thought, subject, predicate, and copula, principal and modifying part, and also of each verbal form, whether single word, phrase, or clause, normal or abnormal, should be stated.

2. Elliptical expressions should be supplied.

3. Inflected words should be inflected.

4. The agreement and arrangement as well as the use in kind and number of words should be referred to the proper principles of construction.

5. In connection with this proper grammatical analysis, the history of the word, its origin, leading paronyms, changes in spelling and in meaning, may profitably be traced as circumstances may allow.

MODELS OF ANALYSIS.—*Venus is bright.* This is a *simple sentence* because containing but one assertion; *categorical*, because asserting; *affirmative*, because asserting positively; having for its *subject*, "Venus," being that of which something is asserted; its *predicate*, "bright," being that which is asserted of the subject; and its *copula*, "is," being the assertive element.

The subject, "Venus," is unmodified; a *proper noun*, because appropriated to an individual object; of the *third person*, being spoken of; of the *singular number*, denoting but one; of the *neuter gender*, being name of object without sex; *nominative case*, because it is the subject.

The predicate, "bright," is *abstract of quality*; *uncombined*; *in the form of an adjective*; *unmodified*.

The copula, "is," is *uncombined* and *unmodified*.

OBSERVATION.—The word "is" here may be, however, taken to denote present time. If so, it expresses a part of the predicate.

John studies. This is a *simple, categorical, affirmative* sentence, having for its elements the *subject*, "John," the *predicate*, "studies," the *copula* combined, in "studies."

The subject is treated as the subject, "Venus," in the preceding example.

The predicate, "studies," is a *regular transitive verb*; denoting *abstract of action*; *combined*; *modified*, to refer to its subject; *of the third person, singular number*; *in the active voice*, to show that the action proceeds from the subject; *present tense*, to show present time of action.

The copula is *combined and unmodified*, being of the *indicative mood*.

Venus, lovely star of evening, now sheds her silver light. This is a *sentence simple*, etc., as before. The logical subject is "Venus, lovely star of evening;" the predicate, "now sheds her silver light;" the copula is *combined with part of the predicate* in "sheds."

The subject is modified; the principal part, "Venus," is *grammatical subject* of "sheds;" a *proper noun*, etc., as before. The modifying part is "lovely star of evening," an *appositive*, being in its principal part a noun, and an *epithet*, limiting its noun, "star," as to its quality, which is modified by "lovely," which is also an *epithet*, and by the adjunct "of evening," a *definitive*, consisting of the preposition "of" and the concrete proper noun "evening."

The predicate has for its principal part "sheds," a *transitive irregular verb, abstract of action*, etc., like "studies," as before. Its modifying part consists of "now," an *adverb of time*, and "her silver light," denoting *passive object*; the principal part of which, "light," is expressed in a *mass-noun*, of the *neuter gender, third person, singular number*, and is *grammatical object* of "sheds." "Her" is *possessive case of the feminine personal pronoun* "she," limiting "silver light" as a *definitive*; "silver" is a *definitive modifier* of "light;" *abnormal*, being a noun used as an adjective.

Run, James, and bring the ball. A compound sentence, consisting of the complex sentence "Run, James," and the simple sentence "bring the ball," connected by the copulative conjunction "and." "Run, James," is a complex sentence, the part "James" being an address. "James" is a proper noun, etc. The subject "thou" is not expressed. The predicate is "run," which is an *intransitive irregular verb*, the principal parts being "run, ran, run," in the *second person, singular number*, agreeing with the subject "thou" understood. The copula is *combined with the predicate* in the word "run," which is of the *imperative mood*, denoting contingency of will.

§ 422. ORAL EXERCISE. *Analyze the following sentences: —*

Samuel was asleep. A man must act. Youth may fancy life one scene of gayety. He now, for the first time, casts a look beneath him. The sun is now half-way down the west. Would you possess a source of the purest and sweetest pleasures? "Alas!" replied the adventurer, "I must submit to the conditions of my enterprise." Our energy and our dependence are both in vain. If we had to walk a hundred miles, we should still have to set but one step at a time; and this process continued would infallibly bring us to our journey's end. Return with him, young reader, if thou art walking in the same downward path, lest his dream become thy

reality. The striking attitude, too, in which we stand to the world around us, — a topic to which, I fear, I advert too often, and dwell on too long, — cannot be altogether omitted here. Tully was not so eloquent as thou, thou nameless column with the buried base! Alas! the lofty city! and alas! the trebly hundred triumphs! So may he rest; his faults lie gently on him! The sun went down, nor ceased the carnage there. I feel that I do not and cannot describe this mighty ruin.

For further exercises, selections in Appendix No. VII may be used.

PART VII. — SYMBOLISM OF THOUGHT.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW. — DIVISIONS.

§ 423. WE can communicate our thoughts to others only through forms which both we and they understand alike ; — which, in other words, are common to us and to them. These forms are originally such as our senses can take in. Only through these forms addressed to our senses could men communicate with one another ; and out of them, as taken to express thought, language is constructed. These forms, thus taken to communicate thought, are not mere signs taken arbitrarily, to indicate thought ; they are, rather, symbols ; that is, they themselves, in some respect, chiefly perhaps but not wholly in respect of the impression or effect that they produce, resemble the thought which is communicated through them.

In order to the effective communication of thought to others, therefore, it becomes important to acquire familiarity with the proper use of such symbols.

OBSERVATION. — The original ground of all language, as the medium of communicating thought, is in the fact that all nature, all sounds, all sights in the world around us, are the expressions more or less immediately and directly of the common Creator's mind. The world of objects around us, the world of events, — the earth, the rocks, the trees, the beasts, and the birds ; the motions of all material things, the surgings of the ocean, and the circulation of the sap, the gambols of the lamb and the flight of the swallow, with the natural actions of man, — are all a language through which the Creator and Governor of the universe utters his thoughts. It is a language

which man is created in the same perfect wisdom to understand, to acquire, and to use again for the utterance of his thoughts to his fellow-men.

The language of human speech is originally founded upon this universal language, and developed out of it. However changed, however perfected, every dialect is in a great measure constituted of this primitive language. One of the chief beauties and excellences of discourse consists in the right and skillful use of it. He who would learn to speak and write intelligibly and well, should early be initiated into this natural imagery of thought, and be thoroughly trained in it. We shall here be able only to introduce into the first principles and to the most general views. But the mind once started in this study, the learner will be drawn on by its attractive character to the higher ranges of view and to the advanced stages of skill to which time alone can carry him.

Such symbols in language are not limited to sounds and sights ; we shall have evidence that to the objects of the other senses, — the touch, the taste, the smell, — this high quality of imaging or symbolizing thought is not to be denied. In truth, a great part of our ideas that are determined by our joys and sorrows, our comforts and our discomforts, whether inward or outward, are expressed in symbols given us through these lower senses. Thus most that we express of the harsh and bitter of life, its sweets and its gladnesses, are symbolized through these classes of objects. A very considerable part of the vocabulary of our language is, in fact, founded on them.

§ 424. The natural symbols or images of thought are of two general classes : —

1. Those which are addressed to one or other of the five senses ; as, sights, sounds, etc., or to the general sense of feeling, as the hot and the cold, the exhilarating and the depressing, and the like ; and,
2. Those which are perceived or felt at the same time and place, or in the same relation to other symbols.

ILLUSTRATION. — The sun is a symbol of whatever is thought, either in its own quality or in its relation as of effect, to be *round, bright, warm*. It is such a symbol because every man, as man, in the full enjoyment of the senses common to human nature, alike experiences these sensations and the effects properly due to them. So that when I say to another, "The shield was as the sun," I reasonably expect he will understand me to mean that it was round, or bright, or both, according to the circumstances, the connection of my words, or the object of my speaking, because I believe he has, like myself, the sense of sight, so that he can, and does in fact, perceive these qualities. So when I say, "In winter as in summer I live as under the beams of a sun that never declines," I shall at once be understood to signify that I am ever kept in warmth of body or of soul, because the sun is warming to all alike. In like manner, if I have been with another in the

same place and at the same time, the objects with which we both were conversant, and which produced in us common thoughts, can be used to symbolize these common thoughts. Thus, Æneas comforted his companions with the promise of another Troy; for he and they alike had known what their own Troy had been to them; what thoughts in reference to it had been, in common, awakened by their having lived in it. Two soldiers who had fought together at Waterloo, in after years could most expressively symbolize to each other any great and decisive battle that either of them had subsequently been through, as a "Waterloo battle," or its result as a "Waterloo victory." Thus are external objects and events symbols of thought. Language primarily consists, as has been stated, of such symbols.

These symbols, it will have been seen, are of two general classes:—

1. Those which, addressing the same sense, produce like sensations in all who experience them; and,
2. Those which are experienced in the same place and time, or in like relations to other objects.

In other words, all such symbols of thought to be used for communication or in discourse, are founded either on identities of sensation, or on identities of condition and relation.

§ 425. Each of these two general classes may be subdivided: the first into,—

1. Those which address the five senses, properly so called; and,
2. Those which address the sense of feeling generally, as in the sensation of heat and cold, of muscular fatigue, of bodily pain or pleasure, and the like.

The second into,—

1. Those of proper condition or of the same time and place; and,
2. Those of like relation to other known symbols.

§ 426. The symbols of the local senses are of the five classes:—

1. *Sounds*;
2. *Sights*;
3. *Smells or odors*;
4. *Tastes or savors*;
5. *Touches*.

§ 427. The symbols of general sensation are of three classes, namely:—

1. *Appetite*, as of hunger and thirst;
2. *Health, and its opposite*, including the sensation of pain, weariness, lassitude, and the like;
3. *Sensations of heat or cold, atmospheric exhilaration or depression*.

§ 428. The symbols of condition are of two classes:—

1. Those founded on identity of place, or, *topical symbols*;
2. Those founded on identity of time, or, *chronical symbols*.

§ 429. The symbols of relation are of the following classes:—

1. Those founded on identity in respect of relation with other symbols of sense;
2. Those founded on identity in respect of relation with other symbols of condition.

§ 430. Symbols, generally, are further divided into two classes:—

1. Those that are *Objects*;
2. Those that are *Properties of Objects*.

ILLUSTRATION.—When we say "His shield was as the sun," or, "a sunny thought," we use a symbol which is an object—the sun.

When, on the other hand, we say, "a brilliant melody," or, "the brilliancy of his thought," we use as a symbol not an object but a property—brilliant.

This distinction is founded on that fundamental difference between subject words and predicate or attribute words which runs through language.

§ 431. Still further, both object-symbols and property-symbols are, in respect of the things symbolized, of two general classes:—

I. Those which symbolize material or sensible objects or properties; either—

1. Those belonging to the same sense; as, "His shield was as the sun," where one object of sight symbolizes another object of sight; or,
2. Those belonging to some different sense; as, "a brilliant melody," where brilliant, denoting a property of a visible object, symbolizes a property belonging to an audible object—a melody.

II. Those which symbolize immaterial or spiritual objects or properties; as, "A sunny feeling," "A brilliant thought," where an object of sense, the sun, and a property of a sensi-

ble or material object, *brilliant*, symbolize respectively mental states.

OBSERVATION.—It will be convenient to recognize the kinds of symbols thus determined as three gradations of symbols; the first gradation embracing those which symbolize objects of the same sense as the symbol; the second gradation those symbolizing objects of a different sense from that of the symbol; and the third those symbolizing a mental or spiritual object.

These gradations, obviously, are those of greater or less resemblance between the symbol and the object of thought symbolized.

CHAPTER II.

SYMBOLS OF SOUNDS.

§ 432. WHEN wishing to communicate to another person a sound we have heard, or to state the fact that we have heard it, or to tell of what kind of sound it was, we naturally represent it by some other similar sound which we can utter ourselves. The sound made by the wind, the rain, the thunder, the falling of rocks, the dashing of water, the rustling of leaves, the cries of animals, we can communicate by words that are like them more or less in sound. We say thus, "The wind *whistles*;" "The rain *patters*;" "The owl *hoots*," and the like.

OBSERVATION.—In these instances the sounds of the words which we use to represent the sensations we have had of the wind, the rain, the owl, are symbols of those sounds. They are like them; they are, in some respect, identical with the sounds which we wish to communicate.

§ 433. There are four properties of sound as sound, in respect of which it may be thus imitated. They are, (1.) Quality; (2.) Pitch; (3.) Volume or Force; (4.) Time or Duration.

OBSERVATION.—In written discourse only imitations in respect of quality can be directly given in words chosen for that purpose. But the other properties of sound can be imitated in the continued pronunciation of discourse; and the expression can be made to vary with the character of the thought to be communicated almost indefinitely, through the judicious choice of words and the construction of the sentence in respect of the pitch, force, and quantity of voice. The melody and the rhythm of the sentence depend immediately on these properties. Only exercises in respect of quality of voice will be prescribed here. They will serve to introduce the pupil to this most important department of style—the selection of words and the arrangement of the sentence with a view to make the expression symbolize or represent by imitation the thought to be communicated.

§ 434. ORAL EXERCISES. *Point out the words in the following sentences which imitate the thought:—*

The tree-toad chimed in with its loud trilling chirrup. They shake the serpents from their hissing hair. They shall stand serene and fearless amidst the crash of falling worlds. The gay linnets carol from the hill. The chirping birds each morning tell the news of cheerful spring. Though the heathen were so foolish to babble many words, yet were they never so mad as to mumble and buzz out words that they understood not. He cut the cord which fastened by the foot the fitting bird. Flow, flow, thou crystal rill, with tinkling gurgles fill the mazes of the grove. As the twilight begins you shall have about you two or three hundred foxes which make a marvelous wauling or howling.

"The solemn death-watch clicked the hour she died,
And shrilling crickets in the chimney cried,
While with logs crackled the fire."

"You set each gossip's clack agoing,
Cell ever squalid! where the scornful maid
Will not fatigue her hand; broom never comes
That comes to all."

The coursers neigh. When he comes to describe the office of his imaginary doctor, he thwacks fourteen scriptures into the margin. Victor Ned eat tittering by. The wheezing swine with coughs is choked. They with soft taps beat time in every strain. Nell answered snappishly. The seat of whiners and grumblers furnishes a very proper subject of ridicule. All that ever he did was not worth so much as the twittle-twattle that he makes. He boasts his twanging bow. The partridge bursts away on whirring wings. He never ducked at the whiz of a cannon-ball.

"The winds with wonder whist
Smoothly the waters kissed,
Whispering new joys to the wild ocean."

"With many a stiff thwack, many a bang,
Hard crab-tree and old iron rang."

"O'er the sea-beat ship the booming waters roar."

"The silver-sounding instruments did meet
With the base murmurs of the water-fall."

"Let screeching owls nest in your razed roofs."

"The owl at Freedom's window screamed,
The screech-owl, prophet dire."

"The little babe did loudly shriek and squall."

"Thump after thump resounds the constant flail."

This is the reason why we are so much pleased with the pretty prattle of children. Who moaned the tedious night. Who whistles out more content than the low-fortuned plowman?

Change the words in italic letters to others that shall better symbolize the sense:—

I heard a *buzzing*; there are serpents here. He shook his head and *crashed* his teeth for ire. I have more than once observed in dogs, under an apprehension of punishment, that they have writhed their bodies and yelped and *bleated*, as if they had actually felt the blows. His steed foams, *roars*, neighs, and breathes out fire and smoke. They serve balsamic cups to *snorting* lungs medicinal. The *whizzing* bells the silent air do cleave. The young curs *mewed* most piteously. The mourning dove *hoots* on the evening air. Broad forests *splash* in the tornado's rage. The whistling air among the branches *roars*. The famished eagle *howls* and passes by.

§ 435. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences with Subjects as given below, and with Predicates symbolizing some Quality:—*

MODELS.—The swallow *twitters*; the wind is *howling*; the chattering wren.

The goose ——. The duck ——. The cricket ——. The —— owl. The —— pheasant. The —— bee. The cannon ——. The leaves ——. The —— cricket. The winds ——. The —— fly. The —— book. The —— steed. The —— breeze.

§ 436. Audible symbols are either, —

1. *Object-symbols*; as, "Thunder tones;" "The crested cock whose clarion sounds;" or,

2. *Property-symbols*; as, "Shrilling note;" "Twanging bow."

§ 437. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Object-symbols and the Property-symbols in the following expressions: —*

Dinning passions. Clamorous appetite. Piping hot. The syren-voice of temptation.

The party are perpetually harping upon it, in vain hopes that their importunate buzzing might sound something like the public voice. The discordance of these errors is mistaken for a discord of the truths. In comparison whereto, all other occupations are mere trifling or unprofitable fiddling about nothing. Father and son, husband and wife, and such correlative terms chime and answer one another in people's memories.

§ 438. Audible symbols are of the three gradations mentioned in the Observation under § 431, as they may symbolize either, (1.) Other sounds; or, (2.) Other sensations, as sights, etc.; or, (3.) Mental or spiritual objects.

OBSERVATION. — We have given copious exercises in audible symbols of the first gradation by themselves, as they are of a very peculiar character from the fact that human language is formed of sounds. This class of symbols has received much attention from the investigators of language, who, under a narrow view of the origin of words, have given to this department of their study the name of *onomatopœia* — word-making.

§ 439. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the gradations of the Symbols in the following expressions: —*

The tone of the picture. Appetite was hushed. Grating colors. He rolled a while his silent eyes. Disproportioned sin jarred against Nature's chime. It was their wish to see public and private virtues not dissonant and jarring and mutually destructive, but harmoniously combined. If any law

or command of man do clash with the law of God. Destiny, to the key-note of our own hearts, strikes chords of a different key in the hearts of those around us, or at least extreme sixths, major sevenths, minor seconds. The music of our life shall be a sounding one; on our harps are yet all the loud pedals for tones of joy, and we have but to tread on them. I know not to what ears the German Fame most loves to blow her trumpet; whether to deaf ears or to long ones.

CHAPTER III.

SYMBOLS OF SIGHTS.

§ 440. VISIBLE objects may be used to symbolize thought in either of the following ways, namely:—

1. *By their Color;*
2. *By their Figure;*
3. *By their Motion.*

§ 441. Visible symbols through properties of color, include those of proper color or decomposed light, as *red, purple, etc.*, and those of light and shade, or simple gradations of undecomposed light; as, "A *bright* thought;" "A *dim* feeling."

§ 442. Visible symbols, through properties of figure, include,—

1. *Linear*, as, *straight, crooked;*
2. *Superficial*, as, *smooth, uneven;*
3. *Solid*, as, *bulky, tumid;*
4. Those of *Magnitude*, as, *long, expanded;*
5. Those of *Order*, as, *regular, symmetrical.*

§ 443. Visible symbols through properties of motion, include,—

1. Those of *Direction*, as, *upward, zigzag;*
2. Those of *Position*, as, *terrestrial, earthly, polar;*
3. Those of *Degree*, as, *quick, languid;*
4. Those of *Order*, as, *prior, final;*
5. Those of *Mode*, as, *flying, hobbling.*

§ 444. ORAL EXERCISES. *Point out the Visible Symbols in the following sentences, and name the class to*

which they belong, whether of Color, of Figure, or of Motion:—

The very attempt toward pleasing every body discovers a temper always flashy.

A gush of joy streamed into his heart.

"Weave the crimson web of war,
For want of that accomplished virtue sphered
In my loved lord."

"Bid the deep
Hush at thy pygmy voice her waves to sleep."

"With sanguine drops the walls are rubied round,
And Nature in the tangles soft involved
Of death-like sleep."

"We have done but greenly
In hugger-mugger to inter them."

Sir John threw out his repartees about the table with much sparkliness.

Limning and flashing it with various dyes.

"Two gentle swains
Whose sprouting youth did now but greenly bud."
"Waste, sandy valleys, once perplexed with thorn,
The spiry fir and shapely box adorn."

O thou, who sweetly bend'st my stubborn will.
His mind is perverse, cam, and crooked.
To make our strait circumstances still straiter.
The double gilt of this opportunity you let Time wash off

"Her long, loose, yellow locks, like golden wire,
Sprinkled with pearl and pearly flowers between,
Do like a golden mantle her attire."

No beauty beaming on his clouded mind.
And yet 't is flat idolatry to bow.
A needy, hollow-eyed, sharp-looking wretch.

"Dull grave, thou spoil'st the dance of youthful blood,
Strik'st out the dimple from the cheek of mirth,
And every smirking feature from the face."

With the earnest haste my tongue oft trips.

"God never meant that men should scale the heavens
By strides of human wisdom."

"As the feathery snows
Fall frequent on some wintry day, when Jove
Hath risen to shed them on the race of man,
And show his arrowy stores."

I shall drop these subjects of mortality.

France went on, indeed, but she staggered and reeled under the burden of the war.

"To prop thy tottering state,
To float thee o'er a reef."

"Years, years, they steal upon us,
Erase the gathering finger-marks of Time."

Point out the Symbols of Color, and state whether they are of Proper Color, or of Light and Shade:—

Ope thy ruby lips.

"The rosy-fingered morning fair,
Weary of aged Tithone's saffron bed,
Had spread her purple robe through dewy air."

"His head
Not yet by time completely silvered o'er."

It cannot be wondered at, considering the greenness of his years.

The swan gives out his snowy plumage to the gale.

"Hot Meroe, fruitful to a sooty race,
And proud of ebon woods."

"Blooming on," said Albano in a somber tone.

Suppose they fight and let a little claret, it will harm nobody.

Ida covered all with sulphury clouds.

"By his glimmering sense
First found his want of words."

Here wave his amber locks.

His whole mind was blazoned over with a variety of glittering images.

"The living throne, the sapp'ire blaze
He saw."

Report speaks goldenly of his profit.

"The vision bright,
As with a smile more brightened, thus replied."

Point out the Symbols of Figure, and state to which class they belong, whether Linear, Superficial, Solid, of Magnitude, or of Order:—

Wear out thy youth with shapeless idleness.

Purse-proud, elbowing Insolence.

Bloated empiric, puffed pretense.

Archly he looked, and slyly leered.

A good man, in a sudden anger, may go beyond the evenness of a wise Christian.

My will hath been used to crookedness and peevish morosity in all virtuous employments.

Despise the swellings and the diseases of a disordered life.

He has here sunk into the flatness of prose.

These unfortunately fed with nothing else but the scragged and thorny lectures of mankind and miserable sophistry.

I'll quote him to a tittle; let him speak wisely.

Time had worn deep furrows in his face.

To the well governing of a people, squaring fit laws for it, and keeping it in good order, the nature and humor of that people should be chiefly heeded.

Many more are hid from the narrow sphere of our searches.

All kinds of false happiness fall within the compass of these two — utility and pleasure.

"And then it scarce imports a jot
Whether the great world frowns or not."

Motives are not to be too scrupulously inquired into, while actions are found to be laudable.

It is no wonder that science has not outgrown the dwarfishness of its pristine stature.

Thus each quit other all old debts and dribbiets.

The late Emperor Augustus all the world rangeth in the rank of fortunate men.

The Macaronian is a kind of burlesque poetry, consisting of a jumble of words of different languages.

The other party I headed myself.

But in comes a gentleman in the fag-end of October, and does not hesitate in diameter to contradict this wise and just royal declaration.

"The very head and front of my offending
Hath this extent, no more."

Point out the Symbols of Motion, and state to which class they belong, whether of Direction, Position, Degree, Order, or Mode:—

They so long dodged with him about trifles that Cromwell was come to London before they were done.

You may catch him tripping if you can.

He walked with me in peace and equity.

I will run in the way of thy commandments.

"She raised her voice on high and sung so clear,
The fawns came scudding from the groves to hear."

The proper work of man, the grand drift of human life, is to follow reason.

There are different degrees of skimmers; first, he who goes no further than the title-page; secondly, he who proceeds to the contents and index.

Why, then, may some divers in the deep of Providence say, doth God ordain no more good men and actions?

We have seen what a mere nothing it is that this strutter hath pronounced with such sonorous rhetoric.

"My undulating life was as
The fancied lights that flitting pass
Our shut eyes in deep midnight."

One delighteth in mirth and the friskings of an airy soul.

We must not ramble in this field without discernment or choice.

Reason is a ray of divinity darted into the soul.
Hexameter verse doth rather trot and hobble than run smoothly in our English tongue.
The worst is, Scripture warped from its intent.

"Nor shun nor court the great,
Your truest center is the middle state."

The ideas were suited to my present wanderings of thought.

It never penetrates through this disguise.

It still adopts the stab of crouching murder.

We must court, flatter, and fee them, not to mention the trouble of dancing attendance.

Let us lift up our hearts with our hands.

A man has perhaps for a long time taken the full swing of his voluptuous humor.

At this, they were so much staggered that they plainly discovered their ignorance.

Alas! I am not any flickering thing.

§ 445. Visible symbols are either object-symbols or property-symbols.

§ 446. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish the Object-symbols and the Property-symbols in the following expressions:—*

Silvery stream. A flashy character. Hazy thoughts. Sunny disposition. Meteoric fancy. Unclouded hopes. The films of error. Starless despair. Glaring falsehood. Double-dyed guilt.

The campaign was a blaze of glory. His policy was tortuous and crab-like. Joy brightened in his soul. And now does he creep and wriggle into acquaintance with all the brave gallants about the town. Meander's snaky flood. His musical compositions have a chameleon-like character, which is ever shifting its hues. Life was colored with the rosy light of morn. He shows the early, underground

springs of the mind from which the rivers of thought well up to the light. They were resolved to see in his excesses only the flash and outbreak of that same fiery mind which glowed in his poetry.

§ 447. Visible symbols are of the three gradations, as they symbolize either, (1) other sights; or (2) sensations other than sights; or (3) mental or spiritual objects.

§ 448. ORAL EXERCISE. *Distinguish in the following expressions the several gradations of Visible Symbols:—*

Wheeling planets. Semi-lunar fardels. Golden clouds. The wavy folds. His rounded sentences. Ruffled spirits. Bristling spears. Crimson shame. Checkered life. Your sneaking, worming souls. His address was flat. His brow was clouded. Its dazzling imagery. Prismatic memories. Evanescent hopes. The darkness of his mind. He holds the virtue of the snaky wood. The artist commenced with a soft streamy note of celestial quality; and with three or four whips of his bow elicited points of sound as bright as the stars. The lowest tones are formed in the chest, and partake of the most somber hues. Hope let down her purifying light into the damp mephitic pit in which he was now panting and digging. He almost sank beneath the iron arm of the world.

§ 449. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Construct sentences with the Subjects given below, and with Predicates from Symbols of Sight:—*

MODELS.—The steed *fies* across the plain. The melody *limped* in every strain. The trembling wish. The dark surmisings. Its *twinkling* eye.

1. *With Predicates from Objects of Color.*—The purpose —. His feelings —. The pronunciation was —. His cheek —. The apples —. The pages of the book —. The — desire. The — message.

2. *With Predicates from Figured Objects.*—His actions —. The — policy of the administration. The — mountain. His — brow. His intellect —. — France.

3. *With Predicates from the Motion of Objects.*—The — caravan. The — swallow. The eagle —. His ambition —. His discourse —. His purpose —; but his execution —. His — spirits. The verse —. The steamer —. Their hopes —.

CHAPTER IV.

SYMBOLS FROM OBJECTS OF SMELL, TASTE, AND TOUCH.

§ 450. SYMBOLS from sensations of smell, taste, and touch; like audible and visible symbols, may represent thought, either through the objects themselves or through any qualities that characterize them; that is, they are either object-symbols or property-symbols; as, "*honeyed flattery*," or "*luscious flattery*."

§ 451. They also symbolize in the three modes or gradations:—

1. Of sensations of the same sense;
2. Of other sensations;
3. Of mental or spiritual objects or states by sensible objects or qualities.

§ 452. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Symbols in the following sentences, and mention whether they are of Smell, of Taste, or of Touch; whether of Object or of Property; and of which of the three gradations:—*

The fragrant of charitable sentiments. The sweetness of his verse. We are more sottish than the Trojans, if we retain one Helena, any one beloved lust, any sugared temptation.

A nectaran, balsam kiss.

With flattery's mannaed lips assail the throne.

In vice there is a noisome rankness.

He is not tickled with greediness of renown.

The popular harangue, the tart reply.

SYMBOLS FROM SMELL, TASTE, AND TOUCH. 277

Any mirth is better than unmanly mustiness.
It falleth to very ticklish times.

"Lo! poverty to fill the land,
That numbs the soul with icy hand."

He even descended to the meanness of a palpable lie.
One is driven to remember the roughness of the times.
This candied bitterest tortures with delight.

"Though his tongue
Dropt manna, and could make the worse appear
The better reason."

Warm, instant, loving praise is the sweetest cup that can
be put to a poet's lips.

It is easy to observe how age or sickness sours and crabs
our natures.

Tartly ridiculing the pretenses commonly made for it.

"Some harsh, 't is true,
Picked from the thorns and briers of reproof,
But wholesome, well-digested; grateful some
To palates that can taste immortal truth;
Inspid else, and sure to be despised."

"Remorse stings deeper, and relentless Conscience
Pours more of gall into the bitter cup
Of their severe repentance."

"And daintily I nourished thee
With idle thoughts and poetry."

"Riches and honors, then, are useless things;
To the ill-judging palate sweet,
But turn at last to nauseousness and gall."

"And in triumphant melody confess
The titillating joy."

What striking lessons have we had of the precarious tenure
of all sublunary possessions. The idea tickled my fancy.
No sorrow weighed on your skirts.

§ 453. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences with the Subjects as given below and with Predicates that are Symbols of some Smell, Taste, or Touch:—*

MODEL. — The sarcasm was *peppery*. His *benumbed* feelings.

His conversation —. The music —. Praise —.
The — heart. The landscape —. Joy —. His wit
—, and his temper —.

CHAPTER V.

SYMBOLS FROM GENERAL SENSE.

§ 454. SYMBOLS from general sense embrace three classes, or those, —

1. *Of Appetite ;*
2. *Of Health and Disease ;*
3. *Of Sensations from Outward Causes.*

The first class includes those of hunger and thirst, and their several gratifications.

The second class includes such as those of vitality of spirits, exhilaration, depression, freshness, buoyancy, languor, weariness, effervescence, agitation, convulsiveness, tremulousness, and the like.

The third class includes sensations of heat and cold, and those of pleasure and pain from the contact of any outward objects with the body, other than those that address the five special senses.

§ 455. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Symbols of General Sensation in the following sentences, and refer them to their proper class, as of Appetite, etc. : —*

Satiety, perpetual disgust, and feverishness of desire, attend those who passionately study pleasure.

The inward glowings of the heart.

We shall be able to part with such pleasures without any disquieting longings or hankerings after them.

In pleasure some their glutton souls would steep.

This may be imputed to the briskness of his fancy or to an occasional indolence which spleen and lassitude brought upon him.

Ought they not to be esteemed notorious fools, even destitute of common sense, and abandoned to a callousness and numbness of soul?

The wickedness of this old villain startles me and gives me a twinge for my own sin.

O sharp convulsive pangs of agonizing pride!

"Think the cruel strife,
The gnaw of anguish and the waste of life."

The fruits of liberty have the more agreeable relish after the uneasy hours of a close and tedious confinement.

And tell the secret of your mortal smart.

The inward chafings and agitations of his struggling soul

"Let crabbed fortune now express her might;
And do thy worst to me, thou stinging spite."

He chafed, he grieved, he fretted.

The hectic of the soul produces one in the body; the man from an inward falls into an outward consumption.

A careful heart that swelters in the flame.

From bard to bard the frigid caution kept.

"Devotion, when lukewarm, is undevout;
But when it glows, its heat is struck to heaven."

A good man would be loth to be taken out of the world reeking hot from a sharp contention with a perverse adversary.

Dost thou so hunger for my empty chair?

Something is wanting to excite an appetite to existence in the palled satiety which attends on all pleasures that may be bought.

They in the practice of their religion wearied chiefly their knees and hands; we especially our ears and tongues.

In proportion as we can suspend the exercise of all our other senses, the liveliness of our conception increases.

"And as with age his body uglier grows,
So his mind cankers."

Instead of defending these doctrines, it is the duty of a

real disciple of Jesus Christ to reprobate them as gangrenous excrescences.

The mind runs after it with as much freshness and eagerness as if it had never done any thing.

Their duties are not performed with such sprightliness of affections and overflowings of joy as they are wont, but are performed droopingly and heavily.

Mr. T.'s romance is cold even when it attempts wealth.

The vapors on his path of life condensed into a morning fog, this again into evening clouds, and the latter, in their turn, into chilly showers of rain. Sleep soothes and arrests the fever-pulse of the soul; and its grains are the quinine for the cold fit of hate as well as for the hot fever of love. Both these lights are reflexes, and it is nearly impossible to say what tones may be assumed even by the warmest light reflected from a cool surface.

§ 456. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences with the Subjects given below, and with Predicates from Symbols of General Sensation:—*

MODEL.—The spirit pines in solitude. The cankered heart. The languid verse.

His oration ——. The thought ——. Ambition ——. Hope ——. ——. consciousness of rectitude. ——. fancy. Pleasures ——. Fears ——. ——. friendship. A ——. purpose.

CHAPTER VI

SYMBOLS OF CONDITION AND RELATION.

§ 457. SYMBOLS of condition are of two classes : —

1. *Topical*, or those founded on place ;
2. *Chronical*, or those founded on time.

OBSERVATION. — The general nature of this class of symbols has been, perhaps, sufficiently explained. If we should wish to communicate to another a thought, whether a mere thought, or one embodying a feeling or a purpose, we could not do it more effectively than by referring to some place or time in which we both had the thought in common. The thought being identified with the occasion, such a reference would at once suggest the thought. It may be a single thought thus suggested, or a train of thought; a mere thought, or a thought or course of thought characterized by some sensation or emotion, or some determination or endeavor.

§ 458. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Symbols of Condition in the following sentences, and class them as Topical or Chronical : —*

The horizon of their ambition. The infancy of science.
The boundless ocean of discovery. Dawnings of success.

Where lawns extend that scorn Arcadian pride.

He has the eyes of youth ; he writes verses ; he speaks
holy day ; he smells April and May.

Shall posterity reproach us with having found a Capua in
Lombardy ?

There grew up out of all regions of his soul an evening
Arcadia.

What a dark cloud-break out of the morning redness of
youth !

The four rivers of Paradise had, in one cataract, poured
down from heaven into his heart.

He looked up from his road to the mountain where his
father had found him, as to a Tabor of the past.

Irving was forty-two years and some months old ; Scotland
sent him forth an Herculean man ; our mad Babylon wore
him and wasted him, with all her engines.

“ Be still an Eden bright to me
My own, my own fireside.”

Childhood has its Eden ; adolescence has its hours of Par-
adise.

§ 459. Symbols of relation are of two classes : —

1. Those founded on their identity with some symbol of
sense in their effect on the mind ;
2. Those founded on their identity with a symbol of con-
dition in such effect.

ILLUSTRATION. — What is difficult is familiarly symbolized to us by refer-
ence to a mountain, as that object at once suggests the feeling and the
effort that are to be experienced in crossing it. Thus we say, “ Every
simple task was a *mountain*.” In the same way a condition, either of place
or of time, may suggest the thought, in so far as it has been associated with
the thought in the minds of both speaker and hearer. Thus we speak of a
task as being an *Augean stable* ; just as we might call it an *Herculean* task.

These symbols of relation are closely allied to those of the other classes.
Thus when we say “ an *Eden* scene,” we may interpret the symbol *Eden*
as a visible object, symbolizing its characteristic property, as picturing to
the eye, for instance, peace and joy ; or as a place in which peace and joy
were felt ; or as one which stands in the same relation to the mind in pro-
ducing certain sentiments as the scene to be described. Often, thus, the
symbol may be interpreted in either way. But this fact should not impair
in our minds the importance of becoming familiar with the several kinds
of symbols, which are so clearly distinguishable in their origin.

§ 460. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the Symbols of Relation in the following extracts, and class them as Rel-
ative Symbols of Object or of Condition : —*

Strike now, or else the iron cools.

What if I be not known to the Nimrods of the world.

Our foster-nurse of Nature is repose.

“ Let Hercules himself do what he may,
The cat will mew, the dog will have his day.”

It may be thou art entered into the cloud which will bring a gentle shower to refresh thy sorrows.

Yet when the new life which we beg for shines in upon us, there be who envy and oppose, if it come not first in at their casements.

Is not the man who is furiously bent on calumny a scorpion?

"Our sighs are then but vernal air,
But April drops our tears."

The vigorous mind has mountains to climb and valleys to repose in.

"Ruin's merciless plowshare must pass o'er,
And barren salt be sown on yon proud city."

But the effect of those discoveries was to be more than the indulgence of an ardent or a learned curiosity; it was to teach men to think on the great subjects of civil and religious freedom; that shower of meteors not only dazzled and delighted the universal eye with descending splendor, but plowed up the old rigidity of a moral soil, long hardened by the heaviest tread of tyranny and superstition.

"Thou in the shadow of the Rock shalt dwell,
The Rock of strength."

Almost all other poets sink into twinkling stars before Milton.

They are like those divine promises which will answer every case of difficulty or distress, and open any lock in Doubting Castle. The part which those authors performed for literature was rather that of Moses than that of Joshua: they opened the house of bondage, but they did not enter the promised land.

§ 461. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Construct sentences expressing by some Symbol of Condition or of Relation some quality of the following subjects: —*

MODELS. — His pleasures are *minutes*; his joys weary *hours*. His bosom was a *Vesuvius* of burning passion.

The invigoration of success is —. His memory is that of —. The beauty of the scene was —. — amusement. — landscape. — difficulties. Their griefs were —. His were the dreams of —. — simplicity of manners. — perseverance.

CHAPTER VII.

LAW OF SYMBOLS.

§ 462. THERE are three general laws which should govern the use of all symbols. They are,—

1. That the symbol be true to the thought which it symbolizes; that is, be identical with it in some respect; this is the *Law of Truth*.

2. That the symbol be such as can be readily understood; this is the *Law of Clearness*;

3. That the symbol be harmonious with itself; this is the *Law of Congruence*.

§ 463. The law of Symbolic Truth prohibits the use of any form as symbol which does not belong to the thought that is symbolized.

ILLUSTRATION.—Such expressions as the following are not true to the thought which is to be represented: “*The wind screamed*;” “*A sparkling sunset*;” “*The icy pulses of his miserly heart*.”

OBSERVATION.—In order to a ready compliance with this first law in the selection and use of symbols, habits of accurate observation are indispensable. The diverse sounds given out by animals, by birds, in the varying motions of inanimate objects, water, air, earth, rocks, etc., the varying forms presented to the eye in all the multitude of visible objects and scenes and motions, should be studied and carefully marked, in order that thought may be correctly symbolized.

§ 464. The law of Symbolic Clearness prohibits the use of such forms as would not be readily understood by the mind addressed.

§ 465. The law of Symbolic Congruence forbids the uniting of disagreeing parts into the same symbol; as, “*His keen falchion drinks the warrior's lives*.”

§ 466. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the errors in the use of Symbols in the following extracts, and tell which of the three laws is violated:—*

The twinkling moonlight. The laughing precipices of rock and clamorous forests. The brayings of wolves and chatterings of owls. I witnessed a scene that has rung in my ears till now.

They hear so much evil blazed abroad.

Bid smiling conscience spread her cloudless skies.

This menacing meteor which blackened all the horizon.

Learn to understand the world, for it is a cozenage all the way; the head of it is a rainbow, and the face of it is flattery; its body is a shadow, and its hands do knit spiders' webs.

But when the white object began to raise itself slowly up, he laid down his weapon and with three touches flew boldly over the uppermost octave of the stairs down to the counter-bass touch or step. Every night of dreams cut asunder the falling planet-knot and with it his heart.

I was struck with an instinct of sorrow.

PART VIII. — EXPLANATION.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW. — DIVISIONS.

§ 467. EXPLANATION is that process by which we communicate thought to another mind for the simple purpose of information.

OBSERVATION. — In explanation, we seek simply to form in the minds of others a thought which we ourselves have of an object. In doing this, we present the parts that make up the object as we view it, in suitable forms of words and of imagery. The thought is thus ever regarded as composite — as made up of parts. Now as any object of which we can think may be viewed as made up of different kinds of parts, we must vary our explanation accordingly. There arise hence different forms or kinds of explanation.

Objects of thought are made up of different kinds of parts, according to the different manner in which they have arisen in the mind. We have, in fact, two general classes into which they may be distributed in this respect, according as they are brought into the mind by what may be called the originative faculties of the mind, or by the discursive faculty, or faculty of comparison. In the first class, the parts of the object are given in the object itself as it is presented to us; in the second class, the objects are the artificial products of our own minds, being formed by combining or separating into parts the objects of the first class. Composite objects of thought, thus, are either, (1.) Integrate; or (2.) Logical.

Further, we may explain an object in either of two ways: either, (1.) By indicating how it is related in its several parts to other objects; or, (2.) By pointing out its own interior parts. The first process is called by logicians Definition; the second is Explanation in the narrower sense.

Further, an integrate object of thought is either single or composite; and, if composite, is either made up of like individual parts, and is expressed in a collective noun, as, *a forest, an army*, or is made up of continuous parts, and is expressed in a mass-noun, as, *air, mortar*.

If such an object be single, it is, according as it is viewed under the relations of time or of space, either a cause, as in an action, an event, something changing; or it is a substance, or simply an object viewed without change.

As the parts, by the naming of which we explain the object, are different in these several classes, it becomes necessary to proceed in different ways in explaining them. There arise so many different kinds of Explanation. Thus the explanation of an object as cause, in other words of a single action or event, is by *Narration*; of an object viewed as substance, is by *Description*; of a collective object, by *Enumeration*; of a mass-object, by *Disposition*.

A logical object of thought is formed either by combining different subjects having the same predicate, or by combining different predicates having the same subject. They are, accordingly, of two classes; one expressed in class-nouns, the other in abstract nouns.

The parts in an object of the first class are, of course, the individual subjects which were originally united to form it. Thus, the parts of the object denoted by the class-noun *planet* are *Mercury, Venus*, etc.; or, as we may have smaller combinations themselves combined to make still larger combinations, the parts may be taken to be, *inferior planets, superior planets, and the Earth*. Explanation of an object proceeding by designation of such parts is called *Division*.

The parts in an object of thought of the second class are those several attributes, belonging to the same subject, which have been combined to form it. Thus *animal*, viewed as an abstract, is made up of *living, organized, locomotive, sentient*, these attributes all belonging to the same subject, as *horse, sheep*, etc.; since we observe that a horse is living, a horse is organized, etc. Explanation of an object proceeding by designation of such parts is called *Partition*.

§ 468. The processes of Explanation are six in number, namely: —

1. *Definition*;
2. *Narration*;
3. *Description*;
4. *Enumeration and Disposition*;
5. *Division*;
6. *Partition*.

§ 469. An object of thought, when viewed as that which is to be explained, is called a *Theme*. We have thus the following definition: —

THE THEME in Explanation is the object of thought to be explained.

OBSERVATION. — In order to easy and correct communication of thought, it is necessary to observe some general rules of procedure. Thus, in explaining an object of thought, to prevent confusion, we must have a clear notion of what object it is, and keep it separate from all other objects; we must observe the law of Unity. Again, we cannot always, in explanation, mention all the parts. It becomes necessary to select those that are best fitted to our purpose: we must, therefore, observe the law of Selection. Further, the parts which we present in explanation must be presented in a proper order: we must observe the law of Method. Once more, we need to give all the parts that are requisite in order fully to explain the object: we must observe the law of Completeness.

In every exercise in writing, the pupil should be led to apply each of these four laws to his explanation.

§ 470. There are four laws to be observed in all Explanation: 1. *The Law of Unity*; 2. *The Law of Selection*; 3. *The Law of Method*; 4. *The Law of Completeness*.

§ 471. The LAW OF UNITY requires that there be but one object to be explained.

§ 472. The LAW OF SELECTION requires that such parts only be taken as will best explain the object.

§ 473. The LAW OF METHOD requires that the parts selected be presented in their due order.

§ 474. The LAW OF COMPLETENESS requires that all the parts required for the explanation be presented.

CHAPTER II.

DEFINITION.

§ 475. DEFINITION is that process of Explanation by which an object is distinguished from other objects.

ILLUSTRATION. — We explain Mexico, as a part of North America, by Definition, when we distinguish it from the other parts of North America; that is, when we give its boundaries. We explain the voyage of Columbus in discovering America merely as an event by Definition, when we distinguish it from other events; as when we bound it by its dates in beginning and ending, and the places of its beginning and ending, with the direction which it followed. We define *man* as a logical class-object or concrete by separating it from other objects of the class to which it and they belong; as, by distinguishing it from the brute. We define *rational*, on the other hand, as a logical attribute-object, or abstract, by separating it from other attributes belonging to the same subject; that is, inasmuch as *man* contains the two attributes, *rational* and *animal*, we define *rational* by separating it from *animal*.

The object to be explained by Definition, it will be noticed, is ever a *part*, and the process distinguishes it from other parts which with it make up some whole of thought. A definition of *Mexico*, thus, regards it as a part of North America; and the design of the definition is to separate it as such part from the other parts which with it make up the whole — *North America*.

The mind, therefore, in defining, is ever put on the work of discovering other objects which, as parts, with the object to be defined as another part, make up a larger whole. All the general laws of Explanation are modified accordingly in their application to this particular process.

The process here described is to be distinguished from what is sometimes called verbal definition. We may define a word either by naming its synonym, as when we define the word *diurnal*, by *daily*; or by referring to its etymology, as when we define *definition* as a *bounding out*. The process which we are now considering is the definition of an *object*, not of a *word*.

§ 476. The Law of Unity in Definition requires that but one object be presented for explanation, and

that it be presented as a part to be distinguished from other parts.

§ 477. ORAL EXERCISE. *Correct the errors in the following Definitions:—*

MODEL.—The Definition, *Massachusetts is one of the New England States, which lies north of Long Island Sound*, is incorrect, for it includes more than the object to be defined, namely, Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Mexico is a part of North America, and is bounded on the north by the United States and on the south by New Granada and Venezuela.

Switzerland is bounded on the north and east by Germany on the south by Italy, and on the west by France.

Youth is the part of life between infancy and manhood.

The colonial era of the United States history extends from the discovery of America in 1492 to the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

The trunk of a tree is the part of it below the branches.

The underpinning of a house is the part below the windows.

The steeple is that part of a church which is over the portico.

A shrub is the vegetable growth that is distinguished from the herb in being perennial, and from the tree in being of a smaller size.

The sheep is the animal that differs from the goat in being woolly and not having horns.

Blue is the color between violet and indigo.

A hexagon is a figure having one more side than a pentagon and one less than an octagon.

The pupil of the eye is the opening in front through which the rays of light are admitted from without, and is bounded on all sides by the white of the eye.

Grammar is the art which trains the orator for the pulpit and the bar.

Geography tells us of the earth and of the nations that inhabit it, their origin and history.

Hope is that principle which prompts and executes the great enterprises of human life.

§ 478. The Law of Selection in Definition requires that such points or lines of separation be taken as shall best distinguish the object from other objects.

§ 479. ORAL EXERCISE. *Point out the errors in Selection in the following definitions:—*

Delaware lies southeast of Pennsylvania, southwest of Delaware Bay, and east and north of Maryland.

The Balize is a British possession lying northwest of the Bay of Honduras, and separating Central America from Yucatan.

A week is a period of time one fourth as long as a month, and about the fiftieth part of a year.

The House of Stuart occupied the throne of England from the last of the House of Tudor through the period of the English Revolution.

The trunk is that part of the tree which supports the branches and adjoins the root.

The Torrid Zone is that part of the surface of the earth which is farthest removed from the two poles, and is separated from the Frigid Zone by the Temperate.

The neck is in the upper part of the body, below the head.

§ 480. The Law of Method requires that the definition proceed in the order of contiguity or nearness, and in a uniform direction.

§ 481. ORAL EXERCISE. *Correct the errors in Method in the following definitions:—*

New York lies west of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Vermont, south of Canada, north of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and east of Canada.

Portugal is a country situated west of Spain, east of the Atlantic, and in the southwestern part of Europe.

The antediluvian period of the world includes the lives of Methuselah, the oldest man, and of Adam, the first man ; the whole of the life of Cain, and a part of that of Noah.

The ox has horns shaped like a crescent. It belongs to the order of animals called ruminants. It has no cutting teeth in the upper jaw. It has two hoofs. It chews the cud, and lives on grass.

The capital is part of a column. It is that part of a building which rests on the shaft, or the main part of the column.

§ 482. The Law of Completeness requires that all the points or lines necessary to a full separation of the object to be explained, be presented.

§ 483. ORAL EXERCISE. *Correct the errors in respect of Completeness in the following definitions :—*

Holland is a country lying on the North Sea, west of Prussia and Hanover.

Connecticut lies south of Massachusetts and west of Rhode Island.

The Bourbon dynasty in France embraces the most brilliant portion of the history of that country, commencing with the reign of Henry the Great.

A generation is a measure of human life.

A portico stands on columns. It is smaller and lower than the house.

The cat is a carnivorous animal. It has sharp claws buried in the skin, which it can extend or draw back at pleasure.

The honey-bee belongs to the insect race. It has four transparent wings, a large head, and a trunk or proboscis to extract the juices from flowers.

§ 484. *Special Rules for Definition :—*

1. Define a place by naming, first, the larger place of which it is a part, and then its boundaries in order.

2. Define a period of time by naming the longer period of time of which it is a part, and then its beginning and its end.

3. Define an individual object by indicating first the whole of which it is a part, and then the outlines that separate it from the other parts.

4. Define a part of a class by naming first the class, and then the attributes which separate it from other like parts of the class.

5. Define an attribute by naming the composite attribute of which it is a part, and then separating it from the other parts.

OBSERVATION.—In defining an attribute, it will often be found most convenient to name the class formed of the objects that have the composite attribute, and then separate the theme from the other attributes by naming the parts of the class that have the attribute. Thus, to define *sweet*, we may name it as one of the attributes that belong to *flavored objects* or to *tastes*, and then separate it from other tastes. Thus *sweet* is that attribute of a taste which belongs to sugar, to honey, and that class of objects. In like manner, we may define *jagged* as that attribute of a figured body which belongs to such objects as a saw, a crag.

§ 485. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Define the following themes :—*

As places : Belgium ; France ; Scotland ; Persia ; Chili ; Indiana ; New Brunswick.

As periods of time : A year ; a lunar month ; boyhood ; the antediluvian era ; the republican era of Roman history ; the reign of the Plantagenets in England ; the Carolingian era in France.

As parts of visible objects : The human arm ; the crown of a hat ; the heel of a shoe ; the gable of a house ; the trunk of a tree ; the proboscis of an elephant ; the corolla of a flower.

As parts of a class : A dog ; a snake ; an oak ; a lily ; an apple ; a sofa ; an ax ; a book ; iron ; a ruby ; marble.

As parts of a composite attribute : Round ; purple ; shrill ; cold ; heavy ; elastic ; swift ; graceful ; intelligent ; forgetful

CHAPTER III.

NARRATION.

§ 486. NARRATION is the explanation of an object of thought as changing in successive time.

OBSERVATION. — We can narrate in either of two ways. We can simply mention the periods of time in which the changes in the theme severally take place. Thus we narrate the theme *human life*, by representing it as passing through the several periods of infancy, childhood, youth, manhood, and old age.

Or we may narrate by representing the theme itself in its actual changes. Thus we narrate human life as at first weak and dependent, then as becoming stronger and bolder, and finally, as waning and decaying.

The only difference between the two modes is, that in the former case we are governed rather by a regard to the parts of time, and in the other more by a regard to the parts of the object itself changing in those periods of time. The difference is that between chronology and annals on the one hand and biography and history on the other. In the one, time is measured off into periods, and the events, so far as relating to the theme, are stated in those periods successively; in the other, the leading changes in the theme itself are given as they occur, in successive time, without reference to definite periods.

These two ways of proceeding should not be confounded or mingled together. The selection of the parts and the method should either be in the one or the other way ex-

clusively, or one should be subordinate to the other. The history of England might be narrated chronologically by marking it off into centuries, or into periods measured by the reigns of successive kings; or historically, by narrating the successive changes which the English people passed through. Or the chronological method might be adopted as the governing method, and the historical method be observed in conducting the narration through the chronological periods, one after the other.

§ 487. The Law of Unity in Narration requires two things, —

1. That there be but one object to be explained;
2. That it be presented only as changing in successive time.

§ 488. The Law of Selection requires that such periods of time or such stages in the changing theme be taken as will best exhibit the theme to another mind.

§ 489. The Law of Method requires that the succession of time be strictly observed.

§ 490. The Law of Completeness requires that all the periods or stages in the changing theme be given that are necessary fully to exhibit it.

§ 491. WRITTEN EXERCISES. 1. *Narrate the following themes by marking off the Periods of Time in which the leading changes have taken place: —*

- The history of the world.
- The history of Rome.
- The history of England.
- The history of France.
- The history of the United States.
- The history of Mexico.
- The progress of the seasons.

The changes of the moon.
 The phases of Venus.
 The life of man.
 The growth of the oak.
 The life of the butterfly.

2. *Narrate the following themes by stating the leading stages of change : —*

My last vacation.
 My journey.
 My course of study.
 My last walk.
 The life of Joseph.
 The life of David.
 The life of Socrates.
 The life of Alexander the Great.
 The life of Cicero.
 The life of Robert Bruce.
 The life of Lord Bacon.
 The life of Galileo.
 The life of Robert Burns.
 The life of Sir Walter Scott.
 The life of Charlotte Brontë.
 The life of Julius Cæsar.
 The life of Napoleon Bonaparte.
 The life of Wellington.
 The life of George Washington.
 The history of Venice.
 The history of the Crusades.
 The history of the Netherlands.
 The history of Switzerland.
 The history of Poland.
 The history of Russia.
 The destruction of Jerusalem.
 The capture of Rome by Genseric.
 The conquest of Wales by Edward I.

The siege of Malta.
 The English Revolution of 1688.
 The French Revolution of 1787.
 The American Revolution of 1776.
 The conquest of Granada.
 The discovery of America.
 The conquest of Mexico.
 The conquest of Peru.
 The destruction of Pompeii.
 The earthquake at Lisbon in 1755
 The American Civil War of 1861
 The battle of Navarino.
 The battle of Waterloo.
 The battle of Gettysburgh.

CHAPTER IV.

DESCRIPTION.

§ 492. DESCRIPTION is the explanation of an object thought regarded as a substance.

OBSERVATION. — The essential parts of a substance are its Properties. To describe an object, therefore, viewed as a substance, we name the Properties of which it is made up. We describe *the sun* thus, as *round, bright, etc.*; as *moving, attracting, illuminating, etc.*

Description, also, includes the naming of the relative attributes of a substance, as greater or less; nearer or more remote; higher or lower in position, in rank, etc.

§ 493. The Law of Unity in Description requires two things:—

1. That there be but one, and that an individual object, to be explained;

2. That the object be presented as a substance having certain Properties, or certain attributes of relation.

OBSERVATION. — Individual objects, it will be recollected, are expressed in language in two ways:—

1. By proper nouns, or words appropriated to them; as, *John, Venus, France, Friday.*

2. By words with Definitives; as, *The Sun; This Book; My Hat; The Tree which we saw* (§ 92).

§ 494. The Law of Selection in Description requires that such attributes of the object be taken as will best exhibit the theme as a substance.

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§ 495. The Law of Method in Description requires, —

1. That the parts of space or the properties selected be presented in their proper connection, each class by itself, as visible properties together, audible together, etc.

2. That the Properties and the attributes of Condition and Relation be kept distinct.

§ 496. The Law of Completeness in Description requires that all the attributes that make up the theme as substance be presented.

The process, however, will be so far complete, if only all the qualities or only all the relative attributes be presented.

§ 497. WRITTEN EXERCISE. *Describe the following themes by naming in order their several attributes:—*

My class-room; the church I worship in; the town hall.

My cat; my dog; my horse.

My rose-bush; my garden; my play-room.

Mount Vesuvius; Mount Ætna; Mount Hecla.

The River Amazon; the Mississippi; the Danube.

The Caspian Sea; the Dead Sea; Lake Superior.

The city of Mexico; the city of Pekin; the city of Athens.

The Parthenon; the Coliseum; St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome.

The character of Socrates; of Lord Bacon; of George Washington; of Milton; of Cowper; of Byron.

CHAPTER V

ENUMERATION AND DISPOSITION.

§ 498. ENUMERATION is the explanation of an object viewed as a collective whole.

DISPOSITION is the explanation of an object viewed as a mass-whole.

A collective object is explained by naming the individuals of which it is composed and the number, whether definite or indefinite, of such individuals as compose it. Thus, *army* is explained by naming *soldier* as the individual which is repeated to form it, and giving the number of such individuals in it, which is here indefinite. *Week* is explained as made up of individual days, seven times repeated.

A mass-object is explained by naming the spacial parts of which it is made up. *Man* is explained simply as a mass, by naming the spacial parts, *head, trunk, limbs; tree*, by naming its spacial parts, *root, trunk, branches*.

OBSERVATION. — These processes of explanation, it will be seen, are very simple, and have but a very limited range. But it is deemed expedient to present them for two special reasons besides the general consideration of completeness: (1.) That the pupil may be made more conversant with the important distinction between objects of thought, as denoted by proper nouns, class-nouns, collective nouns, and mass-nouns; and, (2.) Because it is necessary in explaining such objects to begin with presenting their own proper nature as composite integrate objects, the full explanation being followed by some other process, as description or narration. It is unnecessary to give the general laws of explanation as specially modified to these processes. The pupil is simply cautioned to get a clear notion of the object as a collective or a mass-object. In the explanation of a collective object, he will only need to name the individual object of which it is composed by repetition, and state the number of individuals repeated in it, whether definite or in-

definite; and if definite, the actual number. In a mass-object he will in like manner name the constituent parts of which the substance is composed.

§ 499. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Explain the following themes, —*

1. *As Collective Objects: —*

Army; forest; mob; rabble; horde; crew; gang; galaxy; the planetary system; corps; squadron; platoon; battalion; clump; shock; sheaf; bevy; flock; herd; drove; swarm; school; span; brace; yoke; brood; covey; genus; variety.

2. *As Mass Objects: —*

The kingdom of Great Britain; the United States of America; the Swiss Confederacy; New England.

A tree; a dwelling-house; a hat; a book.

The horizon; the zodiac; the zones; the land portion of the earth; the water portion of the earth.

Grammar; a sentence; a word.

CHAPTER VI

DIVISION.

§ 500. DIVISION is the explanation of an object of thought viewed as a class.

It is effected by naming the parts that make up the class.

§ 501. The Law of Unity in Division requires that there be but one class to be explained, and that it be explained by naming the parts that make up the class.

§ 502. The Law of Selection in Division requires that such divisions of the class be taken as will best accomplish the object of the explanation.

ILLUSTRATION. — Class-objects generally if not universally may be distributed into divers sets of parts. *Man*, thus, may be divided into *male* and *female*; *Caucasian*, *Mongol*, *Malay*, *Ethiopian*, and *American*; *white*, *tawny*, and *black*; *old* and *young*; *learned* and *unlearned*, etc. One mode of division would be requisite for one object in explaining, and another mode for another object. The naturalist, thus, would divide in such a way as to get one set of parts; the moralist to get another. It is necessary, therefore, ever to select the kind of parts that are required for the object in writing. Moreover it is ever necessary to determine how far the subdivisions shall be carried; for we may, after the first division of the theme, which will give the higher or more generic parts, proceed to subdivide any one of these; and so on indefinitely, till language fails to furnish words by which to designate the parts. Sometimes it will be sufficient for all the purposes of the explanation to give the first or highest set of parts; sometimes it will be needful to carry the subdivisions down to a third or fourth or still lower degree.

§ 503. The Law of Method in Division requires that the higher orders be presented first, and the subor-

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dinate parts under the higher parts to which they respectively belong.

OBSERVATION. — The parts given in Division are designated in respect of their relative rank or order by certain names. The following are the names arranged as the parts are presented in Natural History: *Kingdom*; *Class*; *Order* or *Family*; *Genus*; *Species*; *Variety*; *Individual*.

These again are variously subdivided: as of Vegetable Kingdom we have the subdivision of *Series*, as *Flowerless* and *Flowering Series*; of *Class*, *sub-class*; of *Order* or *Family*, *sub-order*; of *Tribe*, *sub-tribe*; of *Genus*, *sub-genus* or *section*; of *Species*, *sub-species*; and of *Variety*, *sub-variety*. The lowest part in Division, which cannot be subdivided, is *Individual*.

§ 504. The Law of Completeness requires that all the parts of each order or degree given in the Division be presented.

§ 505. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Explain by Division the following themes: —*

The kingdoms of Nature; the vegetable kingdom; the oak; the elm; the quince; the violet; the animal kingdom; the carnivorous animals; the ruminants; the ox; birds; the thrush; the duck tribe; serpents; insects; the senses.

CHAPTER VII.

PARTITION.

§ 506. PARTITION is the explanation of an object of thought viewed as a union of attributes belonging to some one subject.

ILLUSTRATION. — *Man*, as an object of thought, may be regarded as made up of certain attributes, as well as of certain kinds. It is made up, in this view, for instance, of such qualities as *upright, two-footed; as intelligent, free*, and the like; or of certain actions, as *walking, eating, thinking, choosing*, and the like; or of certain conditions, as *in youth, in sickness*, and the like; or of certain relations, as *dependent, social*, and the like. We may explain such an object by naming the several attributes, as Qualities, Actions, Conditions, and Relations. Such an explanation is called Partition.

Further, it is plain that only as the attributes belong to some one subject can they be properly thought as united in one composite object.

§ 507. The Law of Unity in Partition requires that the theme be viewed as made up of divers attributes that belong to some one subject.

§ 508. The Law of Selection in Partition requires that such attributes be taken as will best accomplish the object of the explanation.

ILLUSTRATION. — As attributes are of various kinds, and as any one may be regarded as itself made up of other attributes, it is clearly necessary that particular care be taken to select the kinds of attributes, whether Qualities, Actions, Conditions, or Relations, which are requisite for the object in writing, and, also, to determine how far the further partition of these several attributes selected shall be carried.

§ 509. The Law of Method in Partition requires that the several kinds of attributes be presented each by itself, and that the smaller partitions be presented in

connection with those of which they are the immediate parts.

§ 510. The Law of Completeness requires that all the attributes given in the several kinds selected be presented.

§ 511. WRITTEN EXERCISES. *Explain by Partition the following themes:—*

1. *By Enumeration of Qualities:*

The dog; the elephant; the rose; the lily; the diamond; the agate.

OBSERVATION. — The pupil will find it advantageous to ask himself, in working out these exercises, such questions as, What can I say of the *dog*, as to size, form, colors? etc.

2. *By Enumeration of Actions:*

The sun; the moon; the horse; the camel; iron; quicksilver; heat; light; electricity; magnetism.

OBSERVATION. — The pupil should ask himself in these exercises, What does the sun do? The answer would be, The sun warms, attracts, etc.

3. *By Enumeration of Conditions:*

Water; a plant; the ocean; the wind.

OBSERVATION. — The pupil should ask here such questions as, In what condition does water exist? The answer would be, Water is sometimes vapor, at rest, etc.

4. *By Enumeration of Relations:*

The planet Jupiter; the stem of a plant; the sap in trees; the leaves; the hand; lead; gold; paper; steam; trade; government; political parties.

OBSERVATION. — The pupil should ask himself here, How is Jupiter related to other objects? The answer would be, Jupiter is larger than any other planet; is further from the sun than Mars; is royally attended by four satellites, etc.

APPENDIX NO. I.

CHAPTER I.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 512. In all discourse, printed or written, certain characters are used to show something about its meaning which cannot so conveniently be expressed by means of words.

§ 513. These characters, called Rhetorical Points, as used for this purpose, are of two classes:—

1. Those which indicate a greater or less degree of separation in the relations of the thought; and,
2. Those which indicate some peculiarity in the expression.

OBSERVATION.— Besides rhetorical points, there are two other kinds of points made use of in writing and printing, which will be presented in a separate chapter. They are the etymological points, and points for reference. Rhetorical points respect sentences or parts of sentences; etymological points, words or parts of words; points for reference, places on the written or printed paper.

§ 514. The first class of Rhetorical Points includes,

1. *The Period* (.);
2. *The Colon* (:);
3. *The Semicolon* (;);
4. *The Comma* (,).

OBSERVATION.— Extended discourse is broken up into parts, which are larger or smaller, and are more or less subdivided, according to the extent of the discourse.

The larger parts of an extended history or philosophical treatise, thus, may be called *books*.

Books may be broken up into *chapters*.

Chapters may be separated into *sections*.

Sections may be still further separated into *paragraphs*.

A section is sometimes indicated by a word, as, *Section*, or by an abbreviation of it, as, "Sec."; sometimes by the character §.

A paragraph is now usually indicated by a break in the line ending it and an indentation or "in-cut" in the line beginning the next paragraph.

In manuscript, the character ¶ is used to separate paragraphs, where there are no break and indentation.

Every correct writer will separate his discourse into such parts. Even a brief essay or a familiar letter will generally require separation into the smaller parts called paragraphs. They help the reader to notice the progress of the writer, as they mark the stages by which he proceeds, as milestones mark off successive portions of his road to the traveler, and also the turns in the thought, as he advances from one point to another. The use of paragraphs helps the writer also. They help him to remember that in writing he should proceed steadily onward from the beginning to the end, knowing not only whence he starts and where he is to stop, but also the several steps he takes in his progress. Every one, in writing, and especially in beginning to compose in words, should bear in mind that what he writes must be expressed part by part—by stages distinctly measured off. The study of punctuation will be of important service in making this notion, that all correct discourse is progressive, a practically controlling one in composing.

§ 515. Paragraphs are used to indicate such leading stages in the progress of a discourse as are less marked than those indicated by sections or chapters.

OBSERVATION.— An exercise in *paragraphing*, or in breaking up discourse into paragraphs, will be found in § 553. Other exercises may be added at pleasure by dictation or reading by the teacher or one of the class. The pupil in composition should have his mind familiarized with this essential in correct writing, and be required to break up with care his earliest essays in composition into suitable paragraphs.

§ 516. A PERIOD is used to separate the leading parts of a paragraph, called *sentences*.

OBSERVATION.— *Period* is a word derived from the Greek, meaning a *circuit*; and, as applied to discourse, denotes a *completed circuit of thought, or sentence*. From its use to mark the close of the completed thought or the sentence, the name, period, is derived to the character itself.

§ 517. A COLON is used to separate the leading parts of a period or sentence.

OBSERVATION - *Colon* is a Greek word signifying *member*. Hence the use of the term to denote the character which marks the close of a member of a sentence.

§ 518. A **SEMICOLON** is used to separate the leading parts of a member of a sentence.

OBSERVATION.— *Semicolon*, it will be remarked, originally means a half member. It separates clauses and phrases.

§ 519. A **COMMA** is used to separate the least parts of a sentence.

OBSERVATION.— *Comma* is from the Greek, and signifies *what is cut off or separated*. It is hence used to denote the mark of separation.

§ 520. **ORAL EXERCISE.** *Name the Parts and the Points in the following sentences :—*

Crafty men contemn studies; simple men admire them; and wise men use them: for they teach not their use; but that is a wisdom without them, and above them, won by observation.

Read not to contradict and confute; nor to believe and take for granted; nor to find talk and discourse: but to weigh and consider.

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested: that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention.

It is still read with pleasure: the style is pure and flowing; the classical quotations and allusions are numerous and happy; and we are now and then charmed by that singularly humane and delicate humor in which Addison excelled all men.

Genius will not furnish him with a vocabulary: it will not teach him what word most exactly corresponds to his idea, and most fully conveys it to others: it will not make him a great descriptive poet, till he has looked with attention on the face of Nature; or a great dramatist, till he has felt and witnessed much of the influence of the passions.

A subject may arrest for treason: the king cannot; for if the arrest be illegal, the party has no remedy against the king.

The parliament rose: London was deserted; and Temple retired to his villa, whence, on council days, he went to Hampden Court.

The sun is darkened, but it is only for a moment: it is but an eclipse; though all birds of evil omen have begun to scream, and all ravenous beasts have gone forth to prey, thinking it to be midnight.

§ 521. **GENERAL RULE FOR PUNCTUATION.** The colon is to be used when the parts of a sentence are widely separated in thought from one another; the semicolon is required where the separation in thought is less in degree; and the comma when it is least, but yet needing to be marked by a point.

OBSERVATION.— As the degrees in the separation between the parts of a sentence vary indefinitely in themselves, and also in relation to other parts, the rules for punctuation cannot be laid down with absolute precision and as of universal application. Thus a sentence consisting of only two parts might require only a comma; while if other parts were added to it, a semicolon or a colon might be required.

§ 522. **RULES FOR THE USE OF THE COLON. RULE I.** The colon is to be used for separating one member of a sentence from another, when it is necessary to separate the parts of those members, or of either of them, by a semicolon.

EXAMPLES.— This is well to be weighed, that boldness is ever blind; for it seeth not dangers and inconveniences: therefore it is ill in counsel, good in execution.

In neither case, therefore, was the independence of England endangered; in neither case was her honor compromised: in both cases her liberties were preserved.

§ 523. **RULE II.** The colon may be used for separating leading members of a sentence, when no con-

nective word is used, whether proper conjunction or relative.

EXAMPLES.—The offices bestowed on him were not matters of grace: every preferment was a homage to his virtue.

OBSERVATION.—In this example, if the two members were connected by the conjunction *but*, a semicolon should have been used.

He was not received with those frowns which often undeservedly await the return of the unsuccessful general: his country welcomed him with as much honor as if fortune had attended his virtue.

His tragedies in rhyme, however worthless in themselves, had, at least, served the purpose of nonsense-verses: they had taught him all the arts of melody which the heroic couplet admits.

§ 524. RULE III. The colon may be sometimes used when the members are widely separated in thought, even if a conjunction be inserted.

EXAMPLES.—So much constancy in religious opinion may seem singular among courtiers and soldiers: but it must be considered that the inconsistency of men's actions with their opinions is more often due to infirmity than to insincerity.

For truth is one: and all who tell the truth must tell it alike.

§ 525. RULE IV. The colon may be used before more formal quotations, before addresses, in case of changes of persons represented, and before extended specifications and enumerations.

EXAMPLES.—In 1597, he wrote thus: "Crafty men condemn studies; simple men admire them; and wise men use them."

He bowed himself a little to us, and after we were set again, he said: "Well, the questions are on your part."

You may read the relation of it as follows:

Methought I was in the midst of a very entertaining set of company.

Johnson puts the case thus: The historian tells either what is false or what is true. In the former case he is no historian. In the latter, he has no opportunity for displaying his abilities.

§ 526. RULE V. A long sentence may require the colon, although the separation of thought is not so great as would require this point in a shorter sentence.

EXAMPLE.—Instead of this, however, we do not find that he has contemplated any other spheres for the application of this principle than those which have been so long conceded to it—the formation of taste and the conduct of education: and, with regard to the last and most important of these, he has himself recorded an admission, which to us, we will confess, appears a full justification of all that we have now been advancing, and a sufficient answer to the positions we have been endeavoring to combat.

§ 527. RULES FOR THE USE OF THE SEMICOLON.
RULE I. The semicolon is to be used to separate parts of a sentence, if one or more of these parts are to be separated into smaller parts by a comma.

EXAMPLES.—Dr. Beattie answers, after Dr. Reid, that the mere existence of this instinctive and indestructible belief in the reality of external objects, is a complete and sufficient proof of their reality; that Nature meant us to be satisfied with it; and that we cannot call it in question, without running into the greatest absurdity.

Some of the gentlemen had means of their own; but as their funds became exhausted, they were under the necessity of returning home for more.

He became master of the province of Ulster, and was solemnly crowned King of Ireland; but found himself amid his successes obliged to entreat the assistance of King Rob

ert with fresh supplies; for the impetuous Edward, who never spared his own person, was equally reckless of exposing his followers.

§ 528. RULE II. The semicolon, indicating a less degree of separation than the colon, may be used to separate leading members, when a connective word is used.

EXAMPLES. — It is full of the conceptions of a vigorous and poetical fancy, expressed in nervous and familiar language; but it is rendered harsh by unnecessary inversions.

He dismissed his army to the great increase of the general confusion; and, finally, terrified by the recollection of his father's fate, he resolved to withdraw himself from the kingdom.

§ 529. RULE III. The semicolon is used to separate parts of a sentence, if not so widely separated in thought as to require a colon, even when no connective is used.

EXAMPLES. — The wondering savages were won by this benignity; they now supposed that the ships had sailed out of the crystal firmament which bounded their horizon.

It is a question of pure curiosity; it never can be decided; and as its decision is perfectly indifferent and immaterial to any practical purpose, so, it might have been expected that the discussion should be conducted without virulence or abuse.

§ 530. RULE IV. The semicolon may be used before shorter or less formal quotations, addresses, and specifications or enumerations.

EXAMPLES. — If he had been to make a sermon on the occasion, he would have chosen for his text the words; "The memory of the wicked shall rot."

Just before the dawn, Kamber Ali Beg galloped up, exclaiming; "The enemy are upon us; rouse up."

"Here, in cabal, a disputatious crew
Each evening meet; the sot, the cheat, the shrew."

§ 531. RULE V. A long sentence may require the semicolon, when the separation of the thought would, in a short sentence, demand only a comma.

EXAMPLE. — Charles had no idea of sanctioning these bills and thus acknowledging the legitimacy of the war which had brought him to this extremity; but he knew that the Scottish commissioners had strongly opposed them.

§ 532. RULES FOR THE USE OF THE COMMA. RULE I. Distinct members admit and, unless short and direct, require to be marked off by commas, if not by higher points.

EXAMPLES. — 1. *Persons or things addressed*: Cast your eyes, sir, over this extensive country. My lord, we have stood here observing him.

2. *Quotations*: Their august chief made that remarkable declaration, "That France stood in need of strong institutions."

These, he says, may be better denominated, "Fundamental laws of belief."

"In compensation," he observes, "for the inability of the astronomer to control those movements of which he studies the laws," etc.

OBSERVATION. — Unless there is a separation of thought, quotations as such do not require the comma; as, Macbeth is "full of the milk of human kindness." But a quoted phrase may require punctuation not otherwise needed.

3. *Postpositive Connectives, or Connectives not placed at the beginning of the sentence*: One of his letters, too, begins with this wretched quibble.

We are struck, also, with several omissions in the picture of a maritime borough.

In the first place, then, we shall find that all the great poets have been remarkable for the occasional familiarity and even homeliness of many of their incidents.

We would confine this remark, however, to the descriptions of external objects.

Experiment, therefore, necessarily implies power.

It is, accordingly, in some places, comparatively languid.

4. *Ordinals*: First, the nature and design of our calling doth suppose industry.

Further, it is a more immediate ingredient of this duty.

We should, in fine, obey their doctrine by conforming our practice thereto.

5. *Modifying words or phrases, especially of sentences*: We scarcely know, indeed, what language was then either spoken or written.

This, no doubt, seems both unreasonable and ungrateful.

This, we think, is a pretty subject for a ballad.

The following, though it has no very distinct object or moral, breathes, we think, the very spirit of poetry.

For, with all our deference for the talents of the author, we find it impossible to agree with him.

We never, at least, have happened to hear it surmised that there is thought in the elbow-joint.

OBSERVATION.— If the modifying word or phrase is immediately connected with the principal word or phrase, the comma may be dispensed with.

6. *Inversions*: Of the Fable and its incidents and structure, it is perhaps superfluous to offer any sketch.

That Mr. Taylor belongs not to either of these classes, we account a true praise.

The mathematical sciences, how pleasant is the speculation of them to the mind!

7. *Parenthetical phrases generally*: A rule which, like the former, is closely connected with the faculty of attention.

It is scarcely conceivable, at first view, what innumerable benefits might be conferred on our fellow-men by an appli-

cation, on liberal and Christian principles, of the riches which we at this moment possess.

§ 533. **RULE II.** The comma is often required when there is an ellipsis.

EXAMPLES.— Delicacy leans more to feeling; correctness, more to reason and judgment.

He came, saw, conquered.

§ 534. **RULE III.** Words in a series of three or more words, or when repeated, require a comma.

EXAMPLES.— Beauty, truth, and worship, song, science, and duty will all be unfolded together in the common love of God.

It is higher, purer, nobler.

We do not hesitate to pronounce them a brave, a wise, an honest, and a useful body.

Insensible to fatigue, to pleasure, and to pain.

Discord, discord, is the ruin of this city.

O dark, dark, dark, amid the blaze of noon.

§ 535. **RULE IV.** A comma is often required to prevent ambiguity, when otherwise not necessary:—

1. *In the case of the use of the disjunctive, "or."*

EXAMPLE.— It makes little difference whether he studies geometry, or algebra, or uranography or geography of the heavens.

2. *In the case of the use of relatives.* If they are used as definitives, the comma is omitted; if as epithets, it is to be inserted.

EXAMPLES.— *Definitive use.* All words which are signs of complex ideas furnish matter of mistake.

Integrity that is conscious of no taint shrinks from no reasonable scrutiny.

Epithet use. All words, which are signs of complex ideas, furnish matter of cavil.

Integrity, that is conscious of no taint, shrinks from no reasonable scrutiny.

3. *In the relations of the parts of a sentence.*

EXAMPLE. — It naturally assumes that form which is most favorable to its beneficial influence, and has a tendency to perpetual improvement.

OBSERVATION. — The omission of the comma after "influence" in this example would lead the reader to connect "has" with "is" instead of "assumes;" to regard its subject as "which," instead of "it." The comma disconnects it from the phrase immediately preceding, and so refers it back to the previous phrase.

§ 536. RULE V. The insertion of a connective will often require the use of the comma, when otherwise a semicolon should be used.

EXAMPLE. — The notables refused to give up any of their immunities, and they were dismissed accordingly.

But without the connective, we should write: The notables refused to give up any of their immunities; they were dismissed accordingly.

§ 537. RULE VI. A sentence, simply by reason of its length, may be required to be broken into parts by the use of the comma, when the separation of the thought would not otherwise require it.

EXAMPLE. — Nor can any thing be more eloquent and animating than the view she has presented of the admirable mechanism and steady working of our constitution, and of its ennobling effects on the character of all who live under it.

OBSERVATION. — The comma after "constitution" would be unnecessary in a shorter sentence; as, Nor can any thing be more animating than her view of our constitution and of its effects on our character.

§ 538. RULE VII. A comma may be required, when not otherwise necessary, by the use of a proposition as an object of thought.

EXAMPLES. — 1. *Subject.* That the king never dies, is

only another phrase for expressing that the office is never vacant.

What a purveyor with this palate shall say to nectar and ambrosia, may be curious as a question in natural history.

2. *Predicate.* The only danger that was to be apprehended was, that their progress would be too rapid.

The second great objection that has been made to the doctrines of Dr. Reid, is, that they tend to damp the ardor of philosophical curiosity.

§ 539. EXERCISES ON THE POINTS OF SEPARATION. *Correct the errors in the Punctuation of the following paragraphs, giving the reasons for the corrections: —*

The principle that whatever children learn, they should learn exactly is of equal importance whether their lessons be addressed to the memory or to the understanding; if the business, in hand is to get by rote a passage in the Latin grammar or the declensions of a Greek verb that business ought not to be passed, over until it is perfectly accomplished. The memory must not be oppressed by too large a demand upon its powers; but the short and easy lesson must be so learned as to be repeated without a fault and without difficulty; if on the other hand the tutor's object is to explain a rule in grammar he must take care, so to handle the subject, as to leave the understanding of his pupil in a condition of perfect clearness.

Hence there is no lack of such sayings as: a pin a day is a groat a year.

Moreover in the intercourse of social life it is by little acts of watchful kindness recurring daily and hourly and opportunities of doing kindnesses if sought for are forever starting up it is by words by tones by gestures by looks that affection is won and preserved.

All ancient legislators says Niebuhr rested the result of their ordinances for virtue, civil order and good manners on securing landed property.

They were reviled, they were spit upon, they were trampled under foot, every engine of torture, every mode of death, was employed to crush them.

Of Milton's mind the leading characteristic, is unity.

O, dear dear what a night it is too, it pours with rain and blow; a perfect hurricane.

Go up to her room then Betty, and see if she wants any thing and tell her it's half past nine o'clock; said Mrs. J—. The servant, accordingly, went up-stairs; and knocked at the bedroom door once twice thrice but received no answer.

His last words they say were, "In life and in death I am the Lord's."

But above all where thou findest ignorance, stupidity, brute-mindedness attack it I say, smite it wisely unweariedly and rest not while thou livest and it lives, but smite smite in the name of God.

The beauty, the eloquence and art of these collocations of sounds and syllables the learned alone can appreciate.

§ 540. The second class of Rhetorical Points includes, —

1. *The Exclamation Point* (!);
2. *The Interrogation Point* (?);
3. *The Dash* (—);
4. *Quotation Marks* (" " and ' ');
5. *Marks of Parenthesis* ();
6. *Brackets* [].

§ 541. THE EXCLAMATION POINT is to indicate some emotion; as, "What terrors round him wait!"

1. *After interjections*: —

"With whom, alas! I fondly hoped to know
The humble walks of happiness below."

When, lo! a sudden blast the vessel blew.

When, hark! a voice sung sweetly through the shade.

Oh! haste my father's heart to cheer.

2. *After persons or things addressed*: —

O sovereign Blanc!

O Rosamond! is love to be trifled with?

Fair spirit! rest thee now.

3. *After a wish or prayer*: —

Give back the lost and lovely!

"Oh but for one short hour!
A respite, however brief!"

4. *After expressions of other feelings*:

Oh me! that awful dream!

"'T is by its fruit the tree is known!
The test of truth is love!"

"The cottage homes of England!
By thousands on her plains,
They are smiling o'er the silvery brooks,
And round the hamlet fanes."

"I assure you there are several left, and, delightful information! we shall have a fresh supply to-morrow."

§ 542. THE INTERROGATION POINT is used to mark a question.

Nineveh once reigned over the East; but where is Nineveh now?

If we value, then, as who does not value? our renown among mankind; if we exult, as who can help exulting? in the privileges which the providence of God has conferred on the British nation; etc.

§ 543. THE DASH is used, —

1. To mark a suspension, or abrupt or emphatic turn in the thought; as, —

"I looked and prayed like thee — but now! —
He hung his head."

"Here thou, great Anna! whom three realms obey,
Dost sometimes counsel take — and sometimes tea."

2. To mark a repetition of the thought; as, —

When the great truth is impressed on our hearts that God sent his own Son into the world to save us — even to redeem us, by his death on the cross, from the pains of hell and from the slavery of sin and Satan — our love cannot fail to flow and abound.

3. To mark a suppression of words or parts of words; as, —

“‘ Walker! our hat ’ — nor more he deigned to say,
But stern as Ajax’ specter strode away.”

§ 544. QUOTATION MARKS are used to indicate that a word, a phrase, or larger portion of the discourse is borrowed.

The double points (“ ”) are used in primary or leading quotations;

The single points (‘ ’) in secondary or included quotations.

Some may observe, on reading this story, “What a foolish creature the guest must have been! and how improbable it is that any should scruple to say: ‘The dish is disagreeable;’ and ‘I hate garlic!’”

§ 545. MARKS OF PARENTHESIS are used to indicate the extraneous member of a complex sentence. They inclose the part that is extraneous to the proper simple sentence.

What was it that insulted Nature (to use no higher name), and perverted her kindly intentions towards them?

Splendor is a part of their station, as decent comfort (let us trust) of yours and mine.

OBSERVATION. — Marks of parenthesis are now used much less than formerly. Wherever either a comma or a semicolon, or even a dash, can properly be used, it should be preferred. It is indeed very rare that these marks need to be used.

§ 546. BRACKETS are used like marks of parenthesis, to indicate the extraneous part of a complex sentence, chiefly when either, —

1. It contains another parenthesis indicated by its proper marks or a quotation; or,

2. When it is inserted in a quotation as a correction, a comment, or an addition.

There is not a tittle of evidence of his ever having written a line to discourage deserving. [In a letter to Bernard Barton, Southey makes note of “the abuse and calumny he had to endure for opinions he did not hold and articles he had not written.”]

The poet then says, “Happy is he of earthly men who has seen these [rites]. But he who is uninitiated, and has no part in the solemnities, never has the same fortune [with the other], even when he is dead.”

OBSERVATION. — The use of the two points last named is not well settled. There is a gradation, it may be remarked, to be noticed in them somewhat similar to that noticed in the first class of rhetorical points. If the extraneous matter is less foreign to the thought in the principal sentence, a comma may be used; if removed to a further degree or is longer, the marks of parenthesis; if most remote, as when the thought of another mind as in correction, etc., the brackets are used.

§ 547. EXERCISE IN PUNCTUATING SENTENCES.
Correct the errors in punctuating the following sentences: —

How uncertain is human life?

Is this the character of British Justice. Are these her features. Is this her countenance. Is this her gait or mien!

What? might Rome then have been taken, if those men who were at our gates had not wanted courage for the attempt! Rome taken whilst I was consul.

What motive could have such influence in their bosom.

What motive. That which Nature plants in the bosom of man!

To send forth the merciless cannibal thirsting for blood.
Against whom! Your Protestant brethren.

In the whole list of our English poets — we can only remember Shenstone and Savage, two certainly of the lowest who were querulous and discontented: Cowley indeed, used to call himself melancholy — but he was not in earnest, — and at any rate was full of conceits and affectations and has nothing to make us proud of him.

"I have not loved the world — nor the world me —
I have not flattered its rank breath nor bowed
To its idolatries a patient knee, —
Nor coined my cheek to smiles; — nor cried aloud
In worship of an echo."

The remedies, which law has provided against the mischief of crimes Mr. Bentham says, are of four orders — preventive — repressive — compensatory — or simply penal.

The volume is very small — and it contains all that the distinguished author has written for many years. We regret this certainly: — but we do not presume to complain of it. The service of the Muses is a free service — and all that we receive from their votaries is a free gift for which we are bound to them in gratitude — not a tribute for the tardy rendering of which they are to be threatened or distrained.

§ 548. *Punctuate the following sentences: —*

To such questions what must be the answer
Virtue alone is happiness below
Has the king a right to transfer his crown
All these might be rebuilt
Help help he's gone
The landscape has his praise but not its Author
O what a revolution
What ought then to occupy us
Arm arm ye heavens against these perjured kings

O change O wondrous change
How beautiful is all this visible world
How glorious in its action and itself

Why ought the slave-trade to be abolished because it is incurable injustice how much stronger then is the argument for immediate than gradual abolition

All these might be rebuilt but who shall reconstruct the fabric of demolished government who shall rear again the well-proportioned columns of constitutional liberty

CHAPTER II

ETYMOLOGICAL POINTS. — POINTS FOR REFERENCE

§ 549. ETYMOLOGICAL POINTS are used to indicate something in regard to the formation, use, or omission of words or parts of words.

§ 550. They are, 1. *The Apostrophe* ('), used to show the omission of a letter or letters; as, *John's*; '*Tis*'; *There's*; *Won't*; "As '*t were* in scorn of eyes;" "*I'll go*, my chief, *I'm ready*."

2. *The Caret* (^), to show some omission in a manuscript; as, "The king is ^{com}to marshal us."

3. *The Diæresis*, to mark the separation of contiguous vowels; as, *preëngage*, *coöperate*.

4. *Marks of Quantity*, to show that the vowel is long or short, as *mājör*.

5. *Marks of Accent*, to mark either the accentuation of a syllable, or the intonation of the voice; the grave (`), the acute (´), and the circumflex (ˆ); as, *bitu'men*, *insist'*, *absencé*, *gôld*.

6. *The Hyphen*, used, 1. To separate syllables; as *al-ge-bra*; 2. To unite the parts of a compound word. Its uses under this head are diverse; as, —

(1.) To connect the parts of a compound not fully recognized in the language, or to remove doubt in connecting parts of a sentence; as, *some-seeking*; "*Grant-in-aid* system;" "*The nine-years-fought-for* diamonds;" "*The New-York* Directory."

(2.) To mark attributes of relation in distinction from

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those of property; as, *glass-house* means house for making or selling glass, not a house made of glass; *sick-bed*, *wood-house*, *fat-dealer*.

(3.) To separate parts of a compound word when the first ends and the second begins with the same letter; as, *snail-like*, *co-operate*.

7. The Period, to show the abbreviation of a word; as, *lat.* for latitude; *N. Y.* for New York.

§ 551. Points for Reference are used to refer the reader to some other place in the page or the book. They are the following, which are generally used in the order given, and may be doubled if necessary: —

The Asterisk (*);

The Obelisk or Dagger (†);

The Double Obelisk (‡);

The Section (§);

Parallels (||); and

The Paragraph (¶).

Letters and figures are used for the same purpose.

CHAPTER III.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

§ 552. THE pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should always be written in capital letters.

EXAMPLES. — He only replied, "O that I had known this before."

I am not conscious, O Romans, of any crime by me committed.

§ 553. The following classes of words should begin with capital letters:—

1. Names of persons, individuals, families, and nations.
2. Titles of dignity.
3. Words of leading importance, as titles of books, themes, and such as are to be made more prominent.
4. Words in a formal series of enumerated parts.
5. Names of objects personified.

EXAMPLES. — This is the exhortation which Mr. Hastings makes to his counsel; this is the character which he gives of British Justice.

But I will ask your Lordships, do you approve this representation? Do you feel that this is the true image of Justice?

The modifications of nouns are of four kinds, namely: by Person, Gender, Number, and Case.

Up the dewy mountain Health is bounding lightly.

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§ 554. Words should begin with capitals which commence, —

1. New sentences;
2. Verses of poetry;
3. Formal quotations.

EXAMPLES. — Other allegories only amuse the fancy. The allegory of Bunyan has been read by thousands with tears. There are some good allegories in Johnson's works, and some of still higher merit by Addison.

"Whate'er thy lot, whoe'er thou be,
Confess thy folly; kiss the rod;
And in thy chastening sorrows see
The hand of God."

Dying, he bequeathed to his heirs the sword which he had worn in the war for liberty, and charged them "Never to take it from the scabbard but in self-defense, or in defense of their country and her freedom."

§ 555. *Divide into Paragraphs and Punctuate the following essay, writing in the proper Capital Letters:—*

an alehouse-keeper near islington who had long lived at the sign of the french king upon the commencement of the last war with france pulled down his old sign and put up the queen of hungary under the influence of her red face and golden scepter he continued to sell ale till she was no longer the favorite of his customers he changed her therefore some time ago for the king of prussia who may probably be changed in turn for the next great man that shall be set up for vulgar admiration our publican in this imitates the great exactly who deal out their figures one after the other to the gaping crowd beneath them when we have sufficiently wondered at one that is taken in and another exhibited in its room which seldom holds its station long for the mob are ever pleased with variety I must own I have such an indifferent opinion of the vulgar that I am ever led to suspect that merit which raises their shout at least I am certain to

find those great and sometimes good men who find satisfaction in such acclamations made worse by it and history has too frequently taught me that the head which has grown this day giddy with the roar of the million has the very next been fixed upon a pole as alexander vi was entering a little town in the neighborhood of rome which had just been evacuated by the enemy he perceived the townsmen busy in the market-place in pulling down from a gibbet a figure which had been designed to represent himself there were also some knocking down a neighboring statue of one of the orsini family with whom he was at war in order to put alexander's effigy when taken down in its place it is possible a man who knew less of the world would have condemned the adulation of these bare-faced flatterers but alexander seemed pleased at their zeal and turning to borgia his son said with a smile you see my son the small difference between a gibbet and a statue if the great could be taught any lesson this might serve to teach them upon how weak a foundation their glory stands which is built upon popular applause for as such praise what seems like merit they as quickly condemn what has only the appearance of guilt popular glory is a perfect coquette her lovers must toil feel every inquietude indulge every caprice and perhaps at last be jilted into the bargain true glory on the other hand resembles a woman of sense her admirers must play no tricks they feel no great anxiety for they are sure in the end of being rewarded in proportion to their merit when swift used to appear in public he generally had the mob shouting in his train pox take these fools he would say how much joy might all this bawling give my lord mayor we have seen those virtues which have while living retired from the public eye generally transmitted to posterity as the truest objects of admiration and praise perhaps the character of the late duke of marlborough may one day be set up even above that of his more talked-of predecessor since an assemblage of all the mild and amiable virtues is far superior to those vulgarly called the great ones I must

be pardoned for this short tribute to the memory of a man who while living would as much detest to receive any thing that wore the appearance of flattery as I should to offer it I know not how to turn so trite a subject out of the beaten road of commonplace except by illustrating it rather by the assistance of my memory than my judgment and instead of making reflections by telling a story a chinese who had long studied the works of confucius who knew the characters of fourteen thousand words and could read a great part of every book that came in his way once took it into his head to travel into europe and observe the customs of a people whom he thought not very much inferior even to his own countrymen in the arts of refining upon every pleasure upon his arrival at amsterdam his passion for letters naturally led him to a bookseller's shop and as he could speak a little dutch he civilly asked the bookseller for the works of the immortal ilixofou the bookseller assured him he had never heard the book mentioned before what have you never heard of that immortal poet returned the other much surprised that light of the eyes that favorite of kings that rose of perfection I suppose you know nothing of the immortal fipsihihi second cousin to the moon nothing at all indeed sir returned the other alas cries our traveler to what purpose then has one of these fasted to death and the other offered himself up as sacrifice to the tartarean enemy to gain a renown which has never traveled beyond the precincts of china there is scarcely a village in europe and not one university that is not thus furnished with its little great men the head of a petty corporation who opposes the designs of a prince who would tyrannically force his subjects to save their best clothes for sundays the puny pedant who finds one undiscovered property in the polype describes an unheeded process in the skeleton of a mole and whose mind like his microscope perceives nature only in detail the rhymer who makes smooth verses and paints to our imagination when he should only speak to our hearts all equally fancy themselves walk-

ing forward to immortality and desire the crowd behind them to look on the crowd takes them at their word patriot philosopher and poet are shouted in their train where was there ever so much merit seen no times so important as our own ages yet unborn shall gaze with wonder and applause to such music the important pygmy moves forward bustling and swelling and aptly compared to a *puddle in a storm* I have lived to see generals who once had crowds hallooing after them wherever they went who were bepraised by newspapers and magazines those echoes of the voice of the vulgar and yet they have long sunk into merited obscurity with scarcely even an epitaph left to flatter a few years ago the herring fishery employed all grub street it was the topic in every coffee-house and the burden of every ballad we were to drag up oceans of gold from the bottom of the sea we were to supply all europe with herrings upon our own terms at present we hear no more of all this we have fished up very little gold that I can learn nor do we furnish the world with herrings as was expected *let us wait but a few years longer and we shall find all our expectations a herring fishery.*

APPENDIX NO. II.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

OBJECTS of Thought originate in the mind either through the Faculties of original cognition — the Perceptive and Intuitive Faculties — or through the proper Faculty of Thought — the Elaborative or Discursive Faculty — elaborating such primitive cognitions. They are ever cognitions — not real objects. When such cognitions are thought, they are originally thought in a proper judgment, the primitive operation of all thought. In this primitive act of thought, an object, we will suppose for exemplification, of External Perception, say the planet Venus, is viewed in relation to some one character belonging to it; it may be a character known through the Intuitive Faculty as Existence. The judgment then emerges: Venus is: that is, Venus is existent. Or it may be a character known through the faculty of Perception, as Brightness. The judgment then emerges: Venus is bright. We have in each of these two judgments two objects of thought. Venus and Existence in the first; Venus and Brightness in the second. So far as thought, the two in each pair originate together in the same act; are equally primitive, and are correlative. The first in each pair, the subject in each judgment, is viewed necessarily as a whole of which the second or predicate in each judgment is a part; the meaning being, Venus is, in some one respect, in some part of the view or thought, Existent, Bright. These characters, in other words, are but parts of the views or thoughts that may be taken of the subject — Venus. The subject, then, is properly denoted a Concrete, and the predicate an Abstract, for it is but one character abstracted for the view of thought from the complement of characters that may be thought of Venus. This gives the primary division of nouns — that into Concretes and Abstracts.

Further, in this primitive judgment, the subject, Venus, is viewed as one, as individual, and in so far as a particular word or name is appropriated to such an individual concrete object, the word is called a Proper Name or Noun.

The predicate in such a primitive judgment is simple. But an object may be viewed not only as individual or simple, that is, not only as objects of thought individual concretes or simple abstracts; they may, also, be viewed as composite, and the act by which objects are composed or made composite in thought may be one regulated either more exclusively

by the object viewed or by the nature of thought itself. Thus a composite concrete may be viewed as composed of parts that are determined by the external conditions under which all objects are thought, those of Space and Time. The principle of connection here is not, as far as thought is concerned, internal or essential in the parts that are composed or brought together; but only one of external condition as belonging to the same space or time, or producing the same effect. The parts thus lie out of each other. Wholes thus composed are called Integrata Wholes, and the parts of which they are composed are called Integrant Parts. They are of two kinds:—

1. Those viewed under the relations of Space, as filling a certain extent; as, *air, water, spirit*, called Spacial Wholes, the names of which are called Mass-nouns; and,

2. Those viewed under the relations of Time, consisting of one or more given under the same conditions of time, or of cause, called Numerical Wholes or groups; as, *army, forest*. Words denoting objects thus viewed, are called Collective Nouns.

Another kind of composite concretes are proper products of thought. They are called Logical Wholes or Concepts: constituting, however, only one species of such wholes, those called Extensive Wholes. They are formed by uniting together the subjects of different judgments having the same predicate. This common predicate is called the Base of the Concept, and is the identifying principle by which thought is enabled to unite the parts. Such wholes are called Classes; and words denoting them are called Class-nouns.

The four species of Concretes, thus, are,—

1. *Proper Nouns*, or names of individuals;
2. *Mass-nouns*, or names of masses;
3. *Collective Nouns*, or names of mere groups;
4. *Class-nouns*, or names of classes.

Abstracts being originally attributes predicated of some objects of thought as subjects, which must, from the very nature of thought, be viewed either as wholes or parts, fall at once into two divisions according as the act of thought, the judgment in which they severally originated, viewed the subject as a whole or a complementary part, in reference to the attribute. If as a whole, the direction of thought is inward, and the attribute is internal to the subject. These internal attributes which may be called Properties, are of two subordinate classes, according as the subject is viewed as Substance or as Cause; if the former, the attribute which is thought is a Quality; if the latter, it is an Action.

If the subject in the originating judgment be viewed as a Part, then the direction of the thought is outward; and the attribute is external to the subject. It may be of either of two classes, according as the subject is viewed under the one or the other of the general forms of all thought, Space and Time, giving what are called Abstracts of Condition; or is viewed in relation to other Beings, giving what are called Abstracts of Relation. All abstracts are accordingly reducible to one or the other of the four classes following, namely:—

1. Quality-nouns;
2. Action-nouns;
3. Condition-nouns;
4. Relation-nouns, which may be further subdivided according as they respect, 1. Space; 2. Time; 3. Extent; 4. Degree; or 5. Other objects in space or time.

Abstracts, further, are Simple or Composite. But this distinction is of comparatively little importance in grammatical consideration. The term Category has sometimes been used to denote a Composite Abstract.

It will have been observed that the classification of attributes has been determined from subjects regarded only as Being, that is, given to the mind by the faculty of Perception, External or Internal; other objects of thought which may be made subjects in judgments originate in the Intuitive Faculty, as, *Space, Time, The True, The Beautiful, The Good, and The Right*; or in judgments. That is, abstracts treated as subjects, furnish attributes that are entirely analogous to those enumerated, and readily fall into the same classes. Nouns denoting such objects are, in fact, all abnormal, except *Space*, and *Time*, these two being strictly Proper Nouns, or words appropriated to individual objects of thought. All but these two are primitive abstracts, and are converted into concretes in the usual way, by prefixing a definitive.

Abstracts, further, are divided into (1.) Proper Abstracts, that is, mere attributes called sometimes nouns-adjective, or nouns-attributive, as, *Bright, True*; and (2.) Derived Abstracts, or abstracts used as concretes, as, *Brightness, Truth*.

Of abnormal nouns, two species are given at once, according as they are derived from the attribute-adjective or from the verb.

1. The first species are formed by prefixing the definitive *the* to the adjective-attribute; as, "*The true*," "*The sweet*."

Of the second species of abnormal nouns, those from the verb-attribute, there are to be distinguished, I. The Participials, embracing,—

1. The Infinitive, as, "*To think is to act*;" and,
2. The Gerund, as, "*Their sending the message was unfortunate*."
- II. The use of the assertive forms of the verb, embracing,—
 1. The Propositional Clause, as, "*That he went is certain*;"
 2. The Relative Clause, as, "*Whosoever abideth in him sinneth not*;"
 3. The Adverbial Clause, as, "*Why he went we do not learn*;"
 4. The Modal Clause, as, "*Whether he went is not known*."

Nouns, then, in respect of their origin or of the manner in which the objects they denote have originated in the mind, are divided into,—

- I. Concretes, or subject-nouns; and,
- II. Abstracts, or predicate-nouns.

In respect of the Faculty of Intelligence by which their objects are perceived, Concretes are subdivided into,—

- I. Integrate Nouns, embracing the two varieties of,—
 1. Mass-nouns, or names of spacial wholes;
 2. Collective Nouns, or names of numerical wholes.

II. Class-nouns, or names of extensive wholes.

Abstracts, in respect of the character of the subject thought as whole or part, that is, in internal or external relation, are divided into, —

I. Abstracts originating with subjects internally viewed, called *Propertics*, and embracing the two species of, —

1. Quality-nouns, or names of spacial or substantial parts;
2. Action-nouns, or names of time or causal parts;

II. Abstracts originating with subjects viewed in external relations, embracing, —

1. Condition-nouns, or names of attributes under relations of space or time; and,
2. Relation-nouns, or names of attributes under relations to other objects.

In respect of their being of original or borrowed forms, that is, primitive and regular or derived from other uses, and so far irregular, nouns are either, —

1. Normal; or,
2. Abnormal.

Abnormal Nouns are, —

1. Original adjective attributes, transformed into concretes by prefixing a definitive;

2. Verb attributes, embracing, —

(1.) The two Participials, the Infinitive and the Gerund;

(2.) The assertive forms of the four varieties: the Propositional, the Relative, the Adverbial, and the Modal Clause.

APPENDIX NO. III.

PLURALS OF NOUNS.

Most of the exceptions in the plural formation are easily explained in the light of their history. The Anglo-Saxon had but one character for the *f* and *v* sounds, and one for the *s* and *z*. When following a vowel, these letters were phthongal; otherwise they were aspirate. The prevalent plural form was in *as*, or, in later times, *es*. Hence the *s*, as a plural formative, had the *z* sound. But as the vowel preceding fell out in the progress of the language, and the *s* was united with the letter preceding the *e*, the aspirate power of the character *s* was restored to it in most words. The reason for writing *heroes* and not *heros*, is, thus, to indicate beyond a doubt that the *s* has the *z* sound. Consistency would, indeed, have required *canloes*; but when words of this class were introduced, for they are all from foreign languages, this necessity was not felt. The substitution of *v* for *f* in *knife*, etc., is accounted for by the fact stated that the Anglo-Saxon *f* was sounded like *v* before a vowel; thus the Ang.-Sax. *cnif* formed its plural *cnifas*, pronounced *knivas*.

The substitution of the *i* for *y* in the plurals of such words as *company*, *companies*, is explained by the fact that the *i* and *y* were formerly used interchangeably, as *bi* and *by*; *mild* and *myld*. Subsequently, the *i* was used in the middle of words, *y* at the end.

The Anglo-Saxon, also, had a mode of forming the plural in *r*; hence our *children*; also another in *en* or *n*; hence our *kine*, *oxen*, etc.; also, another by change of the vowel analogous to the strong conjugation of verbs hence our *mice*, *feet*, etc.

Riches and *almes* formerly had plurals in *es*. Thus Chaucer: "By riches may a man gete him grete frendes;" "By riches the comen man goodes." He uses also the singular form: "The riches that hastily cometh to a man" (*Tale of Melibens*). "Thise ben generally the almes and werkes of charite, of hem that have temporel riches, or discretioun in conselling;" "This almesse shuldest thou do of thy propre things."

APPENDIX NO. IV.

THE ESSENTIAL NATURE OF THE COPULA.

THE Copula is the expression of an act of the judgment — the discursive, comparative, or, as Hamilton designates it, the elaborative faculty. Every such act is essentially a comparison; that is, a recognition that in some one, or more, or all respects, two objects are alike, the same, identical, or not the same, different. The copula, as the expression of a comparison, is hence the expression of a recognized identity or non-identity — difference between the objects or terms compared. All assertion, every proposition, every sentence, is accordingly, in essence, an expression of a recognized identity or non-identity between two objects.

But this identity or difference so declared in every assertion may be total or partial. The expression of a determined total identity is an *identical proposition*, so called. In such propositions, the two objects compared — the subject and the predicate — are asserted to be or not to be the same, in sphere and in matter. They may differ, indeed, in the form of expression; and we have an absolutely identical proposition, strictly speaking, only when the terms compared are the same both in form and content; as, "John is John." But, leaving out of view the form of expression, a relatively identical proposition may be exemplified thus: "His name is John;" "The victor was Alexander."

All other propositions express partial identity or difference; that is, declare that the objects compared are the same or different in respect to more or less of their parts. These parts, between which the identity or difference is asserted to subsist, are either those of an extensive or an intensive whole; a subject whole or a predicate whole; a whole, in still other words, considered in reference either to sphere or to matter. Of partially identical propositions, thus, we have two general classes: 1. *Extensive*, as, "Man is a mortal," that is, "Man is the same as one part of the class called mortal;" 2. *Intensive*, as, "Man is mortal," that is, "Man, as to one of the attributes of which he is composed, is the same as mortal."

The copula is thus shown to be simply and essentially *identification*, or the contrary. It identifies, or differences, as an act of judgment; that is judges as identical or non-identical two objects, totally or partially, either in reference to an extensive or to an intensive whole.

This view of the general nature of the copula in the proposition is a necessary deduction from the received expositions of logical science.

It should be added to this general view of the copula, that, as the mind may be conceived of as undetermined in its comparison whether to recognize identity or non-identity, sameness or difference, this state of the judgment as balancing, as in doubt, undetermined, is expressed in language by means of the interrogative sentence, which, of course, may be expressed either rather in reference to the identifying side, that is, *affirmatively*, or in reference to the differencing side, that is, *negatively*.

All affirmative sentences, regarded in their last analysis, are thus but expressions of identity, total or partial, between the subject and the predicate. Negative sentences differ from affirmative simply by denying this identity.

If this view is correct, then to represent the copula as expressing *existence* or *reality* is erroneous. *Existence* is sometimes combined with the copula in the substantive verb *is*, as in the verse, —

"There is a pleasure in the pathless woods."

Historically, the copula first appears in the verb denoting existence, but the two notions are clearly distinguishable. The one is of *the matter* or object of thought; the other is *thought* itself.

Further, the copula excludes from its very nature all relations to *person*, *number*, and *time*. These are either only modifications of the predicate united with the copula in the same word, as in respect to *tense* or *time*; or mere grammatical forms to indicate syntactical relations, as those of *person* and *number*. Thus, in the sentence, "Thou gavest," the subject is "thou," a word denoting the person spoken to. Between this subject and a certain predicate, here an action, there is asserted a partial identity — *thou giving*. This act of giving, predicated of *thou* as the subject, is modified in respect to time — the act was in past time. The tense of the verb "gavest" thus modifies the predicate, not the copula. But in the termination there is further indicated *person* — the so-called second person or person addressed; and also *number* — a single person. But these modify nothing but the *forms* of the word, not the thought expressed, either as to its matter or the act of thinking. In the English language, consequently, in which the subject must be expressed, except in imperative sentences, and the collocation of words is mainly relied on to indicate the syntactical relations, the forms to indicate number and person in verbs have, for the most part fallen away as unnecessary.

APPENDIX NO. V.

GRAMMARIANS seem to have no settled views as to the exact nature of the verb. More generally they have defined it to be a word expressing being, action, or passion. Many, however, define it as a word expressing affirmation. This latter class of grammarians for the most part seem to lose sight of their definition in their further treatment of the verb.

We find the same confusion on the logical as on the formal side of grammar. This is sufficiently instanced in the use of the term *predicate* to include both the logical copula and the logical predicate.

In the practical application of grammatical principles, we discover a like confusion. Adverbs are often parsed as modifying the action expressed in the verb, that is, the logical predicate, which in reality only modify the assertion, that is, the logical copula. Even Sir William Hamilton, in his "Fourteenth Lecture on Logic," has involved in his argument against the distinction of propositions into pure and modal a fatal fallacy, by using in his example an adverbial modifier of the predicate, when his reasoning required one modifying the copula or judgment itself. He calls the proposition, "*Alexander conquered Darius honorably*," a modal. In this he departs from the definition he had just before given of a modal, as a proposition in which the affirmation is qualified. But *honorably*, in this sentence, does not qualify the affirmation, that is, the judgment; but only the action, conquering — that is, the predicate. If he had taken the proposition, which is a true modal, *Alexander perhaps conquered Darius*, his reasoning would have been seen to be inconclusive.

The source of this confusion lies in the fact that the copula and the predicate are commonly united in language in the same word, coupled with the fact that in the first stages of language the copula, as the more abstract element of thought, does not obtain for itself a distinct expression, but is left to be supplied by the mind addressed.

We are under the necessity of choosing between the two definitions: *The verb is a word expressing affirmation*, or, better, *assertion*, and *The verb is a word expressing being, action, or passion*; or, to express the alternative in another form, *The verb expresses the copula*, and *The verb expresses the predicate of the judgment*. The progress of grammatical science has reached a stage when the question, which of these definitions shall be accepted, should be determined. The reasons for accepting the first are the following: —

1. The copula contains, confessedly the essential life of the judgment

The word containing the asserting element is worthy to be called, by distinction, "*the word*" — *verbum*.

2. Unless the asserting element of the judgment be admitted to be the distinctive characteristic of the verb, then grammar has no name for the form in which the very essence and life of an expressed thought is presented.

3. The other definition fails to distinguish between a verb and a noun. "*Song*," in the sense of *singing*, expresses an action as truly as *sings*, and should, therefore, according to the definition, be pronounced to be a verb. This is but another way of saying that this definition does not touch the essential character of what is admitted to be the verb; the other does. Wherever there is an asserting word, there is a verb; wherever there is a word expressing being, action, or passion, it is not necessarily a verb.

4. If we accept the first definition, we shall be saved from much confusion of thought to which the other definition almost unavoidably leads us. We shall be enabled to distinguish between modifiers of the judgment or assertion and modifiers of the predicate or of the action. This is a distinction of vital importance in the analysis and also in the composition of discourse.

If we adopt this definition of the verb, we shall need to separate mere verbal forms from actual verbs. All participials, so called, are only nouns or adjectives, not verbs, as they express no assertion. This class embraces the infinitives, participles, gerunds, and supines, as, also, clauses. All such forms of expression are but corpses, not real judgments; mere dead forms, without the essence of assertions. It is of great practical moment in the construction of discourse to bear in mind the distinction.

Convenience may justify us still in applying the term *verb* to the word which contains the copula united with the predicate; and, also, even to the form itself when the essential element of the verb is separated from it. We thus, with no danger of being misunderstood, speak of a corpse as a man. We say, *the man was buried*. But we should make a fatal mistake if, in our formal definitions of the term, we should imply that man can be mere body, without spirit.

It should, perhaps, be added to these remarks on the proper definition of a verb, that some learned grammarians define the verb as that part of speech which asserts and expresses an attribute. Thus Sir John Stoddard, in his "Philosophy of Language," defines the verb as "*a part of speech which signifies an attribute of some substance, connects the attribute and substance together, and asserts the existence or non-existence of the connection.*" So, also, Dr. Mansel, in his "Prolegomena Logica," gives the verb as "*a combination of attribute and assertion.*" But Sir John Stoddard correctly maintains that "assertion is not only an essential but the peculiar property of this part of speech;" and that "its peculiar and exclusive characteristic is the power of signifying assertion." In accordance with this, he says, § 378, that "the verb asserts or manifests existence, either simply or together with some attribute of action or passion." The only defect in this teaching is that it erroneously attributes existence — reality to thought, while existence properly belongs only to the matter of thought.

APPENDIX NO. VI.

GRAMMATICAL MOOD.

WE have only one other modification of the forms of verbs, in addition to those indicated in Appendix No. IV. namely, the *mood*. That this pertains to the copula, the asserting element of the sentence, and to the copula exclusively, is beyond question. The sentences, "John was studious," "John must have been studious," "John may have been studious," differ only in respect of the judging act itself, — the thought, — not at all in respect of the subject or of the predicate.

If we inquire now as to the possible ways in which the judging act itself — the copula in itself — may be modified, we are at once shut up to this limited view. First, the copula is either not modified at all except in degree or intensity, in which case we use such modals as *clearly*, *certainly*, and the like, or it is modified by an indication of the ground of the judgment. If it is not modified at all, we have what is called the *Indicative Mood*. If it be objected to this view, that to call an unmodified form a *mood* is a contradiction in terms, it is sufficient to answer that by the expression "Indicative Mood" is meant only one of the forms of the copula distinguished in respect of the mode of the judgment, one form being that in which it is not modified at all. In exact analogy with this, we speak of nouns of the neuter gender, meaning those which denote objects that have no sex; nouns in the nominative case, which yet is a form of the noun that is no case; adjectives of the positive degree of comparison, meaning such as express no comparison; and in like manner everywhere in classification. The first step, indeed, in this process of classification, in distinguishing objects in respect of any attribute, is to separate them into those that possess the attribute and those that do not. Thus we classify things in reference to organism, as *organic* and *inorganic*; in reference to soul, as *animate* and *inanimate*; in reference to being vertebrate, as *vertebrate* and *invertebrate*. The objection thus has just as much force against the designations of *inorganic*, etc., as against indicative mood, neuter gender, positive degree, and the like, and no more; — it has none at all.

If, in the next place, the copula be modified except as to degree or intensity, it must be modified in reference to the ground of the judgment as being in the domain of thought itself, or out of it. If it be in the domain of

thought itself, it is characterized as *necessary*; for thought must accept all its own procedures as valid, to question which would be absurd. The necessary mood is expressed by the auxiliary *must* and by such modals as *necessarily*, *of necessity*, and the like. It should be added that a judgment grounded on something that is really out of the realm of thought often takes the form of the necessary mood, that is, the form of pure thought. But this is a borrowed, derived use, and the validity of the classification is not affected by it.

If the judgment be modified in respect to its ground, as being out of the realm of proper thought, it is characterized as a *contingent* judgment, in opposition to one grounded in thought itself, which is characterized as necessary. Such a judgment is expressed in the Potential Mood. If, however, still more specifically, the ground of the judgment is indicated as lying in the will, we have the Imperative Mood; if in the desires, we have the moods which appear in some languages in distinct forms under the names of the Optative, the Precative, and the like.

We have thus, in the English language, the four modes of the copula expressed in distinct, peculiar forms, constituting the four moods of the verb, namely:—

1. The Indicative, expressing the copula unmodified;
2. The Necessary, originally expressing the copula as modified by its ground being indicated as in the thought itself;
3. The Potential, expressing the copula as contingent, that is, as grounded in other departments of the mind than the thought;
4. The Imperative, expressing the copula as contingent more specifically, as grounded in the will.

This enumeration excludes the so-called Infinitive and Subjunctive Moods. In regard to the former, it is sufficient, perhaps, to say that in English grammars it is not now generally recognized as a mood, but only a derivative of the verb, a participial noun. It expresses no modification of the copula, of the asserting element of the verb. It should, therefore, be excluded from the modifications which we have enumerated, for it belongs to another class entirely.

The expositions of the Subjunctive Mood by grammarians are extremely conflicting. One class, governed, it would seem, by the etymology of the name, limit the use of the Subjunctive Mood to modifying clauses expressing condition. A part of this class regard the subjunctive as taking alike the indicative and the potential forms; as, "If he *goes*," "If he *go*." Others of this class reject the first of these forms as a form of the Subjunctive, and parse "goes" as in the Indicative. Another class rank as proper subjunctives, such forms as, "Death *were* gain in such a case," as well as those in subordinate clauses.

Now it is evident that the Subjunctive Mood, so called, never appears in the English language in any peculiar form, but ever borrows those of the Indicative or Potential; if under Potential we include those forms sometimes called Conditional, as, "Death *were* gain in such a case." It is evident, further, that in the use of the one or the other of these two forms, the

Indicative and the Potential, the same distinctive meaning or modification is expressed as in the use of the Indicative and the Potential generally; the Indicative form expressing the copula unmodified; the Potential expressing the copula modified as contingent. In the clause, "If he goes," the verb *goes* is Indicative in sense as in form; while in the clause, "If he go," it is contingent in sense, as it has the proper form of the Potential or Conditional. We need only to bear in mind that all languages incline to use the uninflected forms rather than those fully inflected in number and person, as they also use the past tenses rather than the present, when they would express contingent judgments, and also those judgments in which the copula is not made prominent.

There is, then, no Subjunctive Mood distinct from the Indicative and the Potential; for, 1. There is no form peculiar to it; and, 2. There is no peculiar meaning to be given it, as it is Indicative or Potential in sense according as it has the Indicative or Potential form. To enumerate a distinct mood simply on the ground of use in a clause, much more to do this simply because the verb appears in a conditional clause, is most unreasonable. How unnecessary, in the sentence, "He were no lion, were not Romans hind," to call the first *were* a Potential or Conditional form and the second a Subjunctive; and how inconsistent to make the distinction in such a sentence, and in the sentence, "If he promises, he performs," not to make the distinction at all, but to regard both *promises* and *performs* as alike in the Indicative! All cases of the occurrence of the supposed Subjunctive can be as fully and satisfactorily explained by regarding them in the respective cases, as Indicative or Potential, as by bringing in an additional mood.

If the question be one merely of name, — whether we call the contingent mood of the copula as expressed in language the Subjunctive Mood, because that form is preferred, especially in the Latin language, which has too much shaped the grammatical expositions of our own language, in subordinate propositions or clauses; or call it Potential or Conditional from the notion of contingency expressed in the form, — then we might dismiss the discussion as unimportant. But more than a matter in nomenclature is concerned. The proper force of expression, the principles of language, the expediting the study of grammar by removing the hindrances and distractions of error and confusion, are involved. The simple principle that the determination of the mood is to be found, not in the accidents of the external relationships of the verbal expression, but originally and primarily in the intrinsic significance of the mood itself as modifying the copula of a judgment, would lift the fog that so densely envelops the prevalent doctrine of the use of the Latin Subjunctive, and reduce the many pages of rule and exception on exception, of most capricious and contradictory teaching, to a single paragraph of clear, rational exposition.

In accordance with these views of the general tendency in language to distinguish in its forms the modes of the copula, we may enumerate the following varieties of use: —

I. The Indicative form is preferred, —

1. When the copula is to be made prominent, that is, when the judging act is to be emphasized; as, "If the sun *has* risen, it is dark;"

2. In generalized truths or facts; as, "If the sun sets behind a cloud, it usually rains;"

3. When no contingency or necessity is to be expressed; as, "If he *lives* as he professes, he is worthy to be followed;"

4. When the notion of definite time, implying a real event, is to be expressed; as, "If it *rains*, do not go out;" "It *shall be raining*," etc.

II. The Potential form is preferred, —

1. When any contingency is to be expressed; as, "If he refuse, leave him; if he comply, act with him;" "Were it true, it would be slander;"

2. When indefinite futurity, which as such implies contingency, is to be expressed; as, "If it *rain*, I shall not go;"

3. When a command is to be given, or result attained; as, "See that thou *do* it;" "Take care that thou *yield* not;" "Take heed lest any man *deceive* you;"

4. When the copula of a represented judgment, instead of being emphasized when the Indicative is employed, is rather to be obscured or kept out of view. In this case, the English language, in its earlier stages, like the Latin, more commonly preferred the Potential Mood; the later English inclines to the use of the Indicative. The earlier versions of the Bible have: "The cock shall not crow till thou *hast* denied me thrice;" while the King James's version has: "The cock shall not crow till thou *had* denied me thrice." And this version has: "I have told you before it *come*," while modern usage would incline to *comes* or *shall come*.

APPENDIX NO. VII.

SELECTIONS FOR EXERCISES.

I. AFFECTION TO PARENTS REWARDED.

FREDERICK, the late King of Prussia, having rung his bell one day, and nobody answering, opened the door where his servant was usually in waiting, and found him asleep on a sofa. He was going to awake him, when he perceived the end of a billet, or letter, hanging out of his pocket.

Having the curiosity to know its contents, he took and read it, and found that it was a letter from his mother thanking him for having sent her a part of his wages, to assist her in her distress, and concluding with beseeching God to bless him for his filial attention to her wants.

The king returned softly to his room, took a roll of ducats, and slid them, with the letter, into the page's pocket. Returning to his apartment, he rung so violently that the page awoke, opened the door, and entered. "You have slept well," said the king. The page made an apology, and, in his embarrassment, happened to put his hand into his pocket, and felt with astonishment the roll. He drew it out, turned pale, and, looking at the king, burst into tears, without being able to speak a word.

"What is the matter?" said the king; "what ails you?" "Ah! sire," said the young man, throwing himself at his feet, "somebody has wished to ruin me. I know not how I came by this money in my pocket."—"My friend," said Frederick, "God often sends us good in our sleep: send the

money to your mother; salute her in my name; and assure her that I shall take care of *her* and *you*."

This story furnishes an excellent instance of the gratitude and duty which children owe to their aged, infirm, or unfortunate parents. And, if the children of such parents shall follow the example of Frederick's servant, though they may not meet with the reward that was conferred on him, they shall be amply recompensed by the pleasing testimony of their own minds, and by that God who approves, as he has commanded, every expression of filial love.

II. ANECDOTE OF JOHN LEDYARD.—*Sparks*.

After abandoning his missionary schemes, young Ledyard began to grow weary of college, and the more so, probably, as his unsettled habits now and then drew from the president a salutary admonition on the importance of a right use of time, and a regard for the regulations of the establishment. Such hints he conceived to be an indignity, and fancied himself ill treated. That there was value in rules of order and discipline, he did not pretend to deny, but seemed at a loss to imagine why they should apply to him. That the whole subject might be put at rest, without involving any puzzling questions of casuistry, he resolved to escape.

On the margin of the Connecticut River, which runs near the college, stood many majestic forest trees, nourished by a rich soil. One of these Ledyard contrived to cut down. He then set himself at work to fashion its trunk into a canoe, and in this labor he was assisted by some of his fellow-students. As the canoe was fifty feet long, and three wide, and was to be dug out and constructed by these unskillful workmen, the task was not a trifling one, nor such as could be speedily executed. Operations were carried on with spirit, however, till Ledyard wounded himself with an ax, and was disabled for several days. When recovered, he applied himself anew to his work; the canoe was finished, launched into

the stream, and, by the further aid of his companions, equipped and prepared for a voyage. His wishes were now at their consummation, and, bidding adieu to these haunts of the Muses, where he had gained a dubious fame, he set off alone, with a light heart, to explore a river, with the navigation of which he had not the slightest acquaintance. The distance to Hartford was not less than one hundred and forty miles; much of the way was through a wilderness, and in several places there were dangerous falls and rapids.

With a bear-skin for a covering, and his canoe well stocked with provisions, he yielded himself to the current, and floated leisurely down the stream, seldom using his paddle, and stopping only in the night for sleep. He told Mr. Jefferson in Paris, fourteen years afterwards, that he took only two books with him, — a Greek Testament and Ovid, — one of which he was deeply engaged in reading when his canoe approached Bellows Falls, where he was suddenly roused by the noise of the waters rushing among the rocks through the narrow passage. The danger was imminent, as no boat could go down that fall without being instantly dashed in pieces. With difficulty he gained the shore in time to escape such a catastrophe, and, through the kind assistance of the people in the neighborhood, who were astonished at the novelty of such a voyage down the Connecticut, his canoe was drawn by oxen around the fall, and committed again to the water below. From that time, till he arrived at his place of destination, we hear of no accident, although he was carried through several dangerous passes in the river. On a bright spring morning, just as the sun was rising, some of Mr. Seymour's family were standing near his house on the high bank of the small river, that runs through the city of Hartford and empties itself into the Connecticut River, when they espied at some distance an object of unusual appearance, moving slowly up the stream. Others were attracted by the singularity of the sight, and all were conjecturing what it could be, till its questionable shape assumed the true and obvious form of a ca-

noe; but by what impulse it was moved forward none could determine. Something was seen in the stern, but apparently without life or motion. At length the canoe touched the shore directly in front of the house; a person sprang from the stern to a rock in the edge of the water, threw off a bear-skin in which he had been enveloped, and behold John Ledyard, in the presence of his uncle and connections, who were filled with wonder at this sudden apparition; for they had received no intelligence of his intention to leave Dartmouth, but supposed him still there, diligently pursuing his studies, and fitting himself to be a missionary among the Indians.

However unimportant this whimsical adventure may have been in its results, or even its objects, it was one of no ordinary peril, and illustrated, in a forcible manner, the character of the navigator. The voyage was performed in the last part of April, or first of May, and of course the river was raised by the recent melting of the snow on the mountains. This circumstance, probably, rendered the rapids less dangerous; but it may be questioned whether there are many persons, at the present day, who would willingly run the same hazard, even if guided by a pilot skilled in the navigation of the river.

III. THE ALHAMBRA BY MOONLIGHT. — *W. Irving.*

I have given a picture of my apartment on my first taking possession of it: a few evenings have produced a thorough change in the scene and in my feelings. The moon, which then was invisible, has gradually gained upon the nights, and now rolls in full splendor above the towers, pouring a flood of tempered light into every court and hall. The garden beneath my window is gently lighted up; the orange and citron trees are tipped with silver; the fountain sparkles in the moonbeams; and even the blush of the rose is faintly visible.

I have sat for hours at my window, inhaling the sweetness of the garden, and musing on the checkered features of those whose history is dimly shadowed out in the elegant memorials around. Sometimes I have issued forth at midnight when every thing was quiet, and have wandered over the whole building. Who can do justice to a moonlight night in such a climate, and in such a place!

The temperature of an Andalusian midnight in summer is perfectly ethereal. We seem lifted up into a purer atmosphere; there is a serenity of soul, a buoyancy of spirits, an elasticity of frame, that render mere *existence* enjoyment. The effect of moonlight, too, on the Alhambra, has something like enchantment. Every rent and chasm of time, every moldering tint and weather-stain, disappears; the marble resumes its original whiteness; the long colonnades brighten in the moonbeams; the halls are illuminated with a softened radiance, until the whole edifice reminds one of the enchanted palace of an Arabian tale.

At such a time, I have ascended to the little pavilion, called the Queen's Toilet, to enjoy its varied and extensive prospect. To the right, the snowy summits of the Sierra Nevada would gleam, like silver clouds, against the darker firmament, and all the outlines of the mountain would be softened, yet delicately defined. My delight, however, would be to lean over the parapet of the Tocador, and gaze down upon Grenada, spread out like a map below me, all buried in deep repose, and its white palaces and convents sleeping, as it were, in the moonshine.

Sometimes I would hear the faint sounds of castanets from some party of dancers lingering in the Alameda; at other times, I have heard the dubious tones of a guitar, and the notes of a single voice rising from some solitary street, and have pictured to myself some youthful cavalier, serenading his lady's window,—a gallant custom of former days, but now sadly on the decline, except in the remote towns and villages of Spain.

Such are the scenes that have detained me for many an hour, loitering about the courts and balconies of the castle, enjoying that mixture of reverie and sensation which steal away existence in a southern climate: and it has been almost morning before I have retired to my bed, and been lulled to sleep by the falling waters of the fountain of Lin daraxa.

IV. PROCRASTINATION. — *Young.*

Be wise to-day; 't is madness to defer;
 Next day the fatal precedent will plead;
 Thus on, till wisdom is pushed out of life.
 Procrastination is the thief of time:
 Year after year it steals, till all are fled,
 And to the mercies of a moment, leaves
 The vast concerns of an eternal scene.
 If not so frequent, would not this be strange?
 That 't is so frequent, this is stranger still.
 Of man's miraculous mistakes, this bears
 The palm, that all men are about to live,
 Forever on the brink of being born.
 All pay themselves the compliment to think
 They one day shall not drivel; and their pride
 On this reversion takes up ready praise,
 At least their own: their future selves applaud;
 How excellent that life they ne'er will lead!
 Time lodged in their own hands is folly's vails;
 That lodged in fate's, to wisdom they consign;
 The thing they can't but purpose, they postpone.
 'T is not in folly not to scorn a fool;
 And scarce in human wisdom to do more.
 All promise is poor dilatory man,
 And that through every stage: when young indeed
 In full content, we sometimes nobly rest
 Unanxious for ourselves; and only wish
 As duteous sons, our fathers were more wise.

At thirty, man suspects himself a fool ;
 Knows it at forty, and reforms his plan ;
 At fifty chides his infamous delay,
 Pushes his prudent purpose to resolve ;
 In all the magnanimity of thought
 Resolves ; and re-resolves ; then dies the same.

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